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Religious Education in Greece - Orthodox Christianity, Islam and Secularism

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Abstract

This study is an attempt to address the issue of religion in the public sphere and secularism. Since the Eastern Orthodox Church has been established by the Greek constitution (1975) as the prevailing religion of Greece, there are elements of legal agreements- which inevitably spawn interactions- between state and Church in different areas. One such area is Religious Education. This article focuses on Religious Education (RE) in Greece which is a compulsory school subject and on two important interventions that highlight the interplay between religion, politics and education: firstly the new Curriculum for RE (2011) and secondly the introduction of an Islamic RE (2014) in a Greek region (Thrace) where Christians and Muslims have lived together for more than four centuries. The researches are based on fieldwork research and they attempt to open the discussion on the role of RE in a secular education system and its potential for coexistence and social cohesion.

Key words: religious education, secularism, curriculum, Islam, public sphere

Introduction

This article is focused on Religious Education (hereafter referred as to RE) in Greece and the ongoing debate that is taking place within the Greek public sphere. A debate that involves public education, citizens' rights, the relationship between the church and the state, the country's peculiar historical relationship with Turkey, the identification of Islam—in the collective narrative—with "Turkish Islam," the presence of indigenous Muslims in Thrace since the Ottoman era, the country's policies on public education and particularly the subject of RE, and the emergence of an ever-increasing radicalism within the public sphere of a part of the populace, which derives from the austere economical situation of the country, massive immigration, high unemployment, and the manipulation of citizens' fear and misery by extreme political and/or religious groups.

Furthermore, the discussion will point to a new issue that has arisen with the introduction of a course on Islam in the Greek state school system—specifically in the region of Thrace, where many Greek Muslim citizens live—, and the attendant heated debates as well as the related minority options of state policy on this issue, and the political antagonism between Greece and Turkey and how that affects this specific community in Greece with its multiple identities.

Religion in the Public Sphere

Analysis of the role of religion in modern society is closely linked with the process of secularization and the theory (or theories) that interpret it. Secularism is a multidimensional process that goes back to the historical conditions surrounding the formation of the modern state and the loss of religious power via political legitimatization. As a concept, it appears with various meanings depending on the perspective of the researchers who analyze this notion, primarily theologians, philosophers, sociologists, and jurists. Grace Davie has attempted to identify the significance of religion in the modern global order and to rethink the predominant ways of thought concerning the place of religion within secular societies. Looking at the history of Europe, Davie concludes that is not immediately clear what exactly the notion "theory of secularism" means; at the same time, she underlines that it is quite clear that the sociology of religion must admit that religious

experience and religious changes have their impact on societies. Without devaluing all aspects of the notion of secularism—viewing, for example, the legal separation of religion and state as a "healthy" stage of modernism—, she concludes that secularism does not necessarily entail the marginalization of religion to the private sphere nor even the diminution of religious practices. Davie argues that if we want to understand secularism and globalization, we have to take into consideration humanity's' complex and continuous relationship with religion. She maintains that it is possible for society to be both religious and secular (Davie, 2007, pp. 160, 224-243).

It would be argued that modern European societies are at the same time secular and religious, with the possible exception of the French laïcité (Bouretz, 2000, p. 58); but even this laïcité today suffers at the practical level from the public demands of French Muslims. Secularization is therefore part of a broader political process, the main feature of which is the affirmation of the individual as the subject of political rights and obligations. Among these rights, one which stands out is freedom of thought and religion, which, in order to be fully implemented, requires, from a legal point of view, the separation of Church and State.

The spectacular return of religion to the European public space is due, mainly after the 1990's and especially in the 21st c., to the demands of faithful Muslims within secular societies, and the confrontation of issues concerning "public Islam and the common good." (Salvatore, 2006, pp. 543-561). Therefore, secular European states are facing new issues that have been raised with the emergence of Islam's public demands within secular "western" countries.

Similarly, European education, with diverse models in each country, faces the challenge of finding ways to promote the peaceful coexistence of various religious identities in the public space and is thus called upon to manage multiculturalism and multireligiosity in schools. In the European area there has been a dialogue for inter-religious and intercultural education since 2001. Moreover, the Committee of Ministers agreed to a policy recommendation (CM/Rec(2008)12) that all member states should include the impartial study of religions within the curricula of their school's systems. This recommendation which incorporated ideas from the *White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue,* gives a compelling cultural argument for the study of religions and legitimacy for a compulsory RE. It should be mentioned that its principles provide intercultural dialogue and its dimension of religious and non-religious convictions as significant factors for the development of tolerance and cultural coexistence (Koukounaras Liagkis, 2013a). In 2014 The Council of Europe published *Signposts* as an aid for policy makers, schools and teacher trainers in member states to enable them to interpret and act upon the 2008 recommendation from the Committee of Ministers on teaching about religious and non-religious convictions (Jackson, 2014).

The above raise the controversial question: What are the educational policies of secular states towards their multireligious citizenry (Muslims, Jews, Hindus, Sikhs, non-religious, etc.), and how is the issue of the majority's religious identity expressed in educational, political, and religious terms? Religious diversity can operate as a cohesive bond or a divisive factor between citizens, and in the case of Islam, what do European Muslims, as well as the newly arrived immigrants, desire for themselves? Is there only one will, and how can secular states satisfy the many different religious tendencies within their societies and support a capable educational system?

These questions are only the beginning of a series of questions, both old and new, that pertain to most of the countries of Europe and especially the countries of the Balkan Peninsula, which has been seized by the most intense religious, political, and territorial antagonisms throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, during and after the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, and where much of the so-called "old" Islam, an inheritance from the Ottomans lives (Ziaka, 2013). According to Tsioumis (2011), the case of Greece "could not be excluded from the attitude of modern-nation states of the Balkans, where ethnic identity developed as opposed to the identity of the 'other' and this reality has also affected the management of minority—and majority we could add—educational policy". The emergence of new nation states also relied, particularly in the case of Greece, on collective memories and traditions about their lost homelands, their resistance to the efforts of Islamisation, the Orthodox faith's contribution to the preservation of Greek literature, language, culture, and identity (Molokotos-Liederman). The consensus view seems to be that the Greek state is deemed as a case study regarding the secularization process (Prodromou, 1998).

Greek state schools and Religious Education: old debates under new realities

Greek state schools require RE to be taught in each of the six years of secondary education for two hours per week, while in the upper primary grades RE is offered, from the third grade until the sixth. The framework for RE in schools is provided by the basic Law for Education (1566/1985) which requires that all students on a mandatory basis have to have been taught

the 'authentic' tradition of the Orthodox Church (article 1, paragraph 1). Besides article 13, paragraphs 1-2 of the constitution guarantee the basic right to freedom of religion and associate it with the development of religious consciousness. Moreover, according to Law 1566/1985 the state has to provide RE to any religious community who wants to organize its confessional RE on condition that 5 students apply for it. Since 2013 only the Catholic community has been a case in point and in their case they only applied to have their own RE teachers though they have followed the official Curriculum and textbooks of Greek RE from 2003 onward. Of course, every student has a right to be exempted from RE through an application, which must be signed by the two parents, arguing that he has reasons related to other doctrines, religion or religious consciousness, in general (Koukounaras Liagkis, 2015). What is important to stress at this point is that, according to personal fieldwork research, Muslim students in Greece who are immigrants and they do not live in the region of Thrace (north part of Greece) do not likely apply for exemption from RE.

In primary education, those who teach RE are primary school teachers who have not received any special RE training during their university education; in secondary education, RE teachers have graduated from one of the country's two Theological Schools (Athens, Thessaloniki). RE focuses primarily on the Christian faith and Orthodox tradition; Students also are taught about the other major world religions, with two extended sections placing special emphasis on Islam in the textbook of the 2nd grade of the Lyceum (Ziaka, 2009). Some but not many references to Islam are in the RE textbooks in primary school and high school/Gymnasium (Primary: 4th grade, a photo, p.46, 6th grade, a section (33). High school: 1st grade, a text, p. 78 and 2nd grade, a photo. p.83). In both primary and secondary classes textbooks dominate, since the Curriculum (2003) has remained a content-focused designed Curriculum containing content basically derived more from 'Theology' (related to a particular religion and faith) instead of 'Religious studies' (related to different religions, cultures and traditions). Every teacher is free to extend their teaching to other religions, speaking largely in historical terms about the three monotheistic religions and their historical and cultural encounters with one another. The teachers are Greek civil servants and are not controlled, or appointed by the Greek Orthodox Church and the same holds true for university professors of theology.

All the above were forced to change with the emergence of new realities within the country, and the drafting of a new curriculum for the "New School," as the whole project was named by the Ministry of Education, beginning with the 2010-2011 academic year. The Pedagogical Institute, with the support of the Ministry of Education, developed a new Curriculum and a pilot program for the RE (as all the other subjects of the Curriculum). The pilot program which was organised initially to run for the 2011-12 school year was extended for one year and then more until the June of 2015. Until today there is no certainty, as it is stressed below, that the new Curriculum will be implemented or that there would be changes at least on the current RE Curriculum (2003).

The new Curriculum though is not confessional is still an open Christian Curriculum, with only a 10% of its content dedicated to the study of world religions. The Curriculum, mainly derived of the British experience, defines the inclusion of epistemological, theological and pedagogical approaches, remaining a compulsory subject of the Greek school curriculum. The foregoing discussion implies that the Curriculum has two main characteristics: a) It avoids equating Religious Education with Theology as did all the previous curricula and b) It fundamentally provides a basic constructivist approach to teaching and learning about religions focusing on learning not on teaching. (Koukounaras Liagkis, 2015; Karamouzis, 2011). This approach which has given rise to criticism from the more traditionalist theologians and religious educators who are strongly influenced by either one or the other underlines that it offers new pedagogical tools to the older Curriculum, such as that of interaction between students and teacher, and many other positive developments. Without undermining the older Curriculum it rendered interesting facts but in an outdated and old-fashioned way, in which both the teacher and the student are controlled by the mediating textbook, a static piece of material, which was often unclear and tedious for the student, while the new Curriculum place the student at the center of the teaching process with new pedagogical methods. Thus, the pedagogical methods employed in the new Curriculum are much friendlier to both the students and the teachers, providing more than one interactive choice per lesson, and the possibility of independent study on the part of the students with the facilitation—rather than the necessary intervention—of the teacher, thus the students' recollection of other information sets, experiences, and skills are related to an ecumenical view and understanding of the world, geography, ecology, the environment, and others which are rightly associated with RE. Furthermore, some Greek researchers lend support to the claim that "the New Pilot Curricula (RE and Greek language) promote the education of the students without social, economic, educational, religious, or cultural discriminations and inequalities. Both cases are marked by an effort to promote the principles of intercultural education within the pedagogical framework where the Curricula are implemented." (Mitropoulou, Rantzou, & Anagnostopoulou, 2015).

That reform spawned a maelstrom of criticism that continues to gain strength, taking, however, away the essence of the project and contributing nothing to a competent presentation of the material in the new Curriculum (i.e. the texts of the *Curriculum* and the *Guide for the Curriculum*) in the school community or within the broader public sphere. At the same time, the failure to take into account society's changing needs and the insistence on a religious "primitivism" (Kairidis, 2008) runs counter to class on religion itself. It is commonly accepted, even by the Hierarchy of the Church of Greece, that the character of the RE "in the framework of the overall program of education should not be 'catechetical,' 'confessional,' or 'religious studies' in the absolute sense, nor should these exclusively define its content" (Anthimos, 2013).

Unsurprisingly, RE teachers have been divided into the supporters (progressives) and the non supporters (traditionalists) the new Curriculum. Trine Stauning Willert, with a long standing research on Greek Orthodox thought and society, notices that between theologians and RE teachers in Greece two views and types are identified: "The first used a traditionalist agenda envisioning Orthodoxy as the essence of Greek culture and a return to the 'good old days' through a revival of Orthodox values in education. The other took contemporary Greek society as a key point of reference advocating the Orthodox theology and Orthodox values are compatible with a contemporary outlook which can contribute to society as it really is today and not as it should be or as it, supposedly, was in 'the good old days'" (Stauning Willert, 2014).

The issue remains open until now; the new Curriculum has not been implemented yet. With regard to political initiatives, which are constantly changing due to political uncertainty and political opportunism, this is a debate which has been underway since 2009 onwards and in which three tendencies can be observed relative to RE. The first is that of technocrats, who are skeptical about the usefulness of RE, and—in light of the general spirit of austerity—were inclined to cut the "unproductive" religion classes. This attitude characterizes also a portion of the anti-bailout (memorandum) politicians and citizens on the left, who display their ideological prejudices on the topic of religion. On the other end of the spectrum, we find a caustic ethno-religious rhetoric, which is supported by right-wing forces and groups of Christians, theologians, and others, including some leading ecclesiastical figures (Zoumboulakis, 2013). In the middle, there are a group of theologians, citizens, religious leaders, the Institute of Educational Policy and also a group of politicians who are trying, without exaggerating, to reshape RE in Greece and prevent social conflicts.

Introducing Islamic RE in the Greek State Schools

In recent years (since 2013), a part of the current political leadership, i.e.: the General Secretary of Religious Affairs has seemed amenable toward the aforementioned changes, and is trying to reconcile all the various forces by preserving RE within the state school system while also updating it in the light of the new social challenges. The General Secretary of Religious Affairs of the Greek Ministry of Education has, also taken a step further with the initiative to introduce an optional Islamic RE in the Greek state schools of Western Thrace, where the Muslim minority of "old" Islam lives according to the Lausanne Treaty (1923). They are entitled to their bilingual educational system but as the Minority schools, especially High Schools, could not satisfy all the applications due to different reasons (big number of students, limited linguistics skills concerning the Greek language and societal reasons), an increasing number of Muslim adolescents register at Greek Secondary schools. Bearing in mind that situation someone could conclude that the initiatives above-and mainly with the introduction of Islamic RE in the state schools- are aimed primarily at safeguarding the non-instrumentalization of the minority by the Turkish policy through religion in the region and also to start preparing the field to the growing religious, political, and social needs of the Muslim immigrants, by creating an atmosphere within the state Greek school community that is friendly toward Islam and works against stereotypes and Islamophobia.

In order to move forward with this initiative, a committee, including Muslim citizens of Western Thrace, was appointed for the "improvement of the educational system of the religious (Muslim) minority of Thrace" with the main aim to investigate the ways of the best possible and most effective application of the provisions of Article 53, entitled "Teachers of religion of the Muslim minority of Thrace, and the improvement of education for Muslim children in the public schools of Thrace," of Law 4115/2013 (FEK 24/30-1-2013), which was composed by Ministerial Decree 27147/A3/27-02-2013. At the conclusion of its meetings in mid-November 2013, this Committee recommended to the Ministry of Education, among other things, the appointment of another special committee to write the textbooks for the Islamic RE. In accordance with the RE Curriculum, the Islamic RE will consist of two hours lessons per week. One hour of reading the Qur'anic texts in Arabic, and one hour devoted to the class on Islam in Greek. The issue of language has primarily led to debate and tension within a part of the Muslim community, which calls for the teaching to be in Turkish. But this would be a paradox for the Greek educational system, especially when there are already the so-called "minority schools" as well as two madrasas in the cities of Komotini

and Echinos, where pupils enjoy the right to be taught specific lessons in the Turkish language, including the class on religion. Furthermore, after almost two years of inauguration and implementation of the optional Islamic RE, it is increasingly understood, by a large part of local population in Thrace, that the communication of religious diversity in a common language and school environment, may remove the perplexities and controversies, and lead to a constructive conversation within the public sphere (Ziaka, 2015)

Nevertheless, a part of the political left, specifically some components of the SYRIZA party do not support the introduction of the Islamic RE in the Greek public school system, as much as they generally oppose the teaching of religion in schools, prioritizing instead the safeguarding of human rights within the secular state. There is also a lively discussion about the identity of the Muslims of Thrace, the marking of multiple and often crossing identities (Sebba & Wooton, 1998)—specifically whether or not they are all purely Turkish—, and their right to their mother tongue within Greece. Of course, the preservation of their "mother tongue" is guaranteed by the Lausanne Treaty (1923), but its teaching is implemented to the minority schools (Tsitselikis & Mavrommatis, 2003), with the Turkish language to be the predominant one in education and the expense of the two others non written languages (Pomak and Roma).

This why, the issues of minority education in Thrace are regulated under the provisions of the Treaty of Lausanne (Articles 40, 41, 45), which provides for the religious, linguistic, and educational freedom of religious minorities, both in Greece and Turkey. Issues regarding minority education are also dealt with by the Educational Protocol of 20.12.1968, which is still in effect. Essentially, this opened the way for the infusion of Turkish national identity into the Muslim minority of Western Thrace and its discussion until today (Trubeta, 2001, pp. 41-42; Trubeta, 2003). Since 1930, and particularly between 1950-1970, Turkey was directly involved in minority education, through the sending of books, funds for the construction of schools, teacher education, etc. The Greek-Turkish Agreement of 1951 (20 April) connected the minority even more with the Turkish state (Mavrommatis, 2006). The Treaty of Lausanne was further complemented by provisions in the Greek-Turkish Protocol of 1968 (Educational Protocol between Greece and Turkey, 1968), and the Agreement of 2000 (Ministerial Decree G2/933, 3.3.2000 [FEK B 372, 2000]: Timetable of forms A, B and C of Minority High Schools) (Tsitselikis & Mavrommatis, 2003, pp. 28-31). The Greek-Turkish educational protocol of 1968 included adjustments regarding the language of instruction, the Turkish language, audio-visual aids, school textbooks, etc.

On this legal basis, compulsory primary education is provided by the minority schools in a bilingual program (six years' duration, as in state education). In Greek, the students are taught history, environmental studies, geography, and the Greek language, while in Turkish they are taught the Turkish language, natural sciences, mathematics, and religion. When gymnastics, arts, and music are not taught by specialized teachers (as is the case, for example, in the small schools in the Rhodopes mountains), they are taught by the Muslim teacher. In the Rhodopes mountains, therefore, primary education takes place exclusively in the minority schools, as opposed to the urban areas, where the minority and state elementary schools coexist.

Shifts in the number of minority elementary schools in Thrace

Table 1

Province	Xanthi	Rhodope	Evros	Total
Elementary Schools (2004 - 05) **(Liazos, 2007)**	**76**	**135**	**21**	**232**
Elementary Schools (2014) **(Regional Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education/Eastern Macedonia and Thrace)**	**52**	**92**	**15**	**159**

Minority Secondary education in Thrace operates, by law, with: one Gymnasium (3 years compulsory high school) and one Lyceum (an optional 3 years school after Gymnasium) (Cümülcine Celal Bayar Lises) in Komotini founded in 1952; one Gymnasium and one Lyceum (İskeçe Muzafeer Salioğlu Azinlik Ortaokul ve Lises) in Xanthi founded in 1964; and two madrassas, one in Komotini, and one in Echinos of Xanthi. Since 1999, the madrassas in Komotini and Xanthi have moved from a five-year to a six-year program (Ministerial Decree G2/5560 of 25-11-1999). These madrassas follow the same program as the minority secondary schools, except that additional courses with religious content are taught, such as: Interpretation of the Qur'an, Arabic Language, Islamic History, Imamat etc. (Ziaka 2009, pp. 168-171). Recently, the

committee for the improvement of the educational system of the Muslim minority of Thrace proposed, among other things, the examination of the reform of the school schedule, with a RE specialized program of 17 or 18 hours for Gymnasium and the first grade of Lyceum, 14 hours for the second grade of Lyceum, and 9 hours for the third grade, for a total of 42 hours, based on the model of the state schools for fine arts, music, etc.

The minority secondary schools also follow a bilingual program. The courses taught in the Greek language are: Ancient and Modern Greek, History, Geography, and Civics ("theoretical" courses), while the other courses (the "positive" courses: Science, Mathematics, etc.), together with the Turkish language, are taught in Turkish. It is characteristic that, in the minority schools, apart from the general education courses, all the courses of the positive sciences as well as some technological education (Mathematics and Science) are taught in Turkish. Only theoretical courses—which are usually not an option for students, so they do not apply—and the rest of the technological education courses are taught in Greek.

In the completely Muslim mountain regions of Thrace, there are also five Gymnasia and one Lyceum, which fall into the general Curriculum (in Organi in Rhodope province, and in Xanthi province in Sminthi, where there is also Lyceuml, in Glafki, in Echino, and in Therma). The Muslim students in these schools are taught the course on religion in Turkish, the Qur'an in Arabic, and all the other courses in Greek (Liazos, 2007, p. 117). In the city of Xanthi, there is also a minority Vocational School. All these schools follow the curricula of the state schools.

Without engaging in ideological rivalries concerning the prevalence of the Turkish language in virtually all the minority it could be argued that much of this populace has not been sufficiently trained in the Greek language, which makes the relationship between the state and citizen much more difficult. The critical stance towards the largely outdated educational methodology of minority education that continues to exist in the Greece of the 21st century is inevitable, and also the consequences it has, both educationally and psychologically (Askouni, 2011). Indeed, these are some of the reasons that today there is an outflow of students from the Muslim minority schools and into Greek state schools. Particularly after 1996, the percentage of Muslim students who have continued and completed secondary education has greatly increased when compared to previous years. The special quota of 0.5% for the admission of minority pupils to higher education institutions has contributed to this increase. This is an important affirmative action measure for Thracian Muslim students, which essentially offers them an additional 350 positions at Greek universities (AEI) and higher technical institutes (TEI). A further reason for choosing Greek-language education is the prospect for continuing their studies at Greek universities (Ziaka, 2009, p. 170).

Towards this aim and during the past fifteen years, more attention has been given to minorities and the matter of their education than in the past. In addition to the positive contributions of the legal measures referred to above, the Greek Ministry of Education has also undertaken important initiatives, in collaboration with the Greek university community, to work out special professional development programs both for minority educators as well as for many other areas of Muslim education (Androussou, Askouni, Dragona, Frangoudaki, & Plexoussaki, 2011). The program for the education of Muslim children (1997-2008) concerned minority pupils (firstly, primary school level, and to a somewhat lesser extent, secondary-level). They were provided with a series of new books for learning Greek and to assist their integration into the wider environment, not only the Greek but also the European.

The attempt, however, to introduce an Islamic RE into the Greek state schools of Thrace raised many questions and posed several difficulties. The former pertain to conflicts within the Muslim community over the choice of language, i.e., Arabic for the Qur'an and Greek for teaching purposes. The latter relate to the Muslim RE teachers themselves and whether they are ready to teach the Qur'an and Islam in state schools in Arabic, with Greek as simply an auxiliary language, after training at the madrassas and a very brief introductory seminar, which was supported by Thessaloniki's School of Theology, as well as by doctors of Muslim theology and pedagogy, in late September and early October 2013. During this training seminar, personal research stressed that the Turkish language had been partly "sanctified" by the Muslim minority, and at the same time they felt comfortable with the rendering of Qur'anic terms into Turkish. Among the Muslims chosen by the Greek state to become RE teachers in the state school system (20 during the first (2013) phase and 24 during the second (2014) phase), there is also a broad linguistic amalgam. Some speak Turkish well and know how to read Arabic, but are less adept at Greek, while others, and especially those graduate of the Special Pedagogical Academy (E.PA.TH.)—which aimed at the "education and training of native Muslim teachers," according to its founding charter (PD 31/1969), but, for political reasons, was closed two years ago—have sufficient proficiency in both Greek and Turkish, but much less in Arabic, even though many of them are graduates of madrassas. Moreover, some Muslim members of the Greek Parliament object to the proposed model, since the creation of new teachers of religion and Imams, who will be educated by the Greek state, will probably cut into the influx of imams and preachers from Turkey but also from other parts of the Middle East, mainly from

Saudi Arabia. Egypt used to be also a country of preference, until recently, but not anymore, because cannot provide scholarships as the other two states do. Also critical of the Greek state's proposal are Muslims Muftis elected from a certain part of the minority, not those Muftis appointed and recognized by the Greek state. The elected Mufti of Xanthi, employing nationalistic rather than theological arguments, warned their fellow citizens who were appointed by the Greek state not to proceed with their jobs, since soon imams will appear without "circumcision" (Gündem newspaper January 16, 2014). Of course in Thrace sometimes the national and the religious compete, and sometimes the religious is identified with the national—such as in the case of the election or appointment of the Mufti and the great debate that began after 1980 about the application of Shari'a law and other, similar issues (Ziaka, 2013). Furthermore, there was a pedagogical view that has fostered debate on the reason Greek state established a confessional Islamic RE in Thrace when at the same time attempted to literally reform the RE in state schools to non-confessional (Koukounaras Liagkis, 2013b). At the same time, another debate has begun regarding the broader public sphere and the minority issues of Thrace. There are the voices of those who are critical of the "hegemonic elite" of the Greek state, and other agents at the region like the Media and the local "elites" (Gkintidis, 2013; Tsibiridou, 2006). There are also other voices who talk about taking responsibility for the teaching of RE within Greek state schools and within a frame of a broader national educational strategic. An initiative who can lead to a mutual understanding of religious "otherness" and non-religious voices, within the local and national context, without abandoning the religious education only to denominational/catechetical circles that they do not share, the most of the times, a public common space for dialogue and even progressive debate (Ziaka, 2015a).

The reality is that, of the 82 teachers of religion, 58 are serving the mosques as imams and the other 24, of which 23 are graduates of EPATH, entered the schools at the beginning of 2014. RE was chosen by the majority of the students, with few exceptions. At the same time a pioneering project entitled "Lifelong Learning Program for Christian and Muslim Theologians of Thrace on Issues Related to the Teaching of Religion, Religious Otherness and Intercultural Religious Education" has started and it is still in process until September 2015. The programme prioritizes, educationally, religious diversity in Thrace as a factor of peaceful coexistence and interaction in the public sphere. The programme was designed by the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki and the School of Theology by the Scientific Responsible Angeliki Ziaka and its aim is to teach religion as a catalyst for a harmonious and constructive coexistence, and not as a source of tensions. Therefore, meetings between Christian theologians-RE teachers in Secondary schools and Muslim RE teachers in Primary and Secondary schools have been held basically on the subject of 'teaching of religion', with the additional motive of promoting their acquaintance and mutual support in the public school environment. So far, there have been 390 hours of training in two phases of the program (1st: September 2014-December 2014 and 2nd: February 2015-April 2015), with interdisciplinary and interfaith approaches, for 65 RE teachers (of the total 90 appointees) and 82 imams and RE teachers of Islam. Already, 140 people have registered for the joint training for teachers of Christianity and Islam that will take place in September within the framework of the program and it admittedly would be the most interesting part for research and evaluation. From the program's progress to this point, for the sake of discussion some issues would be addressed: The program a) has been welcomed by the educational communities of the aforementioned areas and particularly by our theologian colleagues in secondary education and the teachers of Islam. b) was a good beginning for communication and public debate on the needs and educational priorities both now and in the future on issues of religion and an intercultural approach to them, c) created an atmosphere of trust and communication in the broader public space. d)the optional Islamic RE in the Greek state school of Thrace has little or no drop-outs, and in this sense forms a safeguard for the state school system's RE with a broader intercultural character not restricted to the narrow confines of emotional and region-based confessional approaches (catechism). The same is also true of the RE lessons in the broader Greek school system (Ziaka, 2015b).

Discussion

In the light of the Greek situation, that is articulated above, the role of "public religion/s" (Casanova, 1994; Eickelman, 2002) seems more stable, and some understand the role of the religious leaders (Bishops and Muftis) as guarantors of social security within the public sphere of religiously "other" citizens. For still others, religious faith works not "as a means to bridge differences between them (Muslims) and the majority, but rather as a dividing chasm" (Trubeta, 2001, p. 245). Furthermore, secularism in Greece has had a dialectical stance with and dependence on religion/the Church (Kalaitzidis, 2012) in which relationship Islam also has a local presence, even though it has been on the margins of society for decades (Salvatore, 2006, p. 555).

The interplay between religion and the public space in Greece reveals the important assumption that the Greek constitution

proclaims not only the principle of "religious tolerance," but also that of "religious freedom." In modern Greece, religion has never been absent from the public sphere, and there is a special relationship between the Church and the State. One of the bases for the relationship between the Church and the State is the Constitution of 1975, which was revised in 1986, 2001, and 2008. It is important to note that the non revised Article 13, paragraph 1, expressly establishes the right of "religious freedom". But as the Eastern Orthodox Church is established by the Greek constitution as the prevailing religion of Greece no one can deny that there are elements of legal agreements- which inevitably spawn interactions- between state and Church and furthermore between groups of citizen or religious communities in different areas. RE is inevitably a crucial factor in that case and therefore state recognition that trying to reform it and adjust it with the European environment- is not always successful. Obviously the question of RE and its role in pluralistic societies is dominant but at the core of the study, however, the question of symbiosis exists and how (some would argue if) religious and non religious people should believe, behave and belong independently and at the same time commonly within the public sphere. Of course European and Greek research examine and illuminate at the same time the inclusive view of religious freedom and the potential of RE.

In such environment, where religion in the public space raises tempers and engenders conflicts, examples of acceptance and respect for religious diversity within the country's academic institutions is of paramount and symbolic importance. The Theological School of Aristotle University of Thessaloniki has already played a leading role in this regard, having since 1970 granted a prayer room to the university's Muslim students guaranteeing safety to every Muslim who wished to pray.

The School of Theology in Thessaloniki, moreover, taking into account all the tension and debate in the public sphere concerning religion generally and Islam specifically, is also moving towards the creation of a research direction of Muslim Studies. The goal of the project is to open the doors to the study of the religion of Islam on an academic rather than confessional basis. In this vein, parallel to the purely Islamic courses (Qur'an, Sunna/Hadith, Tafsir, and Shari'a), there will also be courses on: Muslim tariqa, which has a rich history in the Balkan peninsula; the history of relations between Orthodox Christianity and Islam; and local expressions and understandings of Islam, all focusing on social and cultural relationships and mutual understanding between members of the two religious traditions. Such a project has the support of parts of the academic, political, and ecclesiastical establishments, but also has critics, who view such a project through an ideological spectrum and believe that such a project would open the doors to the Turkification and Islamization of Greece and Europe. Criticism is also voiced by Christian and Muslim citizens and representatives of Christian and Muslim associations about how it is possible for Christianity or Islam to be taught within the Universities without a confessional orientation.

The main question that remains is whether or not to disengage religion from state hegemony and religiously institutionalized hegemony, leaving it therefore with the ability to operate in the public sphere and in civil society, with freedom and creativity as a social and cultural agent. If secularism really exists to emancipate humans from religious authority, would not the words of Tocqueville, two centuries later, apply? "When there is no longer any principle of authority in religion any more than in politics, men are speedily frightened at the aspect of this unbounded independence. [...]" (Hervieu-Leger & Willaime, 2005, p. 74; Van de Putte, 2010, p. 487). Seeing now, however, the state of religion in the public sphere some two centuries later than Tocqueville, it can be concluded that religions will continue to be an integral part of societies. Whether or not the secular and religious institutions find a way to work together will be an indicator of whether democracy itself can continue to be sustained and survive. And, in this case, the relationship is not one-sided, but bilateral.

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Correlation of Ethical Conduct within an Organisation with the Absence of Employees from Work

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Abstract

The working environment of an organization in which employees perform their activities is a social system. It creates certain employee attitudes that are greatly influenced by the organisational or working culture and norms and the work ethics they define. The latter is actualised in certain organisational rules and standards and the manners and methods of employee communication and conduct. All aspects of conduct are relevant to employees, as behaviour directly influences the development of an (in)appropriate attitude to norms and working culture and, consequentially, also to absence of employees from work. Ethical conduct of employees is closely linked to the "strength" of the work ethic in an organisation and an analysis of studies shows that this is important also from the perspective of employee absence. This fact is confirmed by numerous studies that explain the statistical relationship between work ethics and employee absence. The INODEL study also used certain questions to establish the moral-ethical relationship of employees in Slovenia to medical absenteeism. On the one hand, the study checked whether employees ever abused sick leave and to what extent. On the other hand, the study sought to establish whether employees showed a moral-ethical attitude to work and performed their duties despite the fact that they could have been absent from work due to illness, injury or care for a family member. This article therefore presents certain results of the INODEL study that was performed among employees in the Republic of Slovenia.

Keywords: absenteeism, organizational culture, work ethic, ethical conduct

1.   Introduction

An organisation is a social formation of persons (employees) and in every social system there are daily relationships between employees that give rise to various behaviours that can, firstly, influence the workplace mood and motivation of employees, or secondly, hinder employees in their work or create negative emotions that can result in improper behaviour.

Employee behaviour is influenced by different stimuli occurring in the external environment. Employees detect environmental influences and respond to them with their organisms. Such employee reactions to environmental stimuli and resulting behaviour differ widely. It is, however, a fact that the behaviour of an individual is substantially influenced also by their convictions regarding what is right and wrong (evil), what is allowed and prohibited.

The conduct of employees in a work environment is greatly dependent on personal and organisational values that influence the culture of behaviour or the (un)ethical conduct of employees. Musek (1993) believes that values serve as »a kid of signpost for morality and ethics«. Moorhead and Griffin (1998) explain that the ethic of an individual is their personal

conviction on what is right and wrong or what is good and what bad. Cummings and Worley (2001) believe that ethics represent the standards of desired conduct of employees in a certain area.

Rubin et al. (1994) explain that work ethics of employees are an important social stimulus for the creating an in-group. Work ethics can be defined as a collection of values and behaviour related to the work place that people feel are moral. In general, work ethics are called strong if they feel that they have to fulfil all the formal responsibilities that come with a job, and called weak or low if people are more tolerant to the fulfilment of formal responsibilities.

Ethical conduct in an organisation, which also represents the state of affairs and degree of organisational culture,[1] is tightly linked also to employee behaviour with regard to employee conduct in choosing whether to be absent from work and the reasons for such an absence.

There are a number of definitions of absence of employees from work or so-called absenteeism and different authors use different [2] scopes to interpret the dimensions of absenteeism. Savery et al. (1998, p. 315) feel that absenteeism is defined as the absence of an employee from work. Yet they do not accurately state the type[3] of absence in question. A similar stance is adopted by Eggert (2009), who emphasises that absence from work is linked to the lack of presence of an employee at work at a time when work is available. Lokke et al. (2007, p. 19) explain absenteeism as »a lack of physical presence of an employee at a certain location and in a time when social expectations dictate that the employee would be present at that location and at that time«. Briner (1999, p. 875) sees absenteeism simply as absence of an employee from work, but believes that it is very difficult to explain such an occurrence due to its complexity.

Employees can be absent from work voluntarily, but also involuntarily, meaning that their reasons for absence may be made up or wilfully fake. Such a view of absenteeism is linked to »black absenteeism«, which Sanders (2004, p. 138) and Van Dierendock et al. (2002) see as the form of absence from work that negatively influences the conduct of employees in an organisation as it is defined as an »anti-cooperative« form of behaviour.

The conduct of employees within an organisation is monitored, seen and felt by other employees, particulary in cases of unethical conduct. Evans and Palmer (2000) also emphasize certain perspectives that arise from the working environment and represent a potential cause for the absence of employees from work. Such perspectives include the factor of work culture and norms and the related aspect of work ethics.

The manner of conduct present in an organisation or among employees in an important factor as it can decisively influence the behaviour of an entire group. Employees [4] naturally receive certain queues on how to behave and what behaviour is acceptable in the organisation from their peers. People can quickly establish which rules must be observed in practice and which can be ignored. Such conduct of employees is also the result of norms and working culture or ethics in an organisation, and it also influences decisions of employees regarding their absence from work. This is confirmed by Evans and Palmer (2000) who believe that the influence of norms present in an organisation is linked to the absence of employees from work. They emphasise that the development of norms or appropriate behaviour is not influenced only by words, but also by actions, particularly those of the management staff. This is shown also in the case of absence of employees from work. If certain absences of employees were overlooked in the past and not treated appropriately by the management, there is a high probability that such absences will continue in the future.

Further confirmation is seen in the study of Prottas (2008, p. 318), who emphasises the importance of the role of leaders in ethical conduct in organisations or construction of appropriate "standards" of conduct of leaders and employees as it is clear that the lowering of criteria or level of admissibility and appropriacy influences further conduct of employees.

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[1] Organisational culture is a pattern of convictions and expectations of the members of an organisation and it sets out the norms that guide the behaviour of employees and groups within that organization (Fitzgerald and Desjardins, 2004). Organisational culture is a complete system of norms, values, ideas, convictions and symbols that set out the manner of behaviour and response to the issues of employees, thereby shaping the incident form of the organisation (Rozman et al., 1993).

[2] Allebeck and Mastekaasa (2004, p. 28) explain that employee absence is studied by a number of sciences including medicine, sociology, psychology, economics and organisation from their respective viewpoints.

[3] Definitions can be understood very generally as it is not clearly decided whether absence is a result of annual leave, health issues, etc.

[4] We believe that new employees seek rapid acceptance by their colleagues and accordingly adapt their behaviour at least partly, if not in whole, to the behaviour present among employees in the relevant organisation. Such behaviour depends on the norms and the organisational and working culture present in the organisation.

The role of ethical conduct of employees in an organisation is not important only due to the fact that it showcases the appropriate level of culture in that organisation and serves as a model of appropriate behaviour, but also due to the fact that studies [1] show the correlation between the ethical conduct of employees and employee absence.

A study carried out by Van Yperen et al (1994) established that a stronger (more strict) work ethic in an organisation results in a lower absence of employees from work. A similar result was observed in the study of Sanders (2004, p. 1145-150) which showed that a stronger (more strict) work ethic [2] in an organisation (group of employees) lowers the rate of short absences of employees from work. These two variables are also linked to the cohesion of teams in the organisation. Results therefore show that work ethics are an important determinant in the creation of cohesion among employees and may influence employees to reduce their absence from work since their high ethical standards may lead them to be uncomfortable and reduce absences. The study of Guerts (1991, p. 385-398) et al showed that in a group of bus drivers with strong cohesion and connections between group members perceived absence from work as strongly undesirable and inappropriate. This was the reason for group members to avoid absence from work as a sign of respect, honesty towards each other and strong cohesion.

The study of De Boer (2002, p. 181-197) et al focused on the connections between »unfairness«[3] at work and absence from work. The starting premise of the study was that a sense of unfairness at the workplace has an important role in the conduct of employees at work. Prior to carrying out their own research, the authors reviewed other studies and found that a detection (sense) of fairness and correctness of employees at work is linked to less frequent absences from work in comparison to those employees that sense relative unfairness in their workplace. Results of the study showed that perceived unfairness at the workplace influences the health of employees and has a direct influence on the absence of employees from work. The study also showed that a sense of unfair treatment at the workplace influences the development of psychosomatic illnesses.

Employees often look up to their direct superior and in the course of his study, Prottas (2008, p. 313-322) researched whether there is a link between the absence of employees from work and detection of (un)ethical conduct of the direct superior[4]. Results of the study showed that there is a negative correlation between the perception of improper behaviour of direct superiors and stress, poor health and absence of employees from work. Based on the results of studies of correlations between ethical conduct in an organisation and the absence of employees from work we can see that if standards of the culture of conduct and work ethics in an organisation are low, this can be reflected in a high degree of absence of employees from work which, in the opinion of Gardiner (1992, p. 290), is one of the most common issues management has to deal with.

The article thus has the following goals: (a) to present the importance of ethical conduct of employees in managing employee absence; and (b), to present results of the INODEL in the section related to establishing whether employees have abused absence from work to stay at home even though they were able to work. The fundamental purpose of this article is to use theoretical and empirical results to show the correlation between ethical conduct of employees and absence from work.

Two hypotheses were developed from the goals and purpose of the study, as follows:

- H1: Over 20 percent of employees that took part in the study were absent for medical reasons in the last 12 months, even though they could have performed their work.
- H2: In the last 12 months, over 50 percent of employees that took part in the study continued to perform their work even though they experienced injuries or illnesses that could enable them to gain medical leave, because they felt and knew that is appropriate for them to continue working.

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[1] See studies Prottas (2008), Sanders (2004), Fitzgerald and Desjardins (2004), Martoccio and Jimeno (2003), De Boer et al. (2002).
[2] Sanders (2004, p. 139) defined work ethics as »the entirety of values and knowledge at the work position where people feel responsibility, morality and respect. Work ethics are strong if people feel they need to fulfil all formal work related responsibilities. Work ethics are weak/low if people are more tolerant towards fulfilment of formal work related responsibilities."
[3] Fairness at the workplace was interpreted as a combination of certain convictions and the sense of employees that their benefits (effects) in the work process are fair and correctly realised with regard to fulfilled criteria (fulfilled work tasks and other obligations).
[4] »Perceived Behavioral Integrity« (PBI) was intepreted by Prottas (2008) as a type of employee perception in which the actor (e.g. leader) behaves in a manner consistent with his/her statements regarding the observation of values, priorities, expectations and style of leadership.

- H3: There is a correlation between a fair attitude of management personnel and the number of days of employee absence.

The structure of the present article first presents the aspect of the correlation of ethics in the working environment or ethical behaviour of employees and employee absence. The second section of the article presents the results of the INODEL study pertaining to the aspect of ethical conduct of employees (abuse of medical leave, assessment of honesty of management personnel by employees, etc.). In the final section, the authors provide their view of the impact and role of ethical behaviour or culture of conduct in a working environment with regard to absence of employees from work.

2.   Methods

The INODEL[1] project included two studies that researched several[2] areas. One of these areas was the area of health absenteeism with particular emphasis on the aspect of ethical behaviour of employees. The target group of the study consisted of employees employed in Slovenian organisations. Data collection was performed using the CAWI[3] method and a questionnaire filled out by all subjects invited to participate in the study via an electronic invite. Here we present some of the results of the first study.

Data collection was carried out from September to October 2011. The final sample consisted of n = 774 respondents with the following demographic characteristics:

- 47% female and 53% male
- 0.4 % of the sample completed compulsory education or less, 44% completed high school or vocational school and 55.6% completed higher education.
- Over 23% of participating employees were aged between 41 and 45, followed by 22% of participants aged 46 to 50. The smallest group of participants was aged up to 25 (1.3%), followed by ages 26 to 30 (6.1%) and over 56 (7%).
- Measurements of health related absenteeism were performed using the same method as Ybema et al. (2010, p. 113) namely employees were asked two questions:
- how many days over the last 12 months were you absent from work due to health related reasons;
- how many times over the last 12 months were you absent from work due to health related reasons;

Measurements of abuse of medical leave (unethical behaviour) by employees were carried out using a question we developed ourselves. The question was posed as follows: »Were you absent from work for health related reasons over the last 12 months although you could have performed your work?« with a possible reply of "yes" or "no".

Within the scope of ethical behaviour we were also interested whether employees were present at work although they could have claimed medical leave due to illness or injury. This was established using the question »Have you in the last 12 months been present at work in spite of injuries or illnesses, because you felt the work had to be done?" with a possible reply of "yes" or "no".

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[1] The main goal of the INODEL project was to "provide recommendations based on a dialog between social partners, actual working practice and scientific knowledge to provide social partners and policy implementors with an appropriate base for improving the state of affairs in the studied area. This would create greater awareness on the impact of the studied issues among the internal and external public, help reduce employee absence, contribute to employment and retaining of good employees, prevention of burnout in the workplace and aid in raising awareness of the importance and role of the family and its role in maintaining mental and physical health at work."

[2] The study included the areas of stress and burnout in the workplace, health related absenteeism, fluctuation and coordination of professional and family life.

[3] »Computer assisted web interview«

Studying or measuring how employees perceive the honesty of management personnel was carried out using a question from the JSS (Job Satisfaction Survey) questionnaire of author Paul E. Spector. The original JSS questionnaire includes 36 questions divided into 9 areas (sections) used to establish job satisfaction. In our work on the present article we used a single question from the "management" section of the JSS questionnaire. The question used was »My superior is unfair towards me.«

In subsequent sections, the article first presents general data collected by studies within the INODEL project, and then presents results of the study of (un)ethical employee behaviour in the sense of abuse of medical leave and the correlation between the assessment of management personnel fairness by employees and absence of said employees.

3.   Results and Discussion

The study aimed to verify or establish the state of affairs of employee absence and its correlation with factors that define the aspect of ethical behaviour of employees in their working environment.

Chart 1 presents the percentage of employees who were absent in the last 12 months. Results show that 48.5 of employees participating in the study were not absent from work in the last 12 months. Just over 33 percent of employees were absent for 1 to 10 days. 6.6 percent of participating employees were absent for over 30 days.[1] Just over 33 percent of employees were absent for 10 to 30 days.
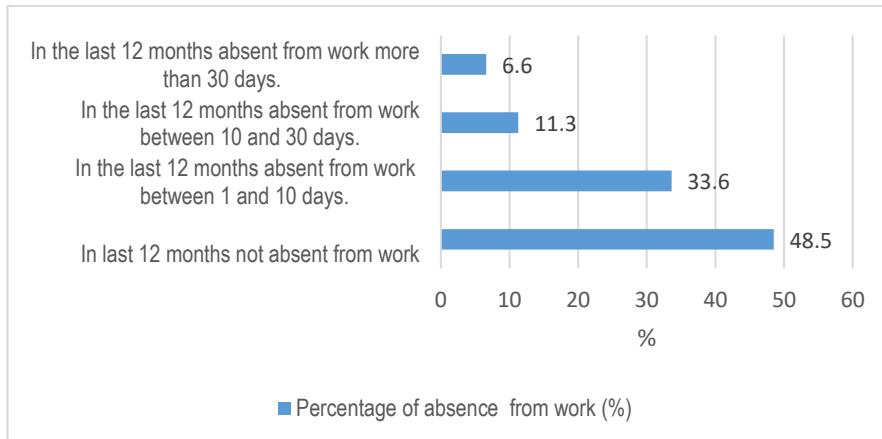
Chart 1: Days of absence of employees from work over the last 12 months

Chart 2 shows that the majority of those absent in the last 12 months, were absent once. This accounted for 28 percent of absences. Just under 13 percent of participants were absent twice. 5.5 percent of participating employees were absent four or more times.

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[1] Any absence over 30 days in the Republic of Slovenia means a financial cost for the Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia. Absences up to 30 days are a cost for the employer. Results of the study show that employers took on the financial cost of remuneration due to absence from work for just under 45 percent of employees who took part in the study and were absent for between 1 and 30 days.
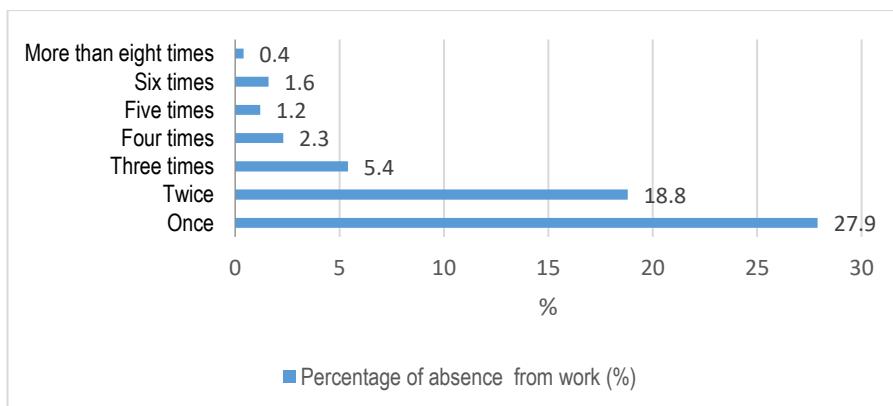
Chart 2: Frequency of absence of employees from work over the last 12 months

The study aimed to establish the moral and ethical attitude of employees to absence from work and whether employees "abused the option of medical leave/absence". Results in Chart 3 show that *9% of employees were on medical leave in the last 12 months although they could have performed their work.* This result shows that there is a certain percentage of employees that for various reasons abuse the option of absence from work. On the one hand, such conduct (1) shows unethical behaviour and sets a poor example, while on the other hand (2) risking that such behaviour will be punished as it is not in accordance with the ethical attitude of employees.
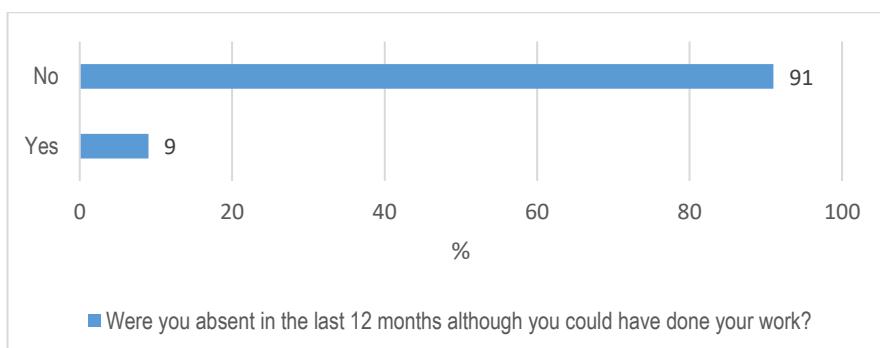
Chart 3: Abuse of medical leave in employees

The study also sought to establish whether employees performed their work in spite of illnesses or injuries that were in fact sufficient grounds for medical leave. Results in Chart 4 show that 75% of employees in the last 12 months performed their work in spite of injuries or illnesses that would warrant medical leave. The result can be interpreted in two ways, firstly as positive, as it shows moral and ethical responsibility/conduct of employees, and secondly as worrying as it shows signs of "presentism".[1]

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[1] Presentism is a form of behaviour shown in employees coming to work in spite of illnesses or symptoms (malaise). The poor medical condition of such employees can in such cases be transferred to their colleagues (other employees), causing them to fall ill.   Studies have shown that presentism is becoming more and more common. In the long term, presentism actually presents a greater financial cost than absentism.
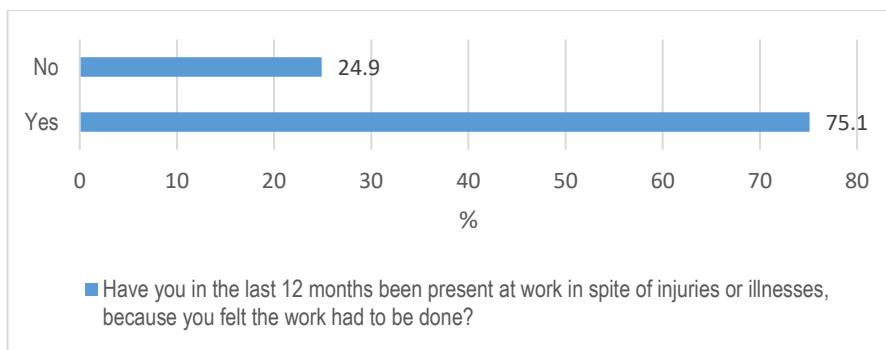
Chart 4: Performance of work in spite of illness or injury

The INODEL study researched the correlation between employee absence and their job satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction was measured using the JSS methodology tool. The "management" section of the study included the question "My superior is unfair towards me.«Results of this question showed that over *95% of those who were not absent from work felt that their superior was fair towards them, as did the majority of those absent between 3 and 30 days and even those absent for over 30 days.*

In spite of this, statistical analysis shows that the variables "days of absence due to medical reasons" and "my superior is unfair towards me« have no correlation. That is why with a 5 percent risk we cannot state that there is a correlation between a fair attitude of management personnel and the number of days of employee absence. Such results regarding correlation therefore do not confirm the results of the study of De Boer et al. (2002, p. 181-197) which showed that a honest relationship with management personnel is reflected in a lower rate of employee absence. Honesty is one of the components of ethical behaviour.

Verification of hypotheses posed by the study shows the following:

- *H1: Over 20 percent of employees that took part in the study were absent for medical reasons in the last 12 months, even though they could have performed their work.*

Results of the study show that in a random sample over 20 percent of participants were absent for medical reasons in the last 12 months, even though they could have performed their work. The hypothesis is therefore not confirmed since statistical analysis shows 9 percent of such employees.

To test our hypothesis, we set the zero hypothesis H_0 : P=0.2 against alternative hypothesis H_1 : P > 0.2. The sample share = 9 % (see Chart 3) was used to calculate the value of Z – 3.84. The appropriate P value is 0.99994, which is higher than the risk rate of 0.05. Accordingly, the zero hypothesis is kept and the alternative hypothesis is not confirmed. With a 5 percent risk we can therefore not state that the share of employees who were absent for medical reasons in the last 12 months, even though they could have performed their work, is greater than 0.2.

- *H2: In the last 12 months, over 50 percent of employees that took part in the study continued to perform their work even though they experienced injuries or illnesses that could enable them to gain medical leave, because they felt and knew that is is appropriate for them to continue working.*
- To test our hypothesis, we set the zero hypothesis H_0 : P=0.5 against alternative hypothesis H_1 : P > 0.5. The sample share = 75.1 % (see Chart 4) was used to calculate the value of Z – 5.80. The appropriate P value is 3,2 * 10^{-9} , which is lower than the risk rate of 0.05. Accordingly, the zero hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is confirmed. At a 5 percent risk we can therefore state that the share of employees who in the last 12 months continued to perform their work even though they experienced injuries or illnesses that could enable them to gain medical leave, is greater than 0.5.
- *H3: There is a correlation between a fair attitude of management personnel and the number of days of employee absence.*

- To test our hypothesis, we set a zero hypothesis H_0: the variables »days of medical leave« and »my superior is unfair to me« anre independent towards the alternative H_1 between variables »days of medical leave« and »my superior is unfair to me«.

Sample assessments for Kendalls Correlation and Spearman Correlation ($\tau = 0.036$, $r_s = 0.042$) show that there is no correlation between the variables. Results were verified with statistical tests for both coefficients which showed that the variables indeed do not have any statistically significant corellation (p values: Kendalls, 249, Spearman, 248). This means that the zero hypothesis on the lack of correlation between the variables "days of absence due to medical reasons" and "my superior is unfair towards me« cannot be rejected, so the alternative cannot be confirmed. At a 5 percent risk we therefore cannot state that there is a correlation between a fair attitude of management personnel and the number of days of employee absence.

4. Conclusions

Organisational culture and its building blocks of norms and values is one of the most important constructs that influences the ethical behaviour of employees in an organisation. The latter is important as it provides answers on how to be and how to act. These issues are not merely external, so the issue of shaping and following work ethics and consequential ethical conduct of employees in an organisation is very important indeed. Employees in a working environment quickly percieve and accept a culture of conduct/behaviour and are often quick to adapt to it. For the purpose of this article, such an attitude is relevant also because if the culture of conduct/behaviour of employees pertaining to absence from work is such, that employees are often absent without justification or even abuse medical leave, and such behaviour is tolerated (e.g. the management shows no interest in attempting to reduce employee absence), such behaviour will be adopted by the majority of employees. Accordingly, it is very important that organisations establish an appropriate work ethic that provides for sanctions in case of inappropriate employee behaviour.

The influence of work ethics and consequential ethical conduct of employees is a correlate that is through its consequences shown also in the form of employee absence. Many studies have shown that a stronger (more strict) work ethic in an organisation results in a lower absence of employees from work. The results presented here are related to the aspect of (un)ethical conduct of employees in relation to medical absenteeism. Research performed within the INODEL study showed that at least 9 percent of participating employees have abused medical leave in the sense that they were able to work, but did not. This shows an (un)ethical attitude of employees and signals organisations that they need to pay more attention to work ethics and organisational culture. The result was no surprise - quite the opposite. It could be expected and we presume that many of our participants actually did not dare to answer that they previously abused their medical leave.

Results of the INODEL study also showed that the employees' perception of their management having an honest attitude towards them is in fact not reflected in a lower rate of employee absence, since the study did not show any statistically significant correlation. In spite of that fact, we found that over 95% of employees who were not absent from work in the last 12 months confirmed that their superior was fair to them. This result shows that employees perceive honesty as a positive thing which in turn results in a lower degree of absence, bringing direct financial gains to the organisation.

Based on the results presented above we can see that work ethics and an appropriate organisational culture do influence - increase or reduce the rate of employee absence.

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Integration of Science, Education and Industry in the Republic of Kazakhstan in the Context of the Development of New Educational Programs

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Abstract

After gaining the independence, the sovereign Kazakhstan has started to actively reform the education sector. Significantly expanding the international cooperation, Kazakhstan gratefully accepted assistance from the European Union and became one of the main participants of many projects aimed at the globalization of education (TEMPUS, ERASMUS MUNDUS, Erasmus +, etc.). After the twenty years of the reforms, the Republic of Kazakhstan has achieved the significant results. Retaining the education fundamentality constructed in the Soviet era, the multinational Asian country has adapted the old education system to the European standards. This is evidenced by the fact that more than 70% of the specialties of the leading universities of Kazakhstan have received an accreditation certificate from the European Union. In the paper, the aspects of the phased formation of a "new" education in the Republic of Kazakhstan are considered. Also, the issue of the integration of the education and the science in the industry is highlighted and the recommendations for the quality implementation of the integration process within the framework of higher and postgraduate education are given.

1. Introduction

Unfortunately, the review of the Kazakhstan activity is poorly represented in the arena of the world publications. There are only individual researches on the demographic situation in the Republic of Kazakhstan ("Kazakstan 1995", 1997) and on the protection of health (Martin, 1979), and the ethnonational studies of the countries of the former Soviet Union (Brubaker, 2011). Also, there are some articles on the education in Russia (Bittar and Ferreira, 2015; Kozar, 2015; Harris, Jones, Adams, Perera and Sharma, 2014), mentioning Kazakhstan. Sufficiently detailed information about the formation of Kazakhstan as an independent country is reflected in the book ("Kazakstan. Transition", 1997).

It is necessary to emphasize the Kazakhstan colleagues' works covering the information on the modernization of the higher education in the country. For example, Maudarbekova and Kashkinbayeva (2014) highly detailed considered the issue of the international programs and projects which are implemented in the Republic of Kazakhstan. The importance and the necessity of the entry into the world educational environment were emphasized. Additionally, some recommendations to improve the educational process in Kazakhstan were given.

Aikenova (2014) in her work describes the history of the formation of the new phases of the education in the Republic of Kazakhstan. The processes of globalization caused Kazakhstan become a partner of a Bologna process in 2010 in order

to join the European education space. As a result, the old education system and educational policy in Kazakhstan met new changes: academic mobility of tutors and students, three-level education at universities.

There are articles covering the distance and e-learning education (Kenzhebayev and Dalayeva, 2014; Turumbetova, 2013). Also, some authors analyze the influence of the religion on the education in Kazakhstan (Erpay and Jandarbek, 2014).

In the works by Egamberdiyev (2014), the basic problems faced by Kazakhstan carrying out large scale educational reforms were studied. The result of modernization and the forecast were clearly formulated as well as the weak points of the new higher education were marked.

However, currently there is no data on how the programs of the integration of the science and the education in the industry are implemented. This article focuses on this aspect precisely.

2. Prerequisites

The necessity of the close cooperation between the education, the science and the industry is determined by the importance of the knowledge-based economy development. This is especially relevant for the contemporary world, where equipment and technology are updated every day.

To date, the Head of the State Nursultan Nazarbayev (2013) very clearly defines the educational strategy for the country, in which a close partnership of the three components of the economic growth (education, science and industry) is required. At present, in the Republic of Kazakhstan the great attention is paid to the innovative development, and in the conditions of the current global economic situation the factors constraining acceleration of the innovative and technological breakthroughs are primarily being identified. The necessary condition to the implementation of such a policy is the effective use of the intellectual property, especially scientific discoveries and inventions, to enhance the competitiveness and the effective economic development. The leading role in this process belongs to the educational system which must meet the demands of the market and production.

At this point, in the conditions of global economic instability, the necessity to exploit the potential of the production sector has arisen with a view to determine the intensive growth of the manufacturing sector by the education and the science. The implementation of such a process is not an easy task for universities, because the educational institution can use the manufacturing sector only in agreement of the necessary competencies which a graduate of the higher school must have in order to perform high-technology and science-intensive production tasks. The construction of the innovative educational system is the main task of the human capital formation. Such a system should ensure the generation of qualified professionals which are very susceptible to innovation, ready to create and implement the innovative projects, to implement the new ideas in the technological processes, and to easily carry out approbation of the new developments.

3. Development of educational programs

Speaking about the creation of a strong partnership of the science, the education and the industry, it is necessary, first of all, to consider the process of the developing the educational programs. Al-Farabi Kazakh National University, as the flagship of the Republic of Kazakhstan, has already started the process of the educational programs modernization in the framework of the integration of universities and research institutes. Since 2014, the KazNU has being implemented the new educational programs to the educational process for the master and PhD students. These programs contain the specially developed disciplines for teaching which the researchers and scientists have being attracted from the scientific research institutes. The present programs have been successfully implemented and come to fruition. The master and PhD students get acquainted with the recent research and developments on the spot and get the knowledge directly from the authors. It could be said that the process of the integration of the science and the education is successfully started. It should continue this trend and to develop the educational programs that would bring together science, industry and education.

It is necessary to conduct the continuation of the process of the establishing the close partnership of the science, the education and the industry, by the change of the educational programs for all levels of the education. It is proposed to change the goals and objectives of the industrial practice for bachelor, master and PhD students without violating the integrity and the fundamental orientation of the educational programs. For example, the formulation of the theme of the final bachelor and master theses for 50% of students should be done with the participation of the representatives from the manufacturing sector. World experience shows that only one expert of 10 students who have successfully passed industrial practice is really required in the production. In Kazakhstan, the shortage of epy qualified personnel is still there, but the employer is not willing to provide all students undergoing practical training with jobs. The special attention should be paid

to this problem while developing the educational programs. It is necessary to provide the student with the fundamental knowledge that will give the student the opportunity of the employment in the different spheres of the production.

The view that it is necessary to involve the experts from the production to teaching in the universities, is often expressed. However, this can not be done ever, because this "teacher", as a technologist, will not be able to give the fundamental knowledge on which skills to work with technological tasks base. Undoubtedly, this specialist can give a very valuable knowledge on the process of the production of something or the technology of the process. But in the era when every day the technologies are changed, the information, the technical resources and the software are updated, and the general direction of the economy also can be changed, only the fundamental knowledge may be in the high value. Just the fundamental knowledge will allow the graduate in the case of the loss of the relevance of one production type to become specialist in another sector. Of course, the university should prepare specialists, focusing on the needs of the Kazakhstan market. However, this does not mean that the education and the science should be focused only on the tasks demanded in Kazakhstan. Under globalization, the world economic landmarks should be determined, the focus should be on the knowledge-based industries and the IT sector, and the economy development should march in unison with the advanced technologies, and it is all should be done without giving importance to the possibility of only one state. It should also pay particular attention to that the student should be able not only to develop something new and useful to the global economy, but also should be able to declare copyright and to obtain protective document. In this case, our country will begin receiving more recognition abroad.

At the same time, it is almost impossible for the university to work directly with the production sector, as it is quite difficult for the scientist to identify the range of the production problems that need to be immediately solved. The available experience of the scientific research institutes and the research centers on the definition of the class of the relevant to the country's economy trends of the development can help to attract the employees of the university to the realization of the manufacturing sector problems.

The scientific research institutes always have the close relationship with the industry, and the educational institutions are willing to cooperate with the research institutes. The work of the university through the scientific research institutions with the industrial enterprises and the large holdings will help to organize activities on the establishment of the strategic plans of the production development, to prepare the highly specialized staff at the national level, to increase the scale of the applied research, and to guide the development of the republic's economy.

This process is illustrated in fig. 1 which shows that the university does not have to directly carry out the work with the production organization, because this function should be performed by the scientific research centers. In the words of the Head of the State Nursultan Nazarbayev (2013), it is necessary to create independent centers of proficiency testing so that we produce the professionals which are in demand for the production. The aim of these centers will be to define the range of the problems which solution requires the scientific support and the involvement of the university employees and students to work on such projects. This connection, firstly, will save the important fundamental component of the education, and, secondly, will help to create the favorable environment for the integration of the science and the education in the industry.

It is necessary to implement already now the development of the proposed partnership of the science, the education and the industry under the State program of the industrial-innovative development of the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2015 - 2019 years.

4. Information and communication technologies

Let us illustrate the relevance of the development of such programs by the example of the application of the educational technology in the field of the information and communication technologies (ICT). The development of information and communication technologies is one of the most important factors in improving the competitiveness of the Kazakhstan economy.

Modern information and communication technologies have completely changed the habitual way of the life of all mankind. The new markets and business models to support the input, storage, processing, analysis and presentation of information have appeared, and this process continues to evolve and expand at a rapid pace. The traditional economy based on the industry is now being transformed into the knowledge-based economy. The information technology began to be seen as a means to provide the improvements in the socio-economic conditions and as the tools to achieve the global goals.

The inherent for the sector speed of the development is a problematic point for the development of other sectors based on ICT. Today in Kazakhstan at the state level the great research and practical work on the implementation and development of ICT is realizing. Such transformations affect all sectors of the economy, including the education. For the development and implementation of ICT, the need for highly qualified personnel appears. Nowadays it is one of the main issues that

need to be solved. The sector of the information resources is highly dynamically developing, and requires the constant improvement of the professional skills. Therefore it is important to continuously ensure the advanced training of the personnel and training the specialists on the demanded professions in the higher and special secondary educational institutions.

Creating favorable conditions for the scientific research activities and the implementation of measures and tools for the commercialization of innovative ICT ideas is an important step in the achieving the results of the development of the ICT sector. All this indicates that the time has come for the training of the new format personnel: professionals who are able to create new technologies, based on the fundamental knowledge, to promote new ideas, thus developing IT sector of our country. The training specialists of such a profile is only possible on the basis of the master educational programs focused on obtaining both fundamental knowledge and knowledge of the most advanced ICT, the use of the high-performance systems, the nanotechnology, the new materials, the advanced software, the latest programming technologies, and much more.

Despite the significant scale of taken in recent years measures to support the ICT sector and the implementation of the specific projects and programs of the industrial development of the Republic of Kazakhstan, the following problems remain as the main problems for the training the ICT specialists:

1. the lack of the incentives for the young people to develop and introduce the new technologies;;
2. the dependence of the Kazakhstan ICT market on the foreign one;
3. the low awareness of the students in the secondary and higher educational institutions of the Republic of Kazakhstan on the possibility of the developments in the field of ICT;
4. the low level of the susceptibility of the Kazakhstan business to the technological innovations;
5. the lack of the incentives for the transfert of the advanced technologies;
6. ineffectiveness of the mechanisms for the solution and searching the priority technological problems of the enterprises and businesses;
7. the lack of close connection between the education and the business;
8. the lack of technological and managerial competencies;
9. the underdevelopment of the innovative technologies in the educational system;
10. the imperfection of the control system for the implementation of the innovative projects.

5. Acknowlegment

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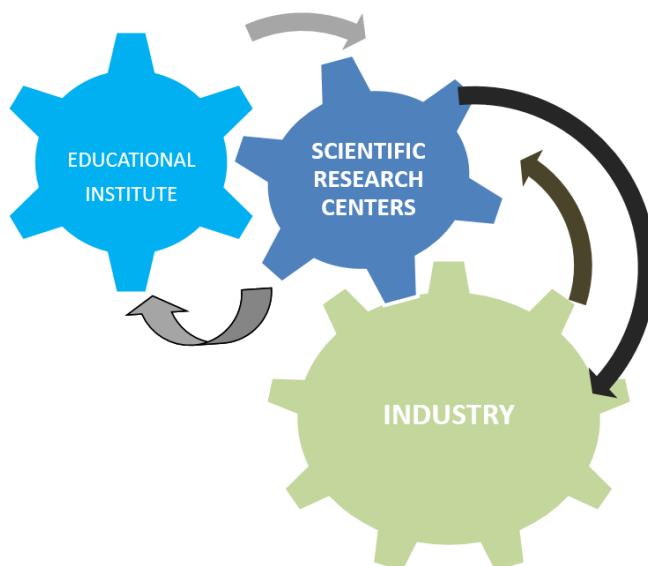
Fig. 1. The connection of the science, the education and the industry

Creative Functions as a Tool of City Space Revival - Case Study of Spa City in Wielkopolska Region

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Abstract

In the paper author presents the idea of a spa area reactivation through the implementation of creative functions. Innovation and creativity seem to be a tool to revive and activate public space of a spa city. It is to underline the existing spatial values and to promote a new usage of a public space owing to a touristic offer widening. In the article there is presented a study example of spa city in Wielkopolska region.

Key words: functions, creative functions, spatial-social activation

Introduction

In the following paper there is presented an idea of innovative way of spa city revival with the use of creative potential. Presented case study of Wielkopolska region (Poland) is a research example that has been examined by author for several years within the cooperation between Faculty of Architecture of Poznan University of Technology and local municipalities. The general idea of a study is to look for innovative spatial and functional solutions aiding tourism development and city revival through the use of creative potential. Thus tourism development can be not only more friendly to environment but to people as well. The introduced tourism should be responsible, discreet, environment friendly, proper, soft and gentle. The idea is to maintain a balance between the requirements of environmental and cultural values protection and local population and tourists preferences. Urban and architectural solutions not referring to the character and tradition of a place are harmful and devastate local color, identity and spatial specificity.

Nowadays, it is known that touristic offer so as to have a real impact on a number of tourists coming to a reception place should be either attractive or competitive. It should correspond with modern needs and modern lifestyles, it ought to be inspiring, a little bit surprising, provoking city space users to interact with each other and with space. It is extremely important in the context of touristic functions development thus the idea of tourism is to make people be curious about a place, be fascinated by a place and be strongly attracted by a place so as to come back again and again. The idea of creativity as an important tool of city space activation is still very modern and on time.

In the paper innovation in a spa city development is understood in two aspects: an innovative, contemporary thinking about using existing space resources in favor of tourism development, in accordance with the principles of sustainable development. In order to increase spa or touristic city competitiveness in the tourism market and so as to stimulate the local community to use development opportunities, it is needed to improve spatial and social attractiveness and a quality of life.

The development of tourism and spa functions could be a key factor of socio-economic activation of small settlement centers. It refers especially to the towns which are characterized by abundance of natural resources, and do not have another sufficiently developed functional facilities, which would ensure an appropriate level of economic development, competitiveness and quality of life. The proper development in the context of spas should be understood as local cultural identity protection, both material and immaterial, since it represents an important element of the assessment of the attractiveness of the area. This is particularly important in the context of a contemporary trends towards unification of the needs and products and mass production, so characteristic of the modern, globalized world. The sustainable development of tourism is an important impetus to the revival of socio-spatial and economic development, not only of the town but also in a scale of municipality or region.

Creative functions as a tool of spa city space revival

Spa functions development depends either on the degree of urban space attractiveness, quality and infrastructural facilities of the city or influence of neighborhood attractive areas, which supplement existing offer in terms of functional and spatial resources. It is crucial to preserve the urban composition of a city centre and to provide a high level of attractiveness to ensure the quality and viability of a city space. It is also important to provide attractive public space offer and equipment because of a significant spatial and social role public space plays in a city structure. The essence of urban tourism is its cognitive character, which is why it is so important to provide opportunity to explore historical values, monuments, museums, art galleries or participate in cultural activities. Usually, the biggest tourist traffic activity is focused on downtown and central area of a city.

Upholding a tradition of the place and protection of local cultural landscape requires conscious efforts to preserve diversity. These efforts should be made by local communities, professional *milieus* and non-governmental organizations. In this context it is very important to provide proper education about city space revival, to build a sense of relationship between place and city user, cultivate genuine traditions and reject indiscriminate imitation of foreign patterns.

A major problem in the context of maintaining the spatial and social tradition of spas, are investments related to the construction of large-scale spa facilities, rehabilitation centers, spa and wellness centers, where technical and structural requirements are often in conflict with local aesthetics or beauty of the natural landscape. This type of spatial activity contributes to a significant degradation of cultural and environmental resources, and often comes into conflict with unique regional values and characteristics. The adverse effects of tourism development is also the commercialization and unification of the offer, what leads to the departure of native traditions and creation of new quality, not related to the site (Ritzer and Liska 1997).

Innovation and creativity in the context spa city activation

Spatial quality factor in modern conditions is becoming increasingly important. Building a competitive and attractive, that is, corresponding to different tastes, tourist offer and a strong brand of a given spa city is very important in terms of increasing the attractiveness of the area. A varied range of services, complementary activities to spa function and location in a beautiful entourage can be a tremendous asset to attract not only patients, but also tourists. The attractiveness and aesthetics of a place is also an argument for which it is worth to return to the place. An important advantage is the presence cultural offer that provokes some interesting experiences as a result of multisensory perception of a space.

The attractiveness of spa city is understood as the high quality of the package of services not only concerning a narrow range of specialized health-oriented ones. More broadly, all activities aiming at the health improvement can be understood also in a spatial dimension. The emotional relationship with the environment have been for a long time the subject of research of various fields specialists inter alia environmental or behavioral psychology or sociology. It is widely known that beautiful, well-kept, functional, uncluttered places with interesting functional and spatial offer evoke positive emotions, soothe and stimulate people to interact and continuous exploration. The joy of getting to know the city and its values can enhance modern spatial solutions of different purposes and scale that are based on the use of creative and intellectual potential.

Introduction of creative and innovative functions and forms into a spa area can cause its spatial, social and economic revival. Especially the urban areas are the perfect places to implement creative solutions, based on relationships of innovation, culture and business. It is a very good way to activate the degraded, insufficiently competitive and unattractive for investments areas. It is because creative potential do not require such large amounts of money to complete projects, which are implemented from a scratch. The advantage of these features is easy adaptation and not too exorbitant starting conditions. As pointed out by Florida, the creative potential has tended to concentrate in certain areas, for they have to offer the unique atmosphere, originality, authenticity and a spirit of place (Florida, 2010).

Creative and innovative functions as a tool for spa city activation can bring many benefits. They represent a significant impetus stimulating the development of local entrepreneurship and complement spa offer with additional range of services. Creativity encourages protection of cultural identity through the adaptation of degraded built tissue, enhancement of a spatial attractiveness of spa, promotion of local products as crafts, folk art and handicrafts. Creative functions mostly are

well adapted in places with a unique atmosphere and of a unique architectural form, which is degraded, neglected and creative potential is necessary to give the space a new meaning and underline existing qualities and character of a space.

Creativity in the urban space can also be understood as landscaping elements that enliven the public space and emphasize its individual characteristics. Introduction of new aesthetic quality is characterized by high formal and artistic merit. Innovative technological solutions or spatial, interactive, sculptural forms, visually appealing, can highlight the architectural distinctiveness and semantic meaning of a space. Referring to the urban identity and its specificity they give a space a new attractiveness and strengthen the power of attracting and retaining city users.

Case study of spa city in Wielkopolska region

Appropriate use of existing values and proper profiling of touristic and spa offer allows prudent stimulation of a spa city development and wise management of space. It is also important to integrate the activities of supra-local scale in order to promote and strengthen brand of a spa city, as well as to activate other settlements of a region in a socio-economic dimension. The development of the spa functions gives impetus to extend the offer also in the field of water tourism, cycling, motor and horse riding etc.

The idea of spa functions development including service facilities in the form of an offer creative functions within Wielkopolska region makes perfect sense, because it is well-known that the scope of services offered by spa cities are not only limited to health-related functions, but a wide offer of culture and entertainment services as well. Regeneration of vital powers better runs in the spa that is attractive spatially, providing not only a comfortable rest, but also encouraging social interactions and contacts. The spa towns, thanks to the wealth of spatial and functional values may also develop other branches of tourism: urban, cultural and congress. It is because urban space activated through the use of creative features is a perfect place to host various types of exposure, exhibitions, meetings, musical or artistic competitions. A good solution which supports a spa development is the inclusion of spa areas in the urban structure of the city, giving residents the opportunity to take advantage of offered treatments, rehabilitation and recreation without having to leave the place of residence (Kaczmarska, 2002).

Research work – creative functions in favor of spa city activation

Presented research focuses on the exploration and development of spa function in a city of Miedzychód in Wielkopolska region. The idea is to introduce the creative functions and forms so as to direct spa function development in the way that Międzychód becomes an attractive, innovative and competitive spa. The ability to create the first in Wielkopolska spa in city of Miedzychód will strengthen its brand at the regional level and help to improve the quality of inhabitants' life. Promotion of the idea of Miedzychód as an innovative - the first in region and based on local creative potential, spa city increases the chances of promotion of existing spatial and environmental values, the development of spatial and social potential, as well as multiplying the economic benefits flowing from the touristic offer. The implementation of this idea must be done in an evolutionary and balanced way.

The presented study aimed at defining principles for the development of innovative spa functions in Międzychód city using existing resources, functional, spatial and environmental values and local creative potential to activate spa and city offer. The design work in this context was conducted at the Faculty of Architecture, Poznan University of Technology in cooperation with the authorities of Międzychód city. Miedzychód promotes the idea of development as an urban center of a rest and healing, along with a complementary range of creative offer but also innovative thinking about the existing potential, which can have a significant impact on the creation of a new city brand.
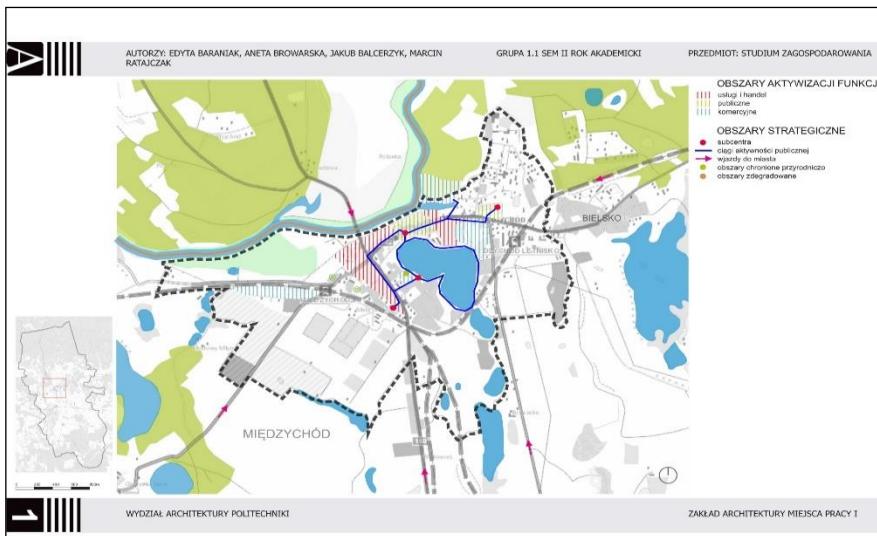
Pic. 1. The areas of functional activation: services, public offer, commercial functions and key area in terms of spa functions development in Międzychód city: subcentres, public space systems, city gates, protected and degraded areas. Design work by students of Faculty of Architecture, Poznan University of Technology – E.Baraniak, A.Browarska, J.Balcerzyk, M.Ratajczak, academic year 2014/15 under the direction of D.Pazder.

Pic. 2. The proposal of crystallization of the public space system within a city centre of Międzychód city and idea of incorporation of unbuilt tissue into one homogenious offer of built and unbuilt areas of different functions and destinations.

Design work by students of Faculty of Architecture, Poznan University of Technology – E.Baraniak, A.Browarska, J.Balcerzyk, M.Ratajczak, academic year 2014/15 under the direction of D.Pazder.

The idea of the use of creative offer to activate a spa city of Miedzychód and to produce a new quality of space was the subject of research and design work, which was also conducted during an academic year with students of Faculty of Architecture at Poznan University of Technology. Semester projects were devoted to the study of local land-use zoning

plans and the development of spa city of Międzychód in terms of creation a network system of innovation and creativity flows. The overarching slogans in the process of design guidelines formulation for the development of the spa city were: innovation, creativity, synergy, competitiveness and cooperation.
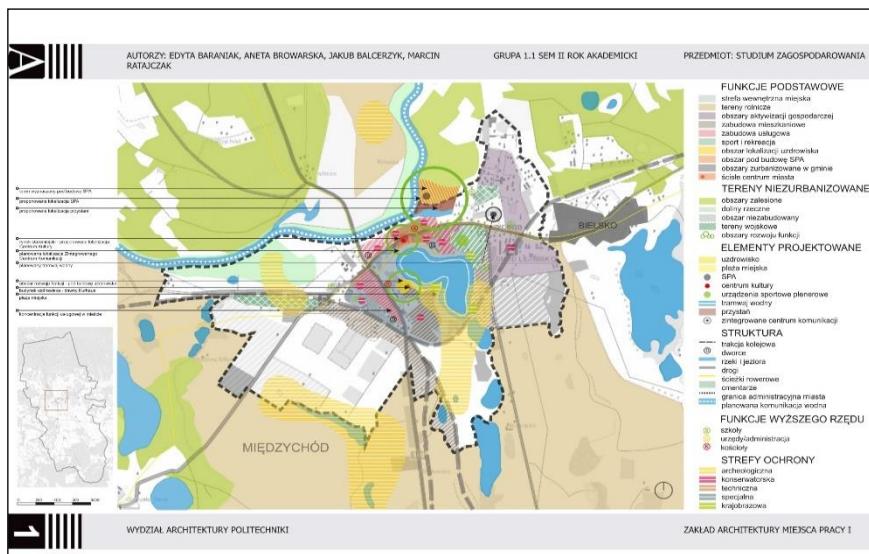
Pic. 3. The synthesis of spa function development in Międzychód city: basic functional destination of identified areas, planned activation of unbuilt pheriferal areas, new elements introduced to existing urban structure, existing urban – functional and compositional skeleton, key functions, protected areas.

Design work by students of Faculty of Architecture, Poznan University of Technology – E.Baraniak, A.Browarska, J.Balcerzyk, M.Ratajczak, academic year 2014/15 under the direction of D.Pazder.

This study and design work contribute to start discussion between Międzychód Municipality and local society about an innovative development of the spa with the use of existing local potential in a creative way and in accordance with modern requirements of competitiveness. Research includes extensive analytical part devoted to the study of existing functional and spatial resources, as well as the provisions of existing planning documents prepared at various levels of planning system. The analyzes were assessed so as to indicate potentials and barriers of the future development. The work resulted in a set of design proposals aiming at the existing potential accentuation and at an innovative and creative planning solutions. The idea was to build competitive advantages and consider them in future local plans in favor of attractive and modern spa offer and tourism development.

Conclusion

In order to define desired development of spa city of Miedzychód, the initial objective was to provide innovative solutions, creativity on offer around the spa, synergy of actions at different levels of development and the creation of a new competitive brand of Miedzychód through the promotion of local resources and strengthening the local identity of the space. Touristic offer in economic meaning heavily interferes local identity which is the largest value of tourism. It is necessary to strive to balance the natural and cultural environment. The needed condition to ensure harmony and wisdom of development is appropriate incorporation of introduced elements with existing landscape and spatial unique features, taking into consideration topographical, geological, demographical characteristics with attention to protect and create an appropriate aesthetic appeal of the new tourism infrastructure.

It is also extremely important to protect local material and immaterial culture, identity and nature of the place, as well as the products of arts and crafts of the given area. The development is conducive to the promotion of spa offer and associated functions, affecting the socio-spatial activation of the city and surrounding area, related to the use of local creative potential

and creativity in various fields of arts and crafts. Proper development of tourism, conducive to the development of spa cities and surrounding areas is possible through the use of existing assets and their transformation into innovative, attractive and competitive touristic products stimulating development and competitiveness.

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Source; Kosovo Education Strategic Plan 2011-2016

Motivation and Engagement as a Predictor of Students' Science Achievement Satisfaction of Malaysian of Secondary School Students

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Abstract

Psychologists consider student engagement as a primary pathway by which motivational processes contribute to students' learning and development (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Academically engaged students self-regulate their learning, make plans for upcoming tasks, and persist when encountering obstacles and challenges. The present study intends to analyses the relationship between students' motivation and engagement and their academic satisfaction and test the effect of some variables (gender, class) on that relation. To accomplish these purposes, this study intends to investigate Malaysian primary school students' motivation, engagement and achievement satisfaction as predictors of achievement satisfaction in science and test the effect of some variables (gender, grade) on that relation. The students - 460 students (43% male, 57% female) of secondary school- responded to the Self-Developed Academic Satisfaction Questionnaire, Students' Engagement Questionnaire and Science Motivation Questionnaire. All the questionnaires are valid and reliable according to the Cronbach's Alpha value. A Multiple linear regression analysis has been used to predict the achievement satisfaction of Science based on the level of students' motivation and level of engagement in Science classroom. The findings showed that students have a good level of motivation, engagement and achievement satisfaction. Even though students' motivation is significantly predicted students' achievement, but neither students' engagement nor achievement satisfaction are a significant predictor of students' achievement.

Keywords: Motivation, Engagement, Achievement, Academic Satisfaction, Science Education secondary school.

Introduction

One of the key outcomes of schooling is the development of students' personal and social skills, as well as positive self-concept, self-discipline and self-worth. As well, students who develop positive relationships with school community are more likely to become lifelong learners. Most of the research on school effectiveness has focused on outcomes in terms of academic achievement; less attention has been paid to how well schools motivate and engage students in learning and in school life and how this affects students' performance on school and the future (Fullarton, 2002).

Theoretical Framework

Motivation is one of the important components to cognition. It plays an important role in their conceptual change processes (Lee & Brophy, 1996) critical thinking, learning strategies (Wolters, 1998) and achievement (Napier & Riley, 1985). Students' motivation is affecting positively their learning outcomes (Martin, 2003) (Yeung & Mcinerney, 2005). Motivation is crucial for effective learning, It is argued that students with better motivation usually perform better in school grades (Pintrich, 2003).Williams and Williams (2011) also stress that motivation is probably the most important factor that educators can target in order to improve learning. Moreover, based on the social-cognitive motivation theories, it is presumed that students' motivational beliefs mediate the relation between students' perceived classroom environment and their engagement (Li, 2013).

Sanfeliz and Stalzer (2003) think that there are three components for the motivation: intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy and self-determination. Glynn and Koballa (2006) also think that motivation is constructed of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, goal orientation, self-determination, self-efficacy and assessment anxiety.

Glynn, Taasoobshirazi, and Brickman (2009) have their own thought about motivation components, which are intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, personal relevance, self-determination, self-efficacy and assessment anxiety. Intrinsic motivation involves learning for its own sake and can be defined as doing an activity for itself and to the pleasure and satisfaction derived from participation"(Sevinc, Ozmen, & Yigit, 2011).

Recently, the concept of school engagement has been receiving increased attention from researchers, policy makers and educators because they consider it an important precursor of positive school outcomes. According to J. A. Fredericks, Blumenfeld, and Paris (2004) there has been a substantial variation regarding the terminology of engagement in research. Engagement often appears with other words as shown in the terms: "school engagement", "academic engagement", and "student engagement" ("student engagement in academic work" and "student engagement in/with school") (J. A. Fredericks et al., 2004) . With regard to the use of the terms of "student engagement" and "school engagement", Appleton, Christenson and Furlong (2008) argued that "school engagement" accentuates only the role of school context, not the influences of other contexts such as family and community. Alternatively, "student engagement" is applied in terms of both school settings and academic work in classroom contexts. They observed that student engagement includes academic engagement (e.g., time on academic task), cognitive (e.g., the use of self-regulation and meta-cognition strategies), behavioral (e.g., attendance and participation in both curricular and extra-curricular activities) and psychological engagement (e.g. identification). Thus, "student engagement" can be used to represent both "school engagement" and "academic engagement" (Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008).

Student engagement is often conceptualized as a multidimensional construct (Appleton et al., 2008; Fredricks et al., 2004) (Hoff & Lopus, 2014) (Veiga, 2012). However, there are some disagreements across the different conceptualizations in relation to the number of dimensions of engagement. In the literature, three dimensions of student engagement are typically described: cognitive engagement, behavioral engagement and emotional. J. A. Fredericks et al. (2004) propose a framework for considering engagement that distinguishes between cognitive, behavioural and emotional engagement (Figure 1).

Cognitive engagement, which refer to students' personal commitment with their learning. It can be understood as students' psychological investment in their own learning. When cognitively engaged, students concentrate, focus on achieving goals, are flexible in their work and cope with failure. This is different from high performance: a student who is performing well may still be disengaged if they are coasting and not motivated to exert themselves more than is necessary to get by.

Behavioural engagement, which represents students' participation in classroom, school and after-school activities. This includes adhering to behaviour rules, attending lessons as required and arriving at classes on time. Importantly, behavioural engagement refers to the learning behaviours that are important for high student performance, which may include collaboration and communication with peers.

Emotional engagement (also as affective engagement), which reflects students' affective reactions to school, teachers and peers. This has also been called 'identification' with school and learning practices. Students are engaged when they feel included in the school and feel an emotional bond with the school, its teachers and their peers.

Overall, there is an agreement that student engagement is a multidimensional construct. All three dimensions of student engagement (behavioral, cognitive, and emotional engagement) are considered as imperative components in student learning.

The positive consequences of the engagement can be felt on psychological development and on the general well-being of the student (J. A. Fredericks et al., 2004). There are a number of benefits of students' engagement with school. For example, (Fullarton, 2002)

- Young people who have positive feelings towards school and who are active participants in a variety of school activities are more likely to stay in school and are more likely to become independent learners.
- Other studies have found positive relationships between a student's engagement and academic achievement and with other educational outcomes, including better attendance and aspirations to higher levels of education.

While dissatisfaction with aspects of school life has been demonstrated to be a key issue for non-completion of secondary school.

It is evident that motivation and engagement are considered as one construct, and the differentiation between these two constructs are ambiguous. In a very recent research, motivation and engagement were differentiated, and respectively defined as "individual energy and drive to learn, work effectively, and achieve to their potential," and "the behaviors aligned with this energy and drive" (Martin, 2010) (Liem & Martin, 2011).

Statement of Problem

Rural students are more likely to drop out or discontinue their educations prematurely than similar non-rural peers. The drop-out rate for Malaysian secondary schools was given as 9.3% in urban areas and 16.7% in rural areas, these kind of school failure and dropout may represent the low student academic motivation in classroom(WEI & ELIAS, 2011).

Much of psychological literature and theory argues for generalizability of human motivation across contexts. much of past rural research has argued for an entirely local perspective, based on the uniqueness of rural places and the potential influence of social, cultural, and geographic context characteristics on individuals and subgroups(Hardré & Hennessey, 2010). Likewise, compared to urban settings and to K-12 schools little systematic research is done that focuses on and occurs in rural schools (Hardré & Hennessey, 2010). Therefore, the researchers will use the developed and adopted research questionnaire to collect data in two different urban and rural cites in Malaysia, namely, Wilayah Persekutuan (Kuala lumpur) and Tanjong Malim (state of Perak).

Because of increased focus on standardized test scores, most research on school effectiveness has focused on academic achievement and less attention has been paid to how schools motivate and engage their students in the learning process and in school life. However, motivation and engagement have been consistently associated with, and are presumed to be a precursor of, student achievement, therefore, should be evaluated with the same commitment (Echeverria, 2006).

Therefore, the present research attempts to measure students' motivation and engagement as well as educational outcomes (i.e., academic achievement, academic satisfaction). Furthermore, examining predictable factors of students' achievement in science.

The research aimed to answer following questions:

1- What is the level of motivation and engagement of Secondary School students?
2- Is there any significant correlation between motivation, engagement, and academic achievement of the Secondary School students?
3- How well does the students' motivation and engagement predict their achievement in science?
4- What is the role of some dependent variables (age and gender) on predicting students' achievement in science?

RESEARCH METHODS

Research design

This research will be a descriptive research in nature; the descriptive research describes and interprets what is. It is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist. This approach allows researchers to answer the research questions comprehensively and provide wide explanations for the phenomena in their natural setting.

Research Instruments

The study is aimed to collect data about: (1) students' achievement in Science, (2) students' engagement in Science classroom and (3) students' motivation in Science.

Self-Developed Academic Satisfaction Questionnaire (SASQ): This scale was developed by Li, Xueyan. (2013), it is a 5 point Likert Type scale with response options: (1) never, (2) rarely, (3) sometimes, (4) usually, and (5) always. SASQ scale composed of 10 items, five of them were positive and five of them were negative. The results of reliability indicate that an alpha coefficient of .816 and split–half reliability test of .918 was found on the instrument. George and Mallery (2003) proposed that Cronbach's alpha of 0.7–0.8 is acceptable; 0.8–0.9 is good; and ≥0.9 is excellent (George & Mallery, 2003). The Cronbach's alpha of 0.766, 0.844 and 0.751 respectively, are higher than the values suggested by George and Mallery (2003). Therefore, the validity and reliability of the instruments were considered to be acceptable. It was clear that the instrument is reliable and could be used to measure the students' satisfication about academic achievement in Science.

Students' Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ)

One of the most prominent problems in the scientific research of engagement is the lack of instruments, with psychometric and semantic qualities for its evaluation (Veiga, 2012). Thus, student self-report measures may be the most valid and reliable way to capture these latter two types of engagement (Furlong & Christenson, 2008).

In the present Study, School Engagement Scale - Behavioral, Emotional and Cognitive Engagement developed by J.A. Fredericks, Blumenfeld, Friedel, and Paris (2005). The scale included items about student engagement (4 items for behavioral, 5 items for emotional, and 6 items cognitive engagement). All of the items were on Likert scales from 1 to 3 (1 = never, 2 = some time, 3= always), two of the items are negatively worded; so that they have been reversed from negative to positive.

Developers report Cronbach's alpha of 0.77 for behavioral engagement, 0.86 for emotional engagement, and 0.82 for cognitive engagement (Blumenfeld, Friedel, & Paris, 2005; J.A. Fredericks et al., 2005). Other researchers report similar reliabilities for the three scales (Goldschmidt, 2008). Regarding the validity, developers report several analyses that inform the construct validity of measurement. A factor analysis of items resulted in three subscales (behavioral engagement, emotional engagement, and cognitive engagement) (Blumenfeld et al., 2005; J.A. Fredericks et al., 2005).

Since the instrument originally developed in Western culture and have not been used in the Malaysian cultural background before. Therefore, the researcher retest the reliability using a sample of (120) students, the results of Cronbach's alpha for the sub-categories and the instrument itself indicate that Cronbach's alpha of 0.74 for behavioral engagement, 0.705 for emotional engagement, 0.769 for cognitive engagement and 0.805 for the engagement scale. Those results are similar to the results reported by the developers. It is clear that the instrument is reliable and can be used to measure the students' engagement.

Science Motivation Questionnaire (SMQ)

The 30-item Science Motivation Questionnaire (SMQ) was developed by Shawn M. Glynn and Thomas R. Koballa, Jr. (2006). It is a 5 point Likert Type scale with response options: (1) never, (2) rarely, (3) sometimes, (4) usually, and (5) always. SMQ scale composed of 30 items, 25 of them were positive and five of them were negative.

The researchers translated the questionnaire into Arabic and Malay languages. The motivational components and their associated items included intrinsically motivated science learning (items 1, 16, 22, 27, and 30), extrinsically motivated science learning (items 3, 7, 10, 15, and 17), personal relevance of learning science (items 2, 11, 19, 23, and 25), self-determination (responsibility) for learning science (items 5, 8, 9, 20, and 26), self-efficacy (confidence) in learning science (items 12, 21, 24, 28, and 29), and anxiety about science assessment (items 4, 6, 13, 14, and 18). The anxiety about science assessment items are reverse scored when added to the total, so a higher score on this component means less anxiety. The Science Motivation Questionnaire maximum total score is 150 and the minimum is 30. Students who score

from 30 to 59 are ''never to rarely'' motivated, 60–89 are ''rarely to sometimes'' motivated, 90–119 are ''sometimes to often'' motivated, and 120–150 are ''often to always'' motivated.

The results of reliability indicate that an alpha coefficient of .818 and split–half reliability test of .724 was found on the instrument. It was clear that the instrument is reliable and could be used to measure the students' opinions about the students' motivation in Science.

The Sample

The population of this study is secondary school students aged 12-17 years old from two populations Wilayah Persekutuan (Kuala lumpur) and Tanjong Malim (state of Perak). The researchers used the "Multi-stage" sampling method because it is more practical and economical than the other techniques. In this research, the entire population divided into groups, or clusters and a random sample of these clusters has been selected. All observations in the selected clusters will be included in the sample.

The sample in this study consists of 460 secondary school students (form 1 to form 3). Table (1) illustrates the research sample in terms of gender and class:

The sample consisted of 460 students; the percent of male students are 43.3% and the percent of females are 56.7%. Regarding the city, 61% of the students are from Kuala Lumpur, and around 40% of the students from Tanjong Malim (Perak State). The percent of male and female students within the two cities almost so close.

RESEARCH RESULTS

The aims of this research are to investigate if a student's achievement in science could be predicted by a linear combination of student's motivation, achievement satisfaction, engagement style, age and gender. Therefore, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to predict student's achievement in science from the predictor variables. Descriptive statistics for the quantitative predictor variables can be found in Table 2.

The results in table 2 show that students have a moderate level of achievement satisfaction with a percent of 73.8% (M=3.692, SD=0.768). Concerning their engagement level, the mean percent is 63.6% reveal that a lower level of engagement (M= 3.182, SD= 0.532). Students' emotional engagement has the highest level of engagement with a percent of 66.2% (M= 3.222, SD= 0.581) while cognitive engagement has the lowest level of engagement with a percent of 60.6% (M= 3.032, SD= 0.814).

The results about students' motivation do not differ a lot. The results show that students are "sometimes to often'' motivated with a percent of 66.4% (M=3.321, SD=0.583). The mean for all the motivation component (except anxiety) range from 3.378 to 3.463 which mean that students are "sometimes to often'' motivated. The results for anxiety show that the students have low anxiety (M=2.639, SD= 0.833).

Full model entry was employed to regress all predictor variables onto the dependent variable simultaneously. A standard multiple regression analysis was employed to predict achievement in science. Table 3 displays the correlations between the variables.

Each variable has a positive significant correlation with each other variable with no any Multicollinearity. To get more information about the goodness of fit of a model, the results about R Square is presented in Table 4.

In this case the R^2 of 0.134 indicates that 13.4% of the variation in achievement is explained by the regression variables. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.124 indicates that a little percent of the variability in achievement could be predicted by motivation, achievement satisfaction, engagement, gender and city of residance.

For more information about the model, Table 5 shows the regression ANOVA, which tests for a linear relationship between the variables.

The results in the ANOVA Table (F (5, 454) = 14.064, p < .001) indicate that the value of F is significant beyond the 0.01 level. The full model R^2 was significantly greater than zero, R^2 = 13.4%.

On the second step all of the predictors were entered simultaneously, resulting the "Coefficients", that provides the estimates of the regression coefficients (table 6).

Analysis of regression coefficients (Table 6) indicated that student's achievement was predicted by motivational level (Beta = 0.342, p < .01), and city of residence (Beta = 0.173, p < .01). It is clear that those variables predicted significantly 13.4% of the variance in achievement. The other variables (city, achievement satisfaction, and engagement) are a significant predictor. The overall model fit was R^2 = 0.134. Thus, staying in Kuala Lumpur and the stronger a student's motivation the greater a student's achievement in science.

DISCUSSION

Student's engagement and motivation have been a major concern for teachers who want students to achieve better in class. As a result, teachers commonly attempt to motivate and encourage student's participation in indoor and outdoor learning activities. Thus, the present study employed a multiple regression analysis to determine if the student's motivation, achievement satisfaction, engagement, gender and city of residence could be predictors of student's achievement in science. The results indicate that a linear combination of the predictor variables is able to account for a significant amount of variance in a student's achievement in science.

The findings further indicate that the predictor variables (motivation and city) predict a significant amount of variance in student's achievement in science. Contrary to this, students' engagement, achievement satisfaction and gender did not individually; predict a significant amount of variance in achievement.

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Figure 1: Framework for understanding engagement
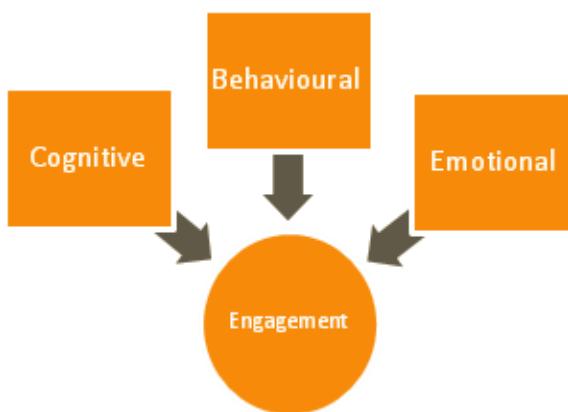
Table 1. The Sample

City	Gender				Row Totals	
	male		female			
Tanjong Malim	83	41.7%	96	36.8%	179	38.9%
Kuala Lumpur	116	58.3%	165	63.2%	281	61.1%
All	199	43.3%	261	56.7%	460	

Table 2. Basic Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Mean %	Std.Dev.
Achievement satisfaction	3.692	73.8%	0.768
Engagement	3.182	63.6%	0.532
Behavioral	3.308	66.2%	0.517
Emotional	3.222	64.4%	0.581
Cognitive	3.032	60.6%	0.814
Motivation	3.321	66.4%	0.583
Intrinsic	3.463	69.3%	0.890
Extrinsic	3.573	71.5%	0.890
Personal Relevance	3.387	67.7%	0.841
Self-Determination	3.387	67.7%	0.819
Self-Efficacy	3.477	69.5%	0.906
Anxiety	2.639	52.8%	0.833

Table 3. Correlations Between Predictor Variables

	Achievement satisfaction	engagement	Motivation
Achievement satisfaction	1	.716*	.634*
engagement	.716*	1	.625*
Motivation	.634*	.625*	1

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.366	.134	.124	10.968

Table 5. The regression ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	101.7598	5	20.35196	14.064	.000
Residual	656.9771	454	1.44709		
Total	758.7370				

Table 6. Regression output (Regression Coefficients)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	4.719	0.420		11.223	0.000
Gender	-0.102	0.116	-0.039	-0.882	0.378
City	0.456	0.117	0.173	3.910	0.000
Achievement satisfaction	-0.108	0.112	-0.064	-0.962	0.336
engagement	0.185	0.160	0.077	1.153	0.249
Motivation	-0.755	0.132	0.342	5.699	0.000

Jalabi Practice: a Critical Appraisal of a Socio-Religious Phenomenon in Yorubaland, Nigeria

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Abstract

Jalabi is an extant historical phenomenon with strong socio-religious impacts in Yorubaland, south-western part of Nigeria. It is among the preparatory Dawah strategies devised by the Yoruba Ulama following the general mainstream Africa to condition the minds of the indigenous people for the acceptance of Islam. This strategy is reflected in certain socio-religious services rendered to the clients, which include, but not limited to, spiritual consultation and healing, such as petitionary Dua (prayer), divination through sand-cutting, rosary selection, charm-making, and an act of officiating at various religious functions. In view of its historicity, the framework of this research paper revolves around three stages identified to have been aligned with the evolution of Jalabi, viz. Dawah, which marked its initial stage, livelihood into which it had evolved over the course of time, and which, in turn, had predisposed it to the third stage, namely syncretism. Triangulation method will be adopted for qualitative data collection, such as interviews, personal observation, and classified manuscript collections, and will be interpretively and critically analyzed to enhance the veracity of the research findings. The orality of the Yoruba culture has greatly influenced the researcher's decision to seek data beyond the written words in order to give this long-standing phenomenon its due of study and to help understand the many dimensions it has assumed over time, as well as its both positive and adverse effects on the socio-religious live of the Yoruba people of Nigeria.

Keywords: Jalabi, healing, Islam, *Dawah*, syncretism

Introduction

Jalabi in the Yoruba-Nigerian [1]context designates certain socio-religious services rendered by the Yoruba Ñ*UlamÉ'* to their clientele, which include, but not limited to, religio-social consultation, charm-making, spiritual healing and an act of officiating at various religious functions. Mustapha Bello defines it as "a system whereby a scholar prepares charms, which are believed to possess supernatural powers for protection against evil and for bringing good fortunes to traders, enhancement of luck…etc. in return for monetary compensation."[2] Mustapha's definition is not thorough and comprehensive, as it tends to restrict its focus only on one tiny aspect of *Jalabi,* i.e. charm making, and therefore could not rightly put the phenomenon in its proper context.

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[1] Yoruba is one of the major ethnic groups, and second most populous, in Nigeria. The people occupy the south-western part of the country, stretching from the upland area to the hinterland of the Lagoon. They speak Yoruba and constitute over 35 million people in total, the majority of whom is from Nigeria, while others spread across West Africa including Togo, Liberia, and Sierra Leone. For more details on Yoruba, see: Samuel Johnson. (1921). *The History of the Yorubas from the Earliest Times to the Beginning of the British Protectorate.* U.S.A: Cambridge Press., T.G.O. Gbadamosi. (1978). *The Growth of Islam Among The Yoruba* 1841-1908. Lagos: Longman Press., Saburi Oladeni Biobaku. (1973) *Sources of Yoruba History*. Clarendon Press.

[2] Bello, A. Mustapha. (2011). Between jalb practitioners and traditional healers of South West Nigeria: A synthesis of method and approaches. *Anyigba Journal of Arabic and Islamic Studies*, V (1), p. 66.

This paper sets about to inquire into the origin of the phenomenon of Jalabi, how it came about and the issues surrounding its inception. The bulk of the discussion therein is tailored towards appraising the phenomenon through its stages of development and certain socio-religious impacts it has got, not only on the Yoruba society but also on their religious belief.

Etymology

Jalabi is a domesticated Arabic word stemming from the triconsonantal Arabic root of *j-l-b*, which has got various meanings and connotations. According to the classic Arabic lexicographers[1], *al-jalb* is synonymous with *al-Jazb,* meaning to draw or attract. It could also mean to drag something from one place to another if one considers its grammatical inflexion and transitivity as in *jalabahu, yajlibuhu* or *yajlubuhu jalaban* or *jalban.* Likewise, it is synonymous with *al-Kasb,* meaning to earn a living or to obtain something as in *jalaba li nafsihi,* or to bring about benefit, good luck or fortune as in *jalaba naf'an.* These meanings are particularly relevant, as they not only depict the material end of some *Ulama's* activities, but also the type of spiritual assistance commonly rendered to their clientele to repel evil and bring about fortune. With regard to this meaning, the general statement: *jalb al-manfaah wa daf'u al-madarrah* (bringing about the benefit and warding off the evil) is very well applicable.

Interchangeably, *Ise Alfa* (vocation of the clerics) is common in use among the Yoruba Muslims to designate the practitioner of Jalabi. This terminology needs further clarification to avoid any confusion that may arise thereafter. *Ise Alfa* has a generic connotation in its literal form. Anyone who is versed with the traditional Islamic education would normally be referred to as *Alfa*, thus his practice be described as *ise Alfa.* The nature of this *ise Alfa* is noticeably diverse, for there are *Alfa* who have committed themselves to teaching, while others are known as preachers. In most cases, one *Alfa* may combine two or more *ise Alfa.* At this junction, reference should be made to Sheikh Adam al-Ilori, who, in his *NasÊm al-Øaba' fÊ AkhbÉr al-IslÉm wa ÑUlamÉ' BilÉd Yoruba*, arranged them into four categories;

a. *Al-WuÑÉÐ* (the preachers) both settled and itinerants.
b. *Al-MuÑallimÈn* (the teachers), who teach Qur'Én at their homes, shops, and mosques free of charge, as they possess other source of income, such as tailoring, weaving and farming, etc.
c. *Al-ÑUbbÉd* and *al-ZuhhÉd* (devout worshippers and ascetics)
d. The physical and spiritual healers, who are further divided into three sub-categories: conversant with the prophetic medicine, experts in traditional herbs and their use to cure ailments, and the well versed in *Khatt al-Raml* (sand cutting) and *al-Takahhun* (divination).[2]

The above classification seems to narrow the scope of the phenomenon to involve only the last sub-category. This, on the one hand, is contrary to the general stand maintained by those interviewed among the *ÑUlamÉ',* who proudly consider *Jalabi* as their profession. On the other hand, it does not put the phenomenon into its proper historical context either. Although, the acts of sand-cutting and divination prevail over the practice of *Jalabi* nowadays, it, nevertheless, does not embody what *Jalabi* is all about.

Whereas, in a more technical manner, *ise Alfa* distinguishes the *Alfa, who* practices *Jalabi* from those who do not, as it implies, first and foremost, the type of practices that are typical of the healers. The Yoruba *ÑUlamÉ'* engaged in the practice of *Jalabi* could be divided into the following categories:

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[1] Al-JawharÊ, IsmaÊl bin ×ammÉd, *al-ØiÍÉ' TÉj al-Lughah wa ØiÍÉÍ al-ÑArabiyyah,* (DÉr al-Ñilm li al-MalÉyÊn, 1990), Al-Mut-ÏarizÊ, NÉsir bin ÑAbdul al-Seyyid, *al-Mughrib fÊ TartÊb al-MuÑrib,* (×alab: Maktabah UsÉmah bin Zaid, 1979), Al-zabÊdÊ, MuÍammad bin MuÍammad bin ÑAbdul RazÉq, *Taj al-ÑÓrÊs min JawÉir al-QamÊs,* (Kuwait: DÉr al-HidÉyah, 2008), Al-FarÉhidÊ,al-KhalÊl bin AÍmad, *KitÉb al-ÑAin Murattaban ÑalÉ ×urÊf al-MuÑjam,* (DÉr al-Kutub al-Ñllmiyyah, 2003), Ibn ManÐhÊr, MuÍammad bin Mukrim, *LisÉn al-ÑArab,* (Beirut: DÉr ØÉdir), Abu al-×usein AÍmad bin FÉris, *MaqÉyÊs al-Lughah* (IttiÍÉd al-KuttÉb al-ÑArab, 2002), Al-ÙÉliqÊnÊ, IsmaÊl bin AbbÉd bin al-ÑAbbÉs, *Al-MuÍÊÏ fÊ al-lughah,* (Beirut: ÑÓlam al-Kutub,1994).

[2] Ilori, Adam Abdullah, *NasÊm al-ØabÉ' fÊ AkhbÉr al-IslÉm wa ÑUlamÉ BilÉd Yoruba,* (Cairo: al-MaÏbÑah al-NamÉdhajiyyah, 1987) p. 43.

a.   Those who are consulted by people for special prayer using, among others, the Quran, *DalÉ'l al-KhayrÉt*,[1]and other supplications carefully documented and transmitted from one generation to other. This category may best be designated as Quran-oriented *ÑUlamÉ',* as they do not mix this practice with other method of healing, whether traditional or prophetic.

b.   Those who combine the traditional method of healing with the Islamic, and perform different types of divinations, such as *Khat al-Raml* (sand-cutting), Jin companionship, etc.

c.   Those who have received special training in traditional but not Islamic healing method are referred to as *onisegun* (herbalist). There usually is no difference between this category and the traditional herbalists.

d.   The *gbajue* type (fraudsters), who lead their lives on deceptions and lies. This category is replete with youth and emerging *Alfas*, who are desperate to become wealthy overnight and do not have the mastery of the *ise Alfa per se*.

Of these entire categories, only those that fall in the category 'C' may be excluded from the general reference to the *Jalabi* practitioners. Nevertheless, it was later realized that this category is also consulted for Islamic spiritual healing even though some of them may not want *Jalabi* be associated with them.[2]

All in all, the phenomenon of *Jalabi,* as previously defined, seems to have been widely practiced across Africa under different names, the most common of which is *Mganga* or *Mwalimu*, the terms used to designate a person who practices a healing job in East Africa.[3] *Mganga* is a Swahili word derived from the root *ganga*, which means 'to bind up', or mend what is broken. By extension, *ganga* has become a generic term for healing.[4] While *Mganga* is used for both Muslim and unlettered traditional medicine men, *Mwalimu* is a reserved term for a Muslim, who had studied and learned his skills, and does not treat his client without following procedures described in a written text.[5]

Origin of Jalabi

The origin of Jalabi has been associated with the coming of Islam into Yorubaland, but since one cannot say in precision when the infiltration of Islam actually began in this part of the world, we may not equally know with exactitude the beginning of Jalabi practice in Yorubaland. Given the fact that Jalabi, from a broader perspective, was among the strategies devised by the Yoruba ÑUlamÉ' to win over the animists to Islam, it may well be classified as part of a general mainstream DaÑwah strategy in West Africa.

This strategy began the moment the Muslim clerics emerged from quarantine, as Ryan puts it,[6] in the wake of the growth of Muslim communities in many part of West Africa. Initially, they performed variety of clerical functions for these budding

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[1] The full title is DalÉ'l al-KhayrÉt Wa ShawÉriq al- AnwÉr fÊ dhikr al- ØolÉt ala al- Nabi al- MukhtÉr (rendered in English as the Waymarks of Benefits and the Brilliant Burst of Sunshine in the Remembrance of Blessings on the Chosen Prophet). It is a famous collection of prayers for the Prophet Muhammad, which was written by the Moroccan Sufi and Islamic scholar Muhammad al-Jazuli (died 1465). It is popular in many parts of the Islamic world, most especially West Africa, and is divided into sections for daily recitation. The Dala'il al-Khayrat is one of the most popular and universally acclaimed collection of SalawÉt. Among some Sunni religious orders, most notably the Shadhili-Jazuli order, its recitation is a daily practice. In others, however, its recitation is a purely voluntary daily practice. The work begins with the ninety nine names of God, and then a collection of over one hundred names of Muhammad.
 There are five ways to read DalÉ'l al-KhayrÉt: 1- all together in one sitting, 2- in two halves divided over two days, 3- in three third over three days, 4- in four quarters over four days, 5- in eight sections (called hizb) over one week. It is traditional to begin the recitation of DalÉ'l al-KhayrÉt with the AsmÉ' al-×usnÉ and the name of the Prophet (S.A.W). See: al-JazÉlÉ, MuÍammad b. SulaymÉn, DalÉ'l al-KhayrÉt Wa ShawÉriq al- AnwÉr fÊ dhikr al- ØolÉt Ala al- Nabi al- MukhtÉr , edited by Sheikh Abdul Kerim al-Kibrisi. Trans. S. Ahmad Darwish. p. 18. www.naksibendi.org (retrieved 20 January, 2014).

[2] Interview conducted with Mr. Muhalli Abdul Aziz, a Muslim herbalist in Iyana ilogbo ogun state, Nigeria, on 12 June, 2013.

[3] Swantz Lloyd W., *The Medicine Man Among the Zaramo of Dar es Salam* (Sweden: Bohuslaningen, Uddevalla 1990) P. 11-14. Sperling David, *The Frontiers of Prophecy: Healing, the Cosmos, and Islam on the East African Coast in the Nineteenth Century,* In Revealing Prophets: Prophesy in Eastern African History, edited by David Anderson and Douglas L. Johnson, (London: James Currey Ltd, 1995) P. 89.

[4] Ibid.

[5] Ibid. 91.

[6] P.J. Ryan, S.J. *Imale: Yoruba Participation in the Muslim Tradition*, (Harvard: Harvard Theological Review, Harvard Dissertations in Religion, 1978), p. 4.

communities to which they later added petitionary prayer, healing, divining, and the manufacture and sale of charms and amulets. It is to be added that the side of their activities that touched on magic and superstition constituted the major appeal of Islam in non-Muslim eyes and through this way they won respect and prestige among them.[1]

The earliest Jalabi-related practice was referenced by al-Bakri (1094 C.E) in his monumental work on the History of Africa. He mentioned a chiefdom of Malal, beyond the upper Senegal, that was going through an unending period of drought. Despite the efforts exerted by the priests, the situation even took a turn for the worse. Thereupon, the king appealed to his Muslim guest, who promised to help on condition that he accepted Islam. When the king agreed, the Muslim taught him some easy verses in the Quran and instructed him on fundamental religious obligations. On the following Jumuah night, after the king had purified himself, the two set out to a nearby hill. All that night the Muslim prayed and was emulated by the king. The dawn only started to break when Allah brought down abundant rain. The king then ordered the idols be broken, expelled the sorcerers and became Muslim together with his family and the nobility save the common people.[2]

Jalabi as a Da'wah Strategy

The genesis of the phenomenon of *Jalabi,* as previously mentioned, is ascribed to the effort exerted by the itinerant scholars, who are seen as the possessors of spiritual power to solve many enigmatic problems and to offer special prayers for protection against witchcraft and help cure the people's physical and spiritual maladies. This, perhaps, accounts for the initiative of prince Oluaji, *inter alia*, who is said to have invited some Fulani Muslims to the town during the reign of Oba Alawusa (1739-1774).[3]

A similar but distant incident occurred in other places in Yorubaland, where an Alfa is expected to demonstrate his supernatural ability to make the impossible possible, thereby staking his reputation on his success in performing such miracle. Sheikh Adam al-Ilori reported one such incident in a Yoruba city where the ÑUlamÉ' were forced into a fierce competition with the sorcerers to see whether they would come out of it triumphant and thus establish the genuineness of their mission. [4]

Almost all the Yoruba ÑUlamÉ' are thoroughly acquainted with different ways of preparing medicinal concoction, amulet, charm for whatever purpose. The effectiveness of such activity added to the people's respect and honour for them. This is not surprising given the fact that some of the indigenous Alfa then were either *Babalawo* (traditional herbalist) themselves before they embraced Islam, or had in the line of their ancestors who are renowned for their supernatural power, and its knowledge came to them by way of inheritance. Therefore, the acceptance of Islam, to them, does not mean a complete abandonment of their traditional legacy. In fact, it could be argued that their new religion is believed to have provided them with an additional power and strength.[5] It is even asserted that many of the Yoruba traditionalists, who accepted Islam, did so, not out of absolute conviction but rather for the spiritual power inherent in Islam.[6]

The Islamic teachings they were introduced to did not stress the Islamic law and theology any better than its spiritual aspects. So little did they have of the knowledge that may enable them to measure all that is un-Islamic, until the advent of Sheikh Alim Junta and the subsequent establishment of the Ilorin emirate, through which many cities in Yorubaland witnessed an unprecedented influx of the ÑUlamÉ'.

 It is pertinent to add here that these scholars, with sincere and intense conviction preached Islam with the little knowledge they had and put their lives on the line to defend its cause. It is not recorded that they ever practiced Jalabi for a living or

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[1] El Fasi, p. 72.

[2] Al-BakrÉ, AbÉ ÑUbayd ÑAbdullah b. ÑAbdul ÑAzÊz, *al-MasÉlik wa al-MamÉlik* (Tunis: al-DÉr al-ÑArabiyyah li al-KitÉb,1992)875., Levtzion Nehemia, *Pattern of Islamization in West Africa* in Conversion to Islam, ed. N. Levtzion (New York: Holmes & Meier, 1979)209-210.

[3] Adebayo, Ibrahim R. (2010). "The Role of the Traditional Rules in the Islamization of Osun State Nigeria". Journal for Islamic Studies.Vol. 30.

[4] al-Ilori, p. 42.

[5] This is based on the interviews conducted separately with the following *ÑUlamÉ'*: Sheikh Alhaj Zakariya Yusuf, a retired soldier and founder of kulliyat al-ThaqÉfÉt al-Islamiyyah li al-DirÉsÉt al-ÑArabiyyah wa al-InjilÊsiyyah, in an interview conducted on 15 June, 2013, Alhaj Imam Musa Adeyemi, chief Imam of Oke land and the proprietor of Guidance Academy Nursery and Primary school, on 15 June, 2013.

[6] Ibid.

to preserve their interest, as many of them had what they could call career. On the contrary, Jalabi practice to them was more of humanitarian and preventive.

Several examples of the ÑUlamÉ's tendency to promote Islam through their mystic and spiritual power have been collected from different sources, most of which are the first-hand experiences of those interviewed on the subject.

- In Ibadan, it was reported that the animosity between the traditionalists and the ÑUlamÉ' reached its apex and the situation became so tense that the tiny Muslim community in Ibadan then were forbidden to make *adhan,* and anyone who attempted in defiance of the order would pay with his life. The situation was beginning to take a turn for the worse when sheikh Uthman Basunu performed some special prayers then instructed the Muadhin to resume his duty. Upon hearing the sound of Adhan, all the shrines immediately caught fire. This incident helped the Muslims gained more freedom, respect and caused many people to accept Islam.[1]
- In Lagos, it was narrated that sheikh Abubakr bin Abdullah al-Sunni, a prominent preacher had an encounter with one of the leaders of idol worshippers in 1890 C.E., who threatened to put a hex on him if he does not abstain from insulting their gods. When the man wanted to cast a spell on the sheikh, the sheikh recited some verses of the Quran and blew it on the magician, who, instantaneously fell down in a swoon. Having observed this, the people hastily embraced Islam.

There are countless other isolated cases that could also add to the previously mentioned. They are the efforts made by some individual ÑUlamÉ' who singlehandedly restored the waving faith of many Muslim families that had almost defected to Christianity or to the traditional cult in quest for salvation. The sufferings of these families are varied; while some are in dire need of a means of sustenance, some are dying to become parents. Under the guise of total salvation and the gospel of success, many ordinary Yoruba had been lured into Christianity. In a society where the majority of the people are Muslim, it is a shame on the ÑUlamÉ' to see their followers and other fellow Muslims being taken away by their counterparts.

To counter this trend, the ÑUlamÉ' deployed all power at their disposal to see to the problems of the people and go at length to do anything that could possibly help them restore confidence back in the people's mind and convince them of the mighty power of Islam to solve any problem. Consequently, there is a sudden upsurge in the ÑUlamÉ's reliance on the traditional charm and amulet alongside the 'Islamic' healing rituals, divinations and other spiritual manipulations.

The above references illustrates how the early Yoruba ÑUlamÉ' practiced Jalabi as a strategy to propagate Islam among the traditional Yoruba. It could not be considered as something unprecedented, as the practice follows the mainstream African strategy in promoting Islam.

Jalabi Practice for a Living

Jalabi has been initially practised by the ÑUlamÉ in Yorubaland for humanitarian purposes without expecting any compensation whether in cash or kind, but later evolved into a means of livelihood when there were no other practical alternatives. Three factors are identified to have contributed to this new dimension, namely educational, economic and social factors.

Educational factor

The introduction of Islam in Yorubaland was an important turning point, as it marked the dawn of a new era when the advancement of unbelief was brought to an abrupt end. This is so because the introduction of Islam to this part of the world was coupled with the emergence and later the spread of scholarship. The warmest reception, commitment and passion accorded to this new religion by the early indigenous Muslims aided the transformation of Yorubaland from where "unbelief

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[1] Interview with Alhaji Haruna suara Baosar, Chief imam of Ibadan oyo state on 1st June 2013 at his home residence.

predominates"[1] to where considerable number of believers dwelled and thrived. This positive attitude travelled far afield to invite a horde of learned Muslim scholars, such as Sheikh AÍmad Qifu of Katsina origin and Sheikh ÑUthmÉn bin AbË Bakr (a.k.a Basunu)[2] of old Borgu origin,[3] and a host of others, to settle in Ibadan[4] for the purpose of propagating the knowledge of Islam. Many of these scholars had first settled in Ilorin,[5] the first centre of Islamic learning in Yorubaland, before they finally dispersed across other Yoruba cities in the south-west.

Students from every corner of Yorubaland where Islam had penetrated flocked to Ilorin or otherwise moved to Ibadan, which later became a reputable centre of learning, especially, under Sheikh HarËn bin Sultan, a disciple of Sheikh Abubakr bin al-QÉsim (alaga).[6] This is how students gathered around these early scholars, and, after completion of their studies, they themselves became notable scholars in their hometowns where they established a similar system of learning. Hence, a system of *madrasah*, known in Yorubaland as *ile kewu,* eventually emerged.

The early form of *madrasah* was more or less a *katÉtÊb*-like situated in a scholar's residence (in his parlour, veranda or under the shade of a tree) with a number of pupils ranging from ten to forty or even more sitting in a semi-circle, holding their wooden slate and chanting repeatedly verses of the Quran written on their slates. This rote learning would eventually help the pupils not only to memorize the selected chapters in the Quran but also to acquire rudimentary skill of writing.[7] The completion of this stage does not signify the end of Islamic learning at *madrasah*, but rather the end of what may be regarded as the primary level of the system, at the end of which a *Walimot* ceremony would come up.

Students at the secondary level of the system receive much broader knowledge; they would start by learning the *TafsÊr* (Quran exegesis) of the memorized chapters. Besides that, they are also introduced to subjects like Hadith, Fiqh (Islamic Jurisprudence), *al-NaÍw* and al-Øarf, (Arabic syntax and grammatical inflexion), *al-BalÉghah* (rhetoric) etc. At the successful completion of this stage, students would have acquired some proficiency in the Arabic language and are able to read, understand and interpret many of the works of earlier scholars and be ready to be awarded a licence empowering them to practice as teachers and imams.[8]

The system outlined above portrays the *madrasah* in its primordial form, but as time went by many reforms had been introduced into the system that considerably improved it. As a result, there emerged new forms of modern Islamic *madrasah* with a clear goal and unique system of learning. Prominent among which are *Markaziyyah*[9] and *MÑahadiyyah*[10] systems. They all employed the tripartite *IbtidÉ´iyyah-IÑidÉdiyyah-ThÉnawiyyah* system but without any established standard curriculum. Certificates are awarded to successful students at the completion of each stage of learning, and the total years of study, with variation, would be eleven to twelve years.

Interestingly, in principle, the proprietors of the reformed *modrasah* are not hostile to western education; rather they encourage their student to pursue it to complement their religious training since the fear they used to have of the possibility of their pupils being evangelized is no longer a reality. Yet, unfortunately, there are many challenges in this new educational

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[1] This is an often quoted statement of the former Sanhanja scholar, Ahmad Baba al-Timbuktu, on the Yorubaland. Since Ahmad Baba died in the first half of the seventeenth century, we can safely assume that this part of the world was by then known to the Muslims. But, there is nothing that may suggest that the Yorubaland was not known even before that time.

[2] al-Ilori, Adam Abdullah, *NasÊm al-ØabÉ' fÊ AkhbÉr al-IslÉm wa ÑUlamÉ BilÉd Yoruba* (Cairo: al-MaÏbÑah al-NamËdhajiyyah, 1987)138.

[3] Borgu is an inland region of western Africa, covering parts of what is now Benin and Nigeria and bounded northeast and east by the Niger River. "Borgu." Encyclopædia Britannica. Encyclopedia Britannica Ultimate Reference Suite. Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica, 2012.

[4] Ibadan is the capital city of Oyo State and the third largest metropolitan area, by population, in Nigeria, after Lagos and Kano

[5] Ilorin is one of the largest cities in Nigeria and is the capital of Kwara State.

[6] Fafunwa A. Babs, *History of Education in Nigeria* (Ibadan: NPS Educational Publisher Limited, 2002),52.

[7] The students acquire writing skill by copying whatever their teacher wrote on the board several times on their wooden slate, washed it and start over again. It is so slow and painstaking but very effective, especially for the Quran memorization. Any ×Éfiz trained in such manner would hardly have problem recollecting what he had memorized of the Quran.

[8] Fafunwa, p.55-57.

[9] *Markaziyyah* refers to the first modern *Madrasah* system emerged as a result of reformation introduced to the Islamic learning system. It was founded by Sheikh Adam Abdullah al-Ilori in 1952 under the name *Markaz al-TaÑlÌm al-ÑArabi al-IslÉmÊ* (Center for Arabic and Islamic studies) and located at Agege, a suburb and local government area in Ikeja Division of Lagos state, Nigeria.

[10] This system was introduced through the founding of *al-MaÑahad al-NaijÊrÊ* by sheikh Alhaj Murtadah Abdul Salam in Ibadan in 1957.

policy facing students previously trained at the *madrasah,* the major of which lies with the certificate that would qualify them for the higher learning, since the government does not recognize any certificate awarded by these *madrasahs.*

To respond to this challenge, some proprietors have their *Madrasah*s affiliated to Ahmad Bello University (ABU) in Zaria, and, as a result, modified their curriculum or initiated a new Diploma program along the ABU accredited curriculum. Any graduate of this new program would gain a direct entry into Ahamd Bello University. This step really proves effective, but many proprietors seemed not to be ready to follow suit.

Alternatively, by virtue of a keen interest that many governments of Arabic speaking countries, both in Middle East and North Africa, showed in the affairs of Nigerian Muslims, the graduates of these *Madrasahs* are offered scholarships to further their studies at Saudi Arabian, Egyptian, Sudan and Libyan universities, etc.

Conversely, a particular quarter among the ÑUlamÉ', known nationwide as *Zumratul Mu'minÊn* (a.k.a *Mokondoro),* have stubbornly refused to budge and resisted any reform of any kind that will change their orientation. They are always scornful of those that have had their systems reformed and labelled it unworthy type of Islamic education. They do not allow their children be sent to any *madrasah* except those established by their graduates. They also forsake western education, except until recently, and adopted a policy of isolation to insulate their children from being proselytized. Consequently, this attitude was to their own disadvantage. Hence, while there are many opportunities for the students graduating from the modern *modrasahs,* graduates of the *mokondoros'* are stuck in dead ends. They could neither make it to a higher institution nor affiliate their schools to either a local or an international institution. Instead their graduates prefer to start up their own *madrasahs* and search for students everywhere in their community.

It is never difficult to fill these newly established *madrasahs* with pupils, as the Muslim parents would readily enrol their kids, especially when they realize that they are always free of charge. These budding *Alfas* are not only expected to teach, but also to play the role of custodian for their pupils. In some cases, the *Alfa* would take the responsibility of feeding and clothing the pupils, who are left with them at the request of their parents. Some parents may not even bother to pay a visit to their children in a year round, leaving their fate at the hand of their teachers. While this addresses the religious needs of the community, it leaves the question on the survival of the *Alfas* unanswered. Whether they impose a meagre fee on the pupils (usually in modern *modrasahs*) or not (as it is the case in *mokondoros'*), whatever they eked out is barely enough to live on.

Thus, since all the effort to improve their living through their establishments had proved futile, these religious teachers are left with no option except to have recourse to *Jalabi*.

Economic factor

The economic factor that contributed to the rise of the Yoruba ÑUlamÉ in *Jalabi* practice is not unconnected with the embarrassing failure of the Nigerian government in administering fair and even distribution of the nation's wealth among all its people. However, in the context of the present study, it is an offshoot of the educational factor. When the graduates of the *Madrasah* system, are not equipped with any other skills that may serve as an alternative source of income and the certificate awarded to them are not recognized by the government, they would therefore devise a means for their survival.

Additionally, the time spent at *Ile kewu,* which is quite longer than the one spent by those who attend government schools, could not afford them the opportunity to try out other profitable vocations. Where they are intent to do so, they would definitely forsake being apprenticed to their age group. In order to survive and at the same time discharge their religious duties, they are compelled to take to teaching. Frankly speaking, this type of teaching job does not have any stake for them, as it could only provide them the opportunity to subsist on the donation, either from the community or from the parents of their pupils.

On the other hand, it is considered a taboo from the *Mokondoro* point of view that its graduate be employed under the government or elsewhere. They do not look out for jobs, as they have been considered, upon their graduation, as ÑUlamÉ qualified to set up their learning centers, give social and religious consultation, engage in healing practice and preside over

any religious gathering. They never take any salary or collect any fees from their students; instead they spend on them having complete reliance on Allah.[1] This principle features in their popular poem which runs thus:

> Eba wa beluwa eyin baba
>
> Kewu wa tiake ni wajuu yin
>
> Kama mosi kasi remi gigun lo
>
> Kama fi lawani serusin Ijoba
>
> Translation
>
> Pray for us o' you our teachers
>
> That our study under you
>
> Should make us prosper and elongate our lives and
>
> keep us away from being government servants.

The above poem shows how detestable is the idea of being employed by the government to any member of the *Mokondoros*, to the point that they have to make special supplication in that regard.[2] In an occasion where one of the members built a house, or bought a car, etc. they demonstrate the sufficiency of their *kewu* (Islamic education), and the fact that it is Allah that provides for them, in the following poem:

> Omo ko lagbe fi sose
>
> Omo ko lagbe fi sose
>
> Kewu ti ake losi ogbodota
>
> Omo ko lagbe fi sose
>
> Translation
>
> We do not use the kids for money ritual
>
> On the contrary, it is our kewu that defies poverty

It will become apparent that Jalabi, to these Alfa, should not only be practiced for humanitarian purpose, but also as a means for their survival.

<u>Social factor</u>

In Yorubaland the clerical work means more than what has been mentioned so far. The ÑUlamÉ' are believed to possess super natural power and have knowledge by which they can allegedgly see into the future. They could cause the rain to fall during a drought, make the rulers win their wars, offer special prayer for protection against witchcraft, etc.[3] On this basis, people from different walks of life and diverse religious backgrounds patronize them for spiritual consultation. They come to them for issues ranging from health to a more complex and rather personal, and are entertained with prayers (wherever it is appropriate), charms, amulet, sand-cutting, and so on. From this perspective, their job looks so similar to that of *bablawo*.

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[1] An interview conducted at Ojoo, Ibadan Oyo state with Alhaj Muhamad Olore, the khalifah of the late famous Olore and one of the prominent leaders of Mokondoro, who revealed that a Mokondoro graduate should not work but cater for social and religious need of his community by teaching the children.

[2] It was also further justified by a belief that if a scholar receives a salary from the government or elsewhere, it would affect his spiritual power that enables him to have his prayer accepted whenever he did.

[3] Balogun S.A. " History of Islam up to 1800" in *Groundwork of Nigerian History*, edited by Edited by Obaro Ikime (Nigeria: Historical Society of Nigeia,2004), 221.

In the practice of *Jalabi,* the ÑUlamÉ' do virtually everything that the *babalawo* does, to such an extent that one may hardly find any difference between the un-Islamic local tradition and Islam. However, to them, this is justified, as they see it as a means to not only gain the confidence and patronage of their clientele, but a way to prove to the Muslims that every problem can be managed within the fold of Islam.

If at all the the ÑUlamÉ' forsake practising *Jalabi*, it would create a vacuum that might be filled with *babalawo* and evangelists of salvation. In Yorubaland today there is hardly a Muslim who has never experienced *Jalabi* in one way or the other, which demonstrates its steady growing influence. It has become a popular industry offering services which people from every walk of life are willing to pay for. This suffices to endear *Jalabi* practice to many ÑUlamÉ', who do not have sufficient and regular income. Regrettably, due to its alluring prospect, many unprofessional and amateur young *Alfas* (and even sometimes non-*Alfa*), having stumbled on some records detailing the use of herbs with verses of the Quran, greedily forced themselves into the system.[1]   While the elderly among the ÑUlamÉ' still live below poverty line, these set of people, with their unorthodox method of operation, lead a luxurious and flamboyant lifestyle.

Jalabi as Syncretism

The term syncretism, or otherwise known as eclecticism, whose equivalence in Arabic is *al-TakhlÊÏ,* denotes the merger, combination or the alliance of different, often seemingly opposing, religious or philosophical beliefs, thereby creating a linkage between orientations that are intrinsically disparate.[2] Syncretism hinges on the assumption that the people practicing it have inappropriately and chaotically mixed what are essentially alien to each other. While the term is occasionally used to delineate the mixing of sectarian positions, like the fusion of different theology within the same religion, as is the case with Shiite and Sunni theologies, it is more often than not associated with inter-religious encounters, such as Catholicism and Voodoo in New Orleans,[3] Islam, Christianity, Hinduism, Jainism and Zoroastrianism in the Mughal empire at the time of its emperor, Akbar (1506 C.E).

As far as Jalabi is concerned, there is no gainsaying the fact that it has been practiced in different ways employing different approaches, some of which are claimed to be Islamic while others are typical of Yoruba tradition. On this basis, the method employed could be classified into two categories: Jalabi with Divine method, Jalabi with a mixed method.

Divine Method

Unlike what is accustomed to by the early generation of Islam, Yoruba ÑUlamÉ applied the Divine method in a wider and diverse manner. Perhaps what gives this diverse application its basis is the flexible and open-ended nature of this category, which is grounded in both the Quran and the Sunnah. In the Quran Allah says:

Indeed We send down of the Quran that which is healing and mercy for the believers…[4]

In his *al-LubÉb fÊ ÑUlÏm al-KitÉb*, al-NuÑmÉnÊ stresses that the Quran in its entirety is a cure for those who believe in it. It cures spiritual diseases (both of bad ideology and morally condemnable acts) and physical diseases if one seeks the blessing of Allah through its recitation.[5] This interpretation is agreed upon by all Quranic exegetes without any difference of opinion as to whether the *shifÉ'* (cure) mentioned in the above verse is used in its real sense or figuratively.[6] In another verse, Allah says:

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[1] The researcher has lived in the same community with such people, and was able to observe them during his field research in south-western Nigeria.

[2] Stewart Tony K. and Ernst Carl W. "Syncretism" in South Asian Folklore: An Encyclopedia, ed. Peter J. Claus and Margaret A. Mills. http://www.unc.edu/~cernst/pdf/Syncretism.pdf (accessed 29 March, 2014).

[3] Maranise Anthony M. J. (2012) "Investigating the syncretism of Catholicism and Voodo in New Orleans" *Journal of Religion and Society,* Vol. 14. Pg. 1.

[4] Sura al-Israa, verse 82.

[5] Al-NuÑmÉnÊ, AbË ×afÎ SirÉj al-DÎn ÑUmar bin ÑAlÊ, *al-LubÉb fÊ ÑUlÏm al-KitÉb,* vol.12 (Beirut: Dar al-Kutub al-Ilmiyyah, 1998) 369.

[6] For more detail see: al-SaÑdÊ, ÑAbdul RaÍmÉn bin NÉÎir, *TaysÊr al-KarÊm al-RaÍmÉn fÊ TafsÊr KalÉm al-MannÉn* (Mu'ssasatul RisÉlah,2000)465., al-TafsÊr al-WasÊÏ li al-Qur'Én al-KarÎm authored by a group of scholars under the auspices of al-Azhar Center for Islamic Research. Vol.5 (Cairo: al-Hayhah al-ÑÓmmah li al-Shu'Ên al-MaÏÉbi' al-AmÊriyyah,1973) 795., al-ShinqÊÏÊ MuÍammad al-

And if there was any Quran by which the mountains would be removed or the earth would be broken apart or the dead would be made to speak, (it would be this Quran), but to Allah belongs the affair entirely…[1]

The above verse is a conditional sentence (*al-Jumlah al-SharÏiyyah*) which consists of two clauses; a conditional clause specifying a hypothesis and a consequence clause indicating what follows from that condition. However, in this verse, a conditional clause is stated while the consequence clause is omitted. According to the Quran exegetes, the omission of the latter occurs for different reasons, but in the current context it emphasizes how mighty is the power inherent in the recitation of the Quran, the extent of which is left to our unending imagination. The presumed consequence clause could therefore be *lakÉna hÉzÉ Qur'Én* (it would be this Quran).[2]

The Yoruba ÑUlamÉ' find strength in this verse and the presumed consequence clause to embark on healing practices using verses of Quran in different ways that have never occurred to the early generations of Islam. They believe that if the recitation of the Quran is so powerful that it could be used to remove a mighty mountain or break the earth apart, could not it then be used against black magic or for healing from irremediable diseases?[3]

Moreover, there is a prophetic tradition narrated by Imam AÍmad on the authority of ÑAbdullah bin MasÑËd that the Prophet said while teaching them *al-Tashahhud*: "… then let everyone chooses the supplication that interests him and supplicates Allah with it". This Sunnah has given a complete freedom and authority to Muslims to choose whichever *DuÑÉ* they like to supplicate Allah with.[4] While *al-ma'thËrÉt* (supplications from Quran and sunnah) remains the best option,[5] it is sunnatic that a Muslim chooses for himself a *DuÑÉ* that is good as long as it does not involve any *shirk*.

On this basis, healing with divine method has been practiced in different ways, some of which are truly divine while others are not but a travesty of divine. Common Jalabi practices with divine method are: the recitation of the whole Quran or certain selected suras or verses, writing of the whole Quran or some selected verses on a slate, mirror, cloth, paper or other clean objects, the recitation and writing of Allah's names (both known and unknown), and those of the Angels, and Jinns, the codification of all the above mentioned in a talismanic way known as *Khatim* (katimi) to complement the above methods in order to give an effective result.

Various ways of using the Quran in this category had been found in some personal collections consulted during the fieldwork in Lagos, Oyo, kwara, Osun and Ogun states. Documents in forms of manuscript in Arabic, Ajami and Yoruba formats retrieved from these personal collections are so large in quantity but not organized. Many of them are not dated neither do they bear the names of their authors, perhaps due to the oral method of its transmission from one person to another. Where a name is mentioned,, it would not be that of the author, but rather of the one from whom the *nakali* was obtained. This appears to be just a sign of acknowledgement.

Interestingly, there is sufficient evidence to assume that many of these manuscripts could have been written about a century ago or even earlier. The frequent mentioning of the words sultan, horse and slave in these documents[6] suggests that they had been written as early as the era of Islamic emirates in this part of the world. The nearest one that comes to mind is non-other than the Sokoto and Ilorin emirates, where the title 'sultan' is used solely to address the supreme leaders of these Islamic states. The contexts in which the term sultan appeared typified the time when Sultans became indispensible, at whose mercy were all the subjects. In this kind of situation, what people would ever hope for is how to get closer to the court of the Sultan by all means, a fact which explains the proliferation of magical practices and fetishism. This assumption

AmÊn bin MuÍammad al-MukhtÉr, AdwÉ'u al-BayÉn fÊ TafsÊr al-Qur'Én bi al-Qur'Én, vol.3 (Beirut: Dar al-Fikr li al-ÙibÉÑah wa al-Nashr, 1995), 181.

[1] Sura al-RaÑd, verse 31.

[2] Ibn ÑÓshÊr MuÍammad al-ÙÉhir bin MuÍammad al-ÙÉhir, *al-TaÍrÊr wa al-TanwÊr,* vol.2 (Tunisia: al-DÉr al-TÉnisiyyah li al-Nashr, 1984), 94., al-BiqÉÑÊ IbrÉhÊm bin ÑUmar, *Nadhm al-Durar fi TanÉsub al-Ò'yat wa al-Suwar,* vol. 10 (Cairo: DÉr al-KitÉb al-IslÉmÊ),266., al-BaydÉwÊ NÉÎir al-DÊn ÑAbdullah bin ÑUmar, *AnwÉr al-TanzÊl wa AsrÉr al-Ta'wÊl,* vol.3 (Beirut: DÉr IÍyÉ al-TurÉth, 1418), 188.

[3] Al-Ilori Ódam ÑAbdullah, *NasÊm al-ØabÉ fi AkhbÉr al-IslÉm wa ÑUlamÉ' BilÉd Yoruba* (Cairo: MaÏbaÑah al-NamÉdhajiyyah,1986),41.

[4] AÍmad bin ×ambal, *Musnad al-Imam AÍmad bin ×ambal,* vol. 4 (Cairo: DÉr al-×adÊth, 1995),143., al-BayhaqÊ AÍmad bin ×useyn, *al-DaÑwÉt al-KabÊr,* vol.1 (Kuwait: GarrÉs li al-Nashr wa al-TawzÊÑ,2009),179.

[5] See for more detail: al-Imam JalÉl al-DÊn al-SuyÖtÊ. (1994) *DÉÑÊ al-FalÉÍ fÊ AdhkÉr al-MasÉi'wa al-ØabÉ'i.* Cairo: al-DÉr al-MaÍriyyah al-LubnÉniyyah.

[6] "Seeking fine cloth, horse and money", (no date). (Ar.). Personal collection, no. 102. (Retrieved 12 April, 2014).

is supported by the many attempts to win the affection of the Sultan or to gain his favor through different kinds of supplications and talismanic applications recurred in those documents.

It is noteworthy to add here that the recurrent themes of all the manuscripts at hand, having been thoroughly scrutinized, falls mainly into three categories; wealth and prosperity (*jalb al-Rizq*), love (*Jalb al-MaÍabbah*) and protection (*jalb al-×ifÐ*). But this does not mean that the manuscripts deal exclusively with these three themes. Quite on the contrary, there are tens of problems addressed therein ranging from a mild issue of 'memory boosting' to a complex issue of killing one's adversary.

Traditional and Mixed Methods

Regarding the traditional and mixed methods, there are ample evidences to argue that many of them do not fall within the parameter of the SharÊÑah. There is nothing wrong in the pure traditional method, as it is equivalent to the natural method practiced and approved by the Prophet. The traditional medicine may also be referred to as folk, complementary or indigenous medicine. All these terms are often used interchangeably, but sometimes due to certain overtone that one may want to highlight one particular term would be preferred.

According to the definition of the World Health Organization, this medicine is " the sum total of the knowledge and skills and practices based on the theories, beliefs and experiences indigenous to different cultures, whether explicable or not, used in the maintenance of health, as well as in the prevention, diagnoses, improvement or treatment of physical and mental illness. [1] The above definition highlights the general nature and development over generations of the traditional medicine and its diverse practices across human cultures.

In many places in the developing world, particularly in Africa, an overwhelming majority of the people still relies on traditional medicine for their health needs. The traditional medicine that is peculiar to the Africans involves, but not limited to, charm, amulets, ritualistic incantations or the use of animal (or human) part, minerals and crude plant materials, such as leaves, fruits, roots, seeds, stems, bark or other plant parts, which may be ground up to small particles or powder and subsequently steamed or steeped, or entirely burned to black substances. The common herbal preparation with animal or human organ involves grinding and mixing with other herbs, or roasting or burning to black substance, which may later be mixed with palm oil or the Yoruba traditional corn starch porridge (ogi/eko).

The general principle guiding the use of the traditional medicine in Islam is not based on the practice of one particular culture or nation, as wrongly perceived by some Yoruba Muslims, who stubbornly preach against the use of the Yoruba traditional medicine in favour of the Arabs folk's medicine. It is important to point out that the use of herbs to treat any kind of diseases is a common phenomenon among the people of different races, and that both its documentation and usage form central part of their medical scholarship. In the case of the Arabs, for example, Ibn Khaldun, in his famous *Muqaddimah,* observes that the pre-Islamic Arabs used herbs and plants for medical purposes, mainly based on individual experiences as handed down by the *shaykhs* and old women of the tribe.[2] He also mentioned one famous Arab medical expert, called al-×Érith ibn Kalada, and his sojourn in Jundishapur near Ahwaz in Iran to seek more knowledge of herbal medicine in the pre-Islamic period.[3]

Apart from herbs, the traditional medicine also involves the use of charm, talisman, amulets and spells, as the people believe in supernatural forces, such as evil spirit, witchcraft and so on. Thus, they seek traditional medicine to repel evils and shield themselves against any imminent danger of supernatural origin.

Islam deplores all such rituals of seeking refuge from evil spirit and considers it as a sort of polytheism, which Allah will not pardon until one repudiates all his polytheistic acts and return to the true faith. [4]

In the Yorubaland today, the majority of the ÑUlamÉ' believe in these two types of healing methods and practice them on daily basis. They do not seem to see them as contravening with the principle of Islam; instead they adamantly defend them,

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[1] Zang Xiaorui, *General Guidelines for Methodologies on Research and Evaluation of Traditional Medicine* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2000) 1.

[2] Ibn KhaldËn, *The Muqaddimah* (trans.) Franz Rosenthal (U.S.: Bolingen series Princeton, 1969), 935.

[3] ibid.

[4] al-MilÊ, MubÉrak bin MuÍammad, *RisÉlah al-Shirk wa MaÐÉhiruhË* (Saudi Arabia: Dar al-RayÉÍ li al-Nashr wa al-TawzÊÑ, 2001)213-239.

and would be ready to fight to their last breath with anyone who criticizes them. These idolatry practices, no wonder, have defiled the pristine Islamic teachings and principles, and have created confusion in the mind of the generality of the Yoruba Muslims. People do not seem to know what constitute Islam anymore, because of the accommodating method of the ÑUlamÉ' to all the un-Islamic practices in the society.

Conclusion

It has been deliberated upon throughout the foregoing pages that *Jalabi* is an extant historical phenomenon with a strong connection to the coming of Islam. It was used as a mechanism to condition the mind of the Yoruba animists to accept Islam and thereafter consolidate their faith after they have embraced Islam. Its origin remains shrouded with mystery, as no specific date could be assigned to its inception. All we may say, based on the available resources, is not more than its companionship with Islam during the latter's infiltration into Yorubaland. Its impacts on the lives of the Yoruba are immeasurable, as the phenomenon has become an important fabric of their society that could neither be abolished nor possibly forsaken.   Admittedly, it has been hijacked and utterly abused by certain quarters among the Ulama out of covetousness and greediness, which has eventually plunged the practice of Jalabi into syncretism, an act that is outrightly condemned in Islam as being in direct conflict with its fundamentals. Nevertheless, this does not by any means render its essence un-Islamic. It is therefore a matter of necessity to sift the practice from what has been associated with it based on strict Islamic principles.

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Confusion Concerning the Use of *Maqasid Al-Shari'ah* in some Social Issues in Malaysia

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Abstract

Social issues relating to the Muslim ummah's permissibility of polygamy for males and obligatory veiling (hijab) for females have become polemic in Malaysia. This polemic is dealt with by using the argument of maqasid al-shari'ah (purposefulness of shariah). However, there is much confusion in presenting the argument of maqasid al-shari'ah whereby the role of reason is given priority over considerations of explicit meaning of the text or evidence in shariah when a social issue is submitted. Hence, this paper explains the confusion in order that any form of resolution to social issues is in accordance with the spirit of al-Quran and Hadith. The method used in this study is document analysis. Among the documents used is, The Relationship Between Islamic Human Rights And The Maqasidic Approach, Muslim Women's Quest for Equality: Between Islamic Law and Feminism, Feminist Movement, Gender Equality and Religious Understanding and Dawabit al-Maslahah fi al-Shariᶜah al-Islamiyyah (The Guidelines for Public Interest in Islamic Shariah). Research results find that the dawabit (parameters) control the application of maqasid al-shari'ah (the ultimate objectives or goals of Shariah). This is because dawabit plays a role in balancing between proof of Shariah text or evidence in partial (juz'iyy) form and maqasid al-shari'ah in general or universal (kulliyy) form. These dawabit (guidelines) are compiled to ensure that the application of maqasid al-shari'ah fulfils the true discipline of jurisprudence in the context of textual interpretation of al-Quran and al-Sunnah when issuing rulings extracted from these sources.

Keywords : Social, Maqasid al-Shari'ah, al-Quran, Hadith

INTRODUCTION

Malaysia has several social issues that have become polemic among the Muslims here. For example, the Joint Action Group for Gender Equality (JAG) (2014) cannot accept it that women would have to cover their hair from the sight of a 'non-*Mahram*' (marriageable individual). According to JAG, this is against the principles of universal justice; what more if it is associated with Islam, which is formed based on justice. In other words, JAG is of the view that in order to achieve *maqasid al-shari'ah* (the ultimate objectives or goals of Shariah), freedom should be given to women to abstain from wearing the *hijab* so that there is fairness between man and woman on the issue of clothing. However, the religious authorities in Malaysia have an opposite view, whereby to wear the hijab is *maqasid al-shari'ah* and not vice versa. Feminist movements in other places shared the same view held by JAG. For example, Iran and Malaysia were accused of misinterpreting the al-Quran on this issue (Sanam Vakil, 2004), which had caused the failure to achieve *maqasid al-shari'ah*.

Besides that, the issue on polygamy is also fiercely debated. From one aspect, the Sisters in Islam (SIS) are steadfast that Islam only allows a Muslim man to marry one woman at any one time (1993). Marrying more than one woman is considered as deviating from the teachings of Islam (Abdullah et. al, 2015). SIS is of the view that achieving *maqasid al-shari'ah* in a fair and harmonious marriage is not to practice polygamy. From another aspect, the majority of Muslims, especially the religious authorities, do not forbid the permission for any qualified individual to practice polygamy. This group argues that achieving *maqasid al-shari'ah* is to practice polygamy with the intention of helping women experience the essence of marriage, especially when the ratio of unmarried women far outweighs men.

Both these issues could be used as examples of polemic in Malaysia that is based on *maqasid al-shari'ah*. Hence, a guideline on the use of arguments about *maqasid* (objectives or goals) recognised by *syarak* should be set up. The guidelines or *dawabit* for the *maqasid* is necessary in order to identify the Islamic law according to the al-Quran and Hadith. Thus, the study on *dawabit maqasid al-shari'ah* has not received much attention from researchers in the field of *maqasid*, although researchers have laid emphasis on the application of *maqasid al-shari'ah*. For example, Husni, A. B. M., et al., (2015) emphasised the important role of *maqasid al-shari'ah* in solving problems related to working wives. Omar, A. F., et. Al (2012) and Mohd Nor, A. H., et. Al (2012) applied *maqasid al-shari'ah* in the formation of national policies. Laluddin, H., et. Al (2012) also applied it to research on human rights. Other researches include its application in the financial and banking sector (Mansour, W, et. Al, 2015, Mansour, W., 2014, Belabes, A. S., 2014, Mohammad, M. O., & Shahwan, S., 2013) and many more.

Hence, by looking at the early history of *maqasid al-shari'ah,* al-Shatibiyy, as among the figures that pioneered the debate on *maqasid al-shari'ah*, had not elaborated further about *dawabit*, although it is necessary when ensuring that the rulings (*hukum*) based on *maqasid al-shari'ah* do not contradict the al-Quran and Hadith. This is because the *maqasid al-shari'ah* is only *ma'na kulliyy* (complete induction)*,* which is the summary of a collection of rulings (*hukum*) in the form of *juz'iyy* (partial rulings) that is based on *tafsiliyy* (in detail or comprehensive form). Therefore, *maqasid* must be monitored to ensure a balance between the objective that is based on *kulliyy* and the religious references for the rulings (*dalil hukum*) that are based on *tafsiliyy*. When the balance has been achieved between the *kulliyy* and *tafsiliyy*, the contradicting issues between *maqasid al-shari'ah* and the other religious references (*dalil*) from the *syarak* would not arise. This is because the *dawabit* acts by exposing the meaning of *kulliyy* and at the same time becomes a binding force for the religious references (*dalil*) related to the rulings that are in the form of *tafsiliyy*.

DAWABIT AL-MASLAHAH IN THE CONTEXT OF DISCUSSING *MAQASID AL-SHARI'AH*

The relationship between *al-maslahah* and *maqasid al-shari'ah* is clearly seen in the definitions of both these terms. The definition for *maqasid al-shari'ah* is "an objective determined by Islamic *syariat* and achieved in the interest of human beings" (al-Raisuniyy, t.th). The objective covers several elements such as *daruriyyah*, *hajiyah* and *tahsiniyyah* (al-Shatibiyy, t.th), which contains five basic elements such as religion, the soul, the mind, family lineage and property (al-Butiyy, 2010). Whereas, the definition of *al-maslahah* according to scholars on *fiqh* is summarised[1] as "benefits referred to by Allah SWT, The Most Wise, for his subjects who preserve and nurture their faith, soul, mind, family lineage and property" (al-Butiyy, 2010).[2]

Based on both the definitions above the common factor between both the definitions is the preservation and nurturing of faith, soul, mind, family lineage and property, which is found in three segments such as *al-daruriyyat, al-hajiyyat* and *al-tahsiniyyat*. Therefore, *maqasid al-shari'ah* and *maslahah* are actually two faces of the same coin. Hence, indirectly *dawabit* for *maslahah* is similar to *dawabit* for *maqasid al-shari'ah*. Thus, elaborations about *dawabit al-maslahah* are important, especially when discussing *maqasid al-shari'ah* as an instrument for formulating rules (*hukum*) on *syarak* based on references from the Al-Quran and Hadith.

DAWABIT AL-MASLAHAH AL-SHAR'IYYAH

Dawabit is the plural for *dabit*, which means "to protect or preserve (al-Raziyy, 1992) something from mixing with something else" (al-Butiyy, 2010). *Maslahah* needs to be protected by *dawabit* because *maslahah* is not a religious reference by itself, such as the al-Quran, al-Sunnah, *ijmak* or *qiyas* but it is only *maᶜna kulliyy*. This means that *maslahah* is formed based on the conclusions made after compiling the rulings (*hukum*) in the form of juz'iyy, which relies on religious references that are *tafsiliyy* (al-Butiyy, 2010)[3]. Hence, *maslahah* (*benefits*) must be nurtured and controlled so that there is a balance between its meaning according to *kulliyy* and the rulings (*hukum*) based on the religious references (*dalil atau nas*)that are *tafsiliyy*.

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[1] This is because there are numerous definitions given although the topic of discussion is the same.
[2] This is the result of the conclusion made by al-Butiyy based on the definitions by al-Ghazali and al-Razi.
[3] After *istiqra'* is initiated towards all the religious references in the *syarak*, either the al-Quran or Hadith, thus it was found that it was intended to safeguard the *maslahah* and reject the *mafsadah*.

In other words, the benefits (*kemaslahatan*) accrued via cognizance and observation of the rulings (*hukum*) in the *syarak* in the form of *juz'iyy* is congruent and does not contradict the religious references (*nas*) in the *syarak*

Therefore, when considering the benefits (*maslahah*) according to Islamic legislation, from one aspect, it must be subjected to guidelines (*dawabit*) that act to restrict its meaning according to *kulliyy* and from another aspect; it must be reconciled with religious references on *tafsiliyy* pertaining to rulings on *syarak* until there is compatibility between *kulliyy* and *juz'iyy*.

Hence, there would be a contradiction between the *maslahah* (*maqasid al-shari'ah*) and other religious references from the *syarak* because the existence of guidelines (*dawabit*) act as an introduction to a meaning that is *kulliyy* and at the same time become a binding force to the religious references (*dalil*) used in the rulings (*hukum*) in the *tafsiliyy* form. Thus, if there exist some contradiction between *maslahah* and the religious references in the *tafsiliyy* form, then the contradiction could be either between a false *maslahah* or between a *maslahah* that relies on religious references in the *juz'iyy,* which could be reconciled according to methods found in the principles of Islamic jurisprudence (*Usul al-Fiqh*). The guidelines (*dawabit*) are divided into five sections, namely *maslahah*, which is a part of *maqasid al-Shari^c*, *maslahah* that does not contradict the al-Quran, *maslahah* that does not contradict the Hadith, *maslahah* that does not contradict the *qiyas* or neglect a *maslahah* that is as important as or more important than it is.

Maslahah that is a part of *maqasid al-Shari'*[1]

Maqasid al-Shari' is intended to safeguard the benefits (*kemaslahatan*) and global human well-being. It is divided into five elements such as religion, the soul, the mind, family lineage and property. These five elements are further grouped into three groups according to their significance, such as *al-daruriyyat, al-hajiyat* and *al-tahsiniyyat*. The core matter among the five *maqasid* above is the platform for realising one objective only, which is all Muslims who are *mukallaf* (come of age) are subjects of Allah SWT. Therefore, actions of the *mukallaf* that contradict the meanings of the *syarak* are presumed irrelevant to the *maslahah* that are accepted by *syarak* (al-Butiyy, 2010).

Maslahah that does not contradict the al-Quran

The second guideline (*dabit*) states that the *maslahah* should not contradict the rulings extracted from the religious references (*nas*) quoted from the al-Quran. One such religious reference is the exhortation by Allah SWT meaning,

 "*And judge, [O Muhammad], between them by what Allah has revealed and do not follow their inclinations and beware of them, lest they tempt you away from some of what Allah has revealed to you. And if they turn away - then know that Allah only intends to afflict them with some of their [own] sins. And indeed, many among the people are defiantly disobedient.*"

(Al-Maidah, 5:49)

This verse clearly indicates that Allah SWT commanded that every verse delivered by HIM should become the main reference. References that do not rely on Allah SWT in reality do no refer to religious references but follow human impulses. Hence, the ruling (*hukum*) for solving any discord that arises is to refer to religious references (*nas*) from the al-Quran or Hadith.

Hence, if there are contradictions between *maslahah* and the al-Quran, then what could occur is an encounter between *maslahah mawhumah*[2] and religious references from the al-Quran, either in the form of *qat'iyy*, *zahir*, *jaliyyy* or *ghayr jaliyy*. Conversely, if *maslahah* is a branch of the original religious reference that is coalesced with '*illah qiyasiyyah*; hence, this contradiction in reality is a contradiction between two religious references that occur as *juz'iyy,* such as *al-khas* and *al-'am* or *al-mutlaq* and *al-muqayyad*. At that instance, *ijtihad* (independent reasoning) is permitted, either to perform *takwil*

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[1] There could be some confusion about the first *dabit*, considering the *maslahah* itself could be *maqasid al-Shari^c* and at the same time, it is monitored by *maqasid*. However, this confusion is settled easily because *maqasid* acts as an introduction to the meaning of *kulliyy* for *maslahah*. In other words, a particular matter could be *maslahah* if it intends to adress five basic issues, namely religion, the soul, the mind, family lineage and property, which happens to be *maqasid al-Shari^c* or *al-shari^c-ah*. Whereas, the remaining four *dawabit al-maslahah* act to bind the *maslahah* and the religious references (*dalil*) for the ruling (hukum) that are in the form of *tafsili*.

[2] *Maslahah* that does not rely on religious references from the al-Quran or al-Sunnah.

(exegesis) or *tarjih* (elimination by comparison) in order to determine the position of being benevolent (*amal*) with the *masalah* and religious references (al-Butiyy, 2010).

Maslahah that does not contradict the Hadith

Besides the al-Quran, *maslahah* cannot contradict religious references in the Hadith that clarify a ruling (*hukum*). The verse in Surah al-Ma'idah mentioned above is enough to prove the third *dabit*. In addition, Allah SWT had exhorted:

$$\text{يَاأَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا أَطِيعُوا اللَّهَ وَأَطِيعُوا الرَّسُولَ وَأُولِي الْأَمْرِ مِنْكُمْ فَإِنْ تَنَازَعْتُمْ فِي شَيْءٍ فَرُدُّوهُ إِلَى اللَّهِ وَالرَّسُولِ إِنْ كُنْتُمْ تُؤْمِنُونَ بِاللَّهِ وَالْيَوْمِ الْآخِرِ}$$
$$\text{ذَلِكَ خَيْرٌ وَأَحْسَنُ تَأْوِيلًا}$$

"*O you who have believed, obey Allah and obey the Messenger and those in authority among you. And if you disagree over anything, refer it to Allah and the Messenger, if you should believe in Allah and the Last Day. That is the best [way] and best in result.*"

(Al-Nisa, 4:59)

The religious references above clearly show that any discord must be referred to the al-Quran or Hadith. Hence, each ruling (*hukum*) that refers to the *maslahah* cannot contradict the Prophet's SAW Hadith. If there is a contradiction, possibly the *mashalah* is only a presumption or the contradiction is in the form of *juz'iyy,* which could be resolved using methods found in the principles of *Fiqh*, as stated in the second *dabit*.

Maslahah that does not contradict the *al-qiyas*

The fourth *dabit* is *maqasid al-shari'ah* or *maslahah* that does not contradict the *al-qiyas*. This is because *al-qiyas* functions to safeguard *maslahah* so that it remains at the same branch (*furuk*) or category as *maslahah mutlaqah* or *maslahah mursalah*. Thus, the ratio between *al-qiyas* and *maslahah mutlaqah* is general and specific because *al-qiyas* addresses *maslahah*, in fact with an addition, namely the ^{c}*illah* in the *al-qiyas*. The situation is different when solely addressing the *maslahah* because it is more general in nature due to *maslahah mursalah*. Hence, *maslahah* must be monitored by *al-qiyas* because every *al-qiyas* would surely address the *maslahah* but not vice-versa (al-Butiyy, 2010).

Besides that, it would be difficult for the *maslahah* to contradict the *al-qiyas* because of the ^{c}*illah*, which is one of the rulings (*hukum*) in *al-qiyas*. This is because the strength of the suitable character (*wasf al-munasib*) that causes the existence of this ruling *(hukum)* differs, such as[1] *mu'aththir, mula'im, gharib* and *mursal* (al-Taftazaniyy, 1317H). This differentiation is an important guide for setting the decorum and order pertaining to the position of the characteristics that should be considered if there is a contradiction (*ta'arud*) during efforts to identify and substantiate the rulings (*hukum*) from *syarak* (al-Butiyy, 2010).

Maslahah that does not neglect a more important *maslahah* or one of similar importance

The final *dabit* involves a *maslahah* that does not neglect a *maslahah* that is more important or of similar importance. This is because the *maslahah*'s order of priority, although not consistent, differs in importance. This is viewed from three aspects, namely from the essence of the *maslahah*, its scope or assurance of the desired outcome. The first aspect is divided into three levels according to the decorum that must be given priority if there are any contradictions, namely *maslahah daruriyyah, maslahah hajiyyah* and *maslahah tahsiniyyah*. If the contradiction occurs at the same level, then it would be evaluated according to its scope whether the maslahah is '*ammah* (general) or *khassah* (specific), with the *maslahah* '*ammah* given priority compared to *maslahah khassah*. The most important and basic aspect is the presumption that the

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[1] According to a decending order (from the strongest to the weakest).

maslahah would materialise (*rujhan al-wuqu'*) in reality and is evaluated to determine whether it belongs to the category of *daruriyyah*, *hajiyyah*, '*ammah* (al-Butiyy, 2010).

CONCLUSION

After elaborating on *dawabit* or the guideline for *maqasid al-shari'ah*i; hence, the polemic of the two issues raised earlier in the study, which is the issue of the need for women to cover their *aurat* and the issue of polygamy, could be resolved easily. This is because both these issues have religious references (*nas*) found in the al-Quran and Hadith. Among the religious references (*nas*) from the al-Quran related to the covering of the *aurat* is found in verse 59 Surah Al-Ahzab.

يَا أَيُّهَا النَّبِيُّ قُلْ لأَزْوَاجِكَ وَبَنَاتِكَ وَنِسَاءِ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ يُدْنِينَ عَلَيْهِنَّ مِنْ جَلَابِيبِهِنَّ ذَلِكَ أَدْنَى أَنْ يُعْرَفْنَ فَلا يُؤْذَيْنَ وَكَانَ اللَّهُ غَفُورًا رَحِيمًا

"*O Prophet! Tell thy wives and daughters, and the believing women, that they should cast their outer garments over their persons (when abroad): that is most convenient, that they should be known (as such) and not molested. And Allah is Oft-Forgiving, Most Merciful*"

The religious reference above shows that Allah SWT had commanded pious women to cover their *aurat*. Thus, *maqasid al-shari'ah* in this issue is that the *aurat* should be covered and not exposed because *maqasid al-shari'ah* cannot contradict the religious references found in the al-Quran. Meanwhile, a religious reference (*nas*) from the Hadith mentioned:

المرأة عورة

Meaning: Women (in themselves) are the *aurat*.

The religious reference from the Hadith narrated by al-Tirmizi clearly shows that the woman's body is the *aurat*. Hence, it must be covered. Based on the second *dabit*, the *maqasid al-shari'ah* cannot contradict the religious reference (*nas*) from the Hadith.

This is similar to the issue of polygamy, in which a verse from the al-Quran explicitly allows men to practice polygamy. Allah SWT exhorted (al-Quran, 4:3)

"*If ye fear that ye shall not be able to deal justly with the orphans, Marry women of your choice, Two or three or four; but if ye fear that ye shall not be able to deal justly (with them), then only one, or (a captive) that your right hands possess, that will be more suitable, to prevent you from doing injustice*"

فَانكِحُواْ مَا طَابَ لَكُم مِّنَ النِّسَاء مَثْنَى وَثُلاَثَ وَرُبَاعَ

The religious reference above binds the *maqasid al-shari'ah* by stating that men are permitted, according to certain conditions, to practice polygamy, and not the opposite.

Hence, the debate on guidelines (*dawabit*) for *maqasid al-shari'ah* is important because it is related to identifying rulings (*hukum*) based on the *syarak*. This understanding can be confusing especially if it is intentionally staged by enemies of Islam who wish to attack the perceptions held by Muslims. The attacks are usually through the mode of *ijtihad* and *al-ra'y* (views) by using false *maslahah*. Pertaining to this matter, Dr. Muhammad Said Ramadan al-Butiyy (2010) said:

"*This is a new round started by the enemies of Islam in their efforts to wage war with Islam. Thus, with a responsibility shouldered by Muslims today to arrest this attack and create awareness about it, I have been thinking for some time now to initiate a study on Dawabit al-Maslahah fi al-Shar'cah al-Islamiyyah.*"

The above statement clearly shows that the original intention to formulate the *dawabit maslahah* was to safeguard the method of deducing religious references based on the *syarak* from being disrupted by irresponsible parties who wish to destroy Islam. This is concrete proof that jihadist scholars of Ahl al-Sunnah wa al-Jama'ah are steadfast in ensuring the use of the original principles of Fiqh in the context of interpreting religious references from the al-Qur'an and al-Sunnah. *Ijtihad*, or more specifically *ijtihad al-maqasidi*, should be approached with caution and care since it is subject to methods and disciplines mentioned in the al-Qur'an and al-Sunnah that should be adhered to in order to avoid being misled. Dr. al-Butiyy (2010) again explained:

"*Every time I read or hear a call for ijtihad at the present time by considering the maslahah as a benchmark for understanding the syariah, I feel the over-compelling question within me that asks, "what is the dawabit al-maslahah that is frequently*

talked about?" If to ijtihad is considered compulsory for the ulama, even once, is it compulsory for them a thousand times over to endeavour tirelessly to understand the reality of maslahah shar'iyyah, its limitations, its dawabit or even its foundations?"

Pertaining to the truth of this *ijtihad*, al-Shaykh Dr. 'Abd. al-Halim Mahmud *rahimahuLlah* stated:[1]

"*The actual meaning of ijtihad is to effortlessly and continuously try to obey and adhere to every action and deed carried out by the Prophet SAW and to subject all new problems to the ancient methods summarised from the exhortation of the Prophet SAW and the al-Quran. Ijtihad has no other meaning other than this*" ('Abd al-Halim Mahmud, t.th).

The statement above shows that the practice of depicting rulings (*hukum*) from the *syarak* is subject to *manhaj* (methodology of receiving, analyzing and applying knowledge) that existed then, ever since Prophet Muhammad SAW[2] delivered it. *Manhaj* is a guide for understanding and interpreting the religious references (*nas*) found in the al-Quran and al-Sunnah when summarising the rulings (*hukum*) of the *syarak* and guiding the thinking process or *ijtihad*. This *manhaj*[3] has become a principle held by the entire generation of Muslims since the existence of Islam in their efforts to understand the al-Quran and al-Sunnah. Therefore, Muslims who are committed to the al-Quran and al-Sunnah possess a permanent measure for interpreting religious references. At the same time, *manhaj* acts to guide, bind and ensure that the actual and authentic views or *ijtihad* adhere to the potent religious references.

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[1] He (*rahimahullah*) was the former Shaykh al-Azhar (the highest position in al-Azhar al-Sharif). He was born in Egypt, in a village called al-Salam, located in the Sharqiyyah area on 10 Mei 1910. He had attended innumerable conferences on Islam in and outside the country. He was a visiting professor at several universities in Tunis, Libya and the Philippines. His literary work covered various fields such as *tasawwuf*, philosophy, *fiqh* etc. consisting of more than 64 books. The titles of his works *were al-Islam wa al-Iman, al-cIbadat, al-Tacrif al-Falsafi fi al-Islam* and *al-Islam wa al-cAql*. He died on 17 October 1978.

[2] *Manhaj*, pertaining to either the principles or the practice of Islamic academic knowledge, have existed from the times of the Prophet SAW and HIS companions but the study, research and writings as well as the editorial work on *manhaj* only emerged halfway through the *salaf al-salih*.

[3] *Manhaj* here does not mean a technique or a system of studying academic knowledge but a path (*al-tariqah*) that would lead a researcher towards the truth, either in the form of news that should be authenticated or an issue whose evidence that needs to be authenticated and verified.

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Emotional Inteligence and School Achievements

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Abstract

It has been already known that cognitive abilities are not sufficient to encompass all the variance of success at school, so we started to research other factors such as: motivation, work habits, personal traits, social and cultural characteristic as well as emotional intelligence. The task of this research is to study and analyse the connection between variables: emotional intelligence and success at school, i.e. to find out if the connection is statistically significant and what is its quality with four groups of adolescents of different age, considering different vocational profiles and the place of living. The research was carried out in 2011. The sample consisted of the students from grammar and vocational schools in three characteristic and in many aspects different towns: Nikšić, as a continental place, Podgorica as a central part and Budva as a tourist place. Regarding content and methodology interdisciplinary approach was used. The results of the research showed that the students of different vocations do not differ regarding their emotional intelligence. There is a connection between success at school and emotional intelligence in some segments. The students with different success at school considerably differ in the components: "Understanding of Emotions" and "Managing Emotions". The students with excellent and very good general mark have better understanding of emotions and they manage emotions better than the students with worse general mark. By examining correlation between the components of emotional competence and school success, in relation to sex, a positive correlation between the component "Naming and Enumerating of Emotions" and "Managing Emotions" and better success at school has been established, which means that a higher value on this component of emotional competence is connected with better success at school in the group of female examinees but not in the group of male examinees.

Key words: emotional intelligence, competence, student, school success

Emocionalna Inteligencija I Školski Uspjeh

Rezime

Odavno je postalo jasno da kognitivne sposobnosti nisu dovoljne da zahvate ukupnu varijansu uspjeha u školi, pa se počelo sa istraživanjima uloge i drugih činilaca kao što su: motivacija, radne navike, lične osobe, socijalna i kulturna obilježja, pa i emocionalna inteligencija. Zadatak ovog istraživanja je da se prouče i analizira povezanost varijabli: emocionalna inteligencija i uspjeh u školi, tj. da se utvrdi da li je veza statistički značajna i kakvog je kvaliteta kod četiri uzrasne grupe adolescenata, obzirom na različite profile zanimanja i mjesto življenja. Istraživanje je sprovedeno 2011. godine. Uzorak su činili učenici gimnazije i srednjih stručnih škola u u tri karakteristična i po mnogo čemu različita grada: u Nikšiću, kao kontinentalnom mjestu, u Podgorici kao centru Crne Gore i u Budvi kao turističkom mjestu. U sadržinskom i metodološkom pogledu primijenjen je interdisciplinarni pristup. Rezultati istraživanja su pokazali da se učenici različitog usmjerenj ne razlikuju po svojoj emocionalnoj inteligenciji. Postoji povezanost školskog uspjeha i emocionalne inteligencije u nekim segmentima. Učenici sa različitim školskim uspjehom se značajno razlikuju u komponentama „Razumijevanje emocija" i „Upravljanje emocijama". Učenici sa odličnim i vrlo dobrim uspjehom imaju bolje razumijevanje emocija i uspješnije upravljanje emocijama od učenika sa lošijim uspjehom. Ispitivanjem korelacije između komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti i školskog uspjeha a u odnosu na pol utvrđena je pozitivna korelacija između komponente „Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija" i boljeg uspjeha u školi, što znači da je viša vrijednost na ovoj komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti povezana sa boljim školskim uspjehom na skupini ispitanika ženskog pola ali ne i kod ispitanika muškog pola.

Ključne riječi: emocionalna inteligencija, kompetentnost, učenik, školski uspjeh

Uvod

Mnogobrojna istraživanja su pokazala da je školski uspjeh determinisan velikim brojem faktora koje je gotovo nemoguće u potpunosti zahvatiti empirijskim istraživanjima. Odavno je postalo jasno da kognitivne sposobnosti nijesu dovoljne da zahvate ukupnu varijansu uspjeha pa se počelo sa istraživanjima uloge i drugih činilaca. Uskoro su u istraživanja uključeni motivacija, radne navike lične osobine, socijalna i kulturna obilježja učenika i drugi faktori.

Moderne teorije emocija ukazuju da emocije usmjeravaju kognitivne aktivnosti i motivišu cilju usmjereno (adaptivno) ponašanje (Strongman, 1987). Emocije mogu poslužiti osobi kao izvor korisnih informacija i da osobe mogu biti, više ili manje, vješte u procesuiranju takvih informacija. Sposobnost upotrebe informacija koje omogućuju emocije mogu pomoći osobi u boljem prilagođavanju, kao i pri motivisanju, planiranju i postizanju određenih (pozitivnih i poželjnih) ciljeva u životu. Emocionalna otvorenost u pisanju (u literaturi) ili psihoterapiji započinje željom osobe da posveti pažnju i upozna svoje osjećaje, te da joj osobna emocionalna iskustva budu jasna. Da li to nazvati emocionalna inteligencija ili ne možda ne bi trebalo biti toliko važno, koliko je bitno naglasiti važnost sposobnosti osobe da otkrije svoje osjećaje sebi i drugim ljudima, da živi u skladu s njima i da ih koristi za postizanje sebi važnih ciljeva u životu.

Takođe, izražavanje emocija je jedan od primarnih čovjekovih motiva.

Salovey i Mayer (1990) su napravili prvi model strukture emocionalne inteligencije u koji su uključili:

a)   procjenu i izražavanje emocija kod sebe i kod drugih,

b)   regulaciju emocija kod sebe i drugih,

c)   upotrebu emocija u adaptivne svrhe.

Emocionalna inteligencija uključuje sposobnost brzog zapažanja procjene i izražavanja emocija; sposobnost uviđanja i generiranja osjećanja koja olakšavaju mišljenje; sposobnosti razumijevanja emocija i znanje o emocijama; i sposobnost regulisanja emocija u svrhu promocije emocionalnog i intelektualnog razvoja (Mayer & Salovey, 1996).

Sve normalne osobe posjeduju svaku od navedenih sposobnosti, a razlikuju se u stepenu razvijenosti pojedinih sposobnosti i prirodi njihovih kombinacija.

Takšić V. (1998) ističe da sposobnosti i vještine emocionalne inteligencije omogućuju pojedincu bolje prilagođavanje u različitim situacijama, efikasnije rješavanje vlastitih svakodnevnih emocionalnih problema kao i interpersonalnih konflikata, i na taj način mu otvaraju veći broj alternativa za uspješno djelovanje. Osim toga, one mu omogućuju kreiranje ugodnije socijalne radne okoline, što posredno doprinosi efikasnijem djelovanju u većini poslova i zadataka. Sve navedeno bi trebalo imati za posledicu da se emocionalno inteligentne osobe osjećaju kompetentnijima i imaju više samopoštovanje.

Optimizam u pogledu mogućnosti prognoziranja školskog uspjeha većinom se bazira na pretpostavci da klasični testovi inteligencije objašnjavaju oko 25% varijable uspjeha u školskom obrazovanju, tako da ostaje dovoljno neobjašnjene varijable koju bi mogle objasniti sposobnosti i vještine iz domena emocionalne inteligencije.

Iako do danas nije objavljeno puno radova o emocionalnoj inteligenciji, razvijeno je nekoliko valjanih i pouzdanih mjernih instrumenata (većinom upitnika) za procjenu pojedinih sposobnosti uključenih u model.

Metod

Zadatak ovog istraživanja je da se prouči i analizira povezanost varijabli: emocionalna inteligencija i uspjeh u školi, tj. da se utvrdi da li je veza statistički značajna i kakvog je kvaliteta kod četiri uzrasne grupe adolescenata, obzirom na različite profile zanimanja i mjesto življenja.

Obzirom da u populaciji srednjoškolaca Crne Gore nijesu vršena ovakva istraživanja, globalni cilj ovog istraživanja je da osvijetli djelovanje emocionalne inteligencije na uspjeh u srednjoj školi u tri karakteristična i po mnogo čemu različita grada: u Nikšiću, kao kontinentalnom mjestu, u Podgorici kao centru Crne Gore i u Budvi kao turističkom mjestu.

Postignuće učenika u istraživanju smo prikazali kroz školski uspjeh.

Školski uspjeh ispitanika smo utvrdili na osnovu školske dokumentacije (razredni dnevnici). Kao mjerilo uspješnosti koristićemo njihove opšte ocjene postignute na kraju školske 2010/ 2011 godine. Opšti uspjeh predstavlja, u stvari, prosječnu ocjenu koja se dobija dijeljenjem zbira svih ocjena sa brojem predmeta i označena je uobičajenim terminima: odličan, vrlodobar, dobar, dovoljan i nedovoljan.

Emocionalnu inteligenciju ispitali smo Upitnikom emocionalne kompetentnosti.

Hipoteze

1.   Učenici škola različitog usmjerenja se razlikuju po svojoj emocionalnoj inteligenciji.

Istraživanjem ćemo utvrditi postoje li značajne razlike među učenicima različitih usmjerenja prema emocionalnoj inteligenciji.

2. Postoji povezanost emocionalne inteligencije učenika i njihovog školskog postignuća.

Istraživanjem ćemo utvrditi stepen korelacije emocionalne inteligencije sa školskim uspjehom.

Uzorak

Uzorak učenika je sistematski obuhvatio po jedno odjeljenje u svakom razredu usmjerenja gimnazije i turističkih tehničara u Budvi, Podgorici i Nikšiću. Odlučili smo se da ispitivanjem obuhvatimo učenike primorskog, centalnog i sjevernog dijela Crne Gore, kako bi obezbijedili reprezentativnost ispitivanja. U istraživanju su bili uključeni učenici I, II, III i IV razreda srednje škole u Budvi, Podgorici i Nikšiću, koji su se opredijelili za smjer - gimnazija ili za smjer – turisticki tehničar.

Uzorak čini 775 učenika, uzrasta od 15 – 19 godina i to 398 učenika gimnazije i 378 učenika turističkih tehničara. Ispitanika iz Budve je 258, iz Nikšića 262 a iz Podgorice 254. S obzirom na pol uzorak čini 305 subjekata muškog pola i 470 subjekata ženskog pola. Izrazita neujednačenost ispitanika prema polu, u korist ženskih subjekata (39,4 % : 60,6 %) nije posledica slučaja, već je to odraz stvarnog stanja u ispitivanim školama.

Instrumenti

Koristili smo instrument: Upitnik emocionalne kompetentnosti – UEK - 45,

-UPITNIK EMOCIONALNE KOMPETENTNOSTI

U području konstrukta emocionalne inteligencije prisutna su dva opšta modela konceptualizacije: model emocionalne inteligencije kao mentalnih sposobnosti i model emocionalne inteligencije u terminima samoprocjene. U sklopu ovog drugog pristupa navedeno je mnoštvo različitih osobina ličnosti koje su se pokazale zadovoljavajućim prediktorima kompetentnog rješavanja problema i efikasnog ponašanja u emocionalno zasićenim situacijama. Struktura i brojnost takvih mjera je vrlo različita u različitim istraživanjima, a emocionalnu inteligenciju najčešće shvataju kao nešto slično faktoru višeg reda. Cilj je prikazati strukturu i neke oblike valjanosti skupa čestica za samoprocjenu emocionalne kompetentnosti generiranih pod modelom dvojice autora koji su počeli naučno proučavati emocionalnu inteligenciju (Mayer i Salovey, 1996).

Kako je korištena metoda samoprocjene činilo se najbolje skalu nazvati Upitnikom emocionalne kompetentnosti. Model pretpostavlja postojanje 16 različitih sposobnosti, a za svaku od njih je konstruisana zasebna skala. Faktorska analiza je pokazala da je u tom prostoru moguće pronaći četiri smislene, interpretabilne dimenzije: 1) uočavanje i razumijevanje emocija, 2) izražavanje i imenovanje emocija, 3) regulaciju i kontrolu emocija, i 4) upravljanje emocijama. Svaka od dimenzija emocionalne kompetentnosti reprezentirana je pouzdanom skalom i pokazala je smislene veze s relevantnim konstruktima kao što su: socijalne vještine, samopoimanje (samopoštovanje, ustrajnost, percepcija osobne kompetentnosti), empatija, načini rješavanja konflikata i načini suočavanja sa stresom.

Operacionalizacija konstrukta emocionalne inteligencije je izvršena skalama samoprocjene. Prema modelu Mayera i Saloveya (1996) formulisane su tvrdnje čiji se sadržaj odnosio na svaku od 16 sposobnosti iz modela. One su dobijene kombinacijom četiri nivoa složenosti procesa od kojih je svaka sadržavala četiri razvojno različite sposobnosti. Ispitanici su na skalama Likertovog tipa od pet stupnjeva procjenjivali razvijenost vlastitih sposobnosti iz domena emocionalne inteligencije. Ovakav pristup je karakterističan za ispitivanje samopoimanja, a relevantan je zbog toga što se osobe obično ponašaju u skladu s uvjerenjem o vlastitim sposobnostima (Bandura, 1997).

Konačna verzija upitnika (UEK- 136) imala je 136 čestica raspoređenih u 16 subskala (Takšić, 1998). Tvrdnje su u upitniku prezentirane slučajnim redosledom (prema abecednom redu početnog slova tvrdnje). Iz verzije skale od 136 čestica izabrane su čestice u dvije kraće verzije upitnika koje su imale 45 (UEK-45), odnosno 15 čestica (UEK-15; Takšić, 2001). Osnovni razlog za konstrukciju kraćih skala je praktičnost, kao i mogućnost upotrebe u istraživanjima i praksi u vremenski ograničenim uslovima.

U našem istraživanju smo koristili UEK-45.

Definicija po kojoj „emocionalna inteligencija uključuje sposobnost brzog zapažanja procjene i izražavanja emocija; sposobnost uviđanja i generiranja osjećanja koja olakšavaju mišljenje; sposobnosti razumijevanja emocija i znanje o emocijama; i sposobnost regulisanja emocija u svrhu promocije emocionalnog i intelektualnog razvoja" (Mayer & Salovey, 1996) je oblikovana u dijagram koji pokazuje odnos i međusobnu zavisnost sposobnosti i vještina koje uključuje.

Struktura sposobnosti i vještina uključenih u konstrukt

EMOCIONALNE INTELIGENCIJE

D Refleksivna regulacija emocija u promociji emocionalnog i intelektualnog razvoja

| sposobnost otvorenosti za osjećaje - za one ugodne kao i za one neugodne | sposobnost refleksivnog uživljavanja ili odvajanja od emocija zavisno o procjeni korisnosti | sposobnost refleksivnog praćenja emocija u odnosu na sebe i druge kao koliko su tipične, jasne, utjecajne ili odmjerene | sposobnost upravljanja svojim i tuđim emocijama ublažavajući neugodne i pojačavajući ugodne emocije |

C Razumijevanje i analiza emocija : upotreba emocionalnih znanja

| sposobnost imenovanja emocija i prepoznavanje odnosa između riječi i samih emocija (kao npr. između sviđati se i voljeti) | sposobnost interpretiranja značenja koje emocije prenose (npr. da je tuga povezana s nekim gubitkom) | sposobnost razumijevanja složenih mnogostrukih osjećanja (kao npr. istovremeni osjećaj ljubavi i mržnje) | sposobnost prepoznavanja vjerovatnih prijelaza između emocija - prijelaz iz ljutnje u sram |

B Emocionalna facilitacija mišljenja

| emocije određuju redosljed mišljenja tako da usmjeravaju pažnju na važne informacije | emocije su dovoljno jasne i dostupne, pa pomažu prosuđivanju i pamćenju događaja koji su u vezi s različitim osjećajima | različiti pogledi na stvari mijenjaju emocionalna stanja podržavajući mogućnost procjene iste situacije s različitih strana | emocionalna stanja olakšavaju pristupe specifičnim problemima: tako sreća olakšava induktivno mišljenje i kreativnost |

A Percepcija, procjena i izražavanje emocija

| sposobnost zapažanja emocija u nečijem fizičkom stanju, osjećajima i mišljenju | sposobnost zapažanja emocija kod drugih osoba, u umjetničkim djelima ili sl., kroz jezik, zvuk, pojavnost i ponašanje | sposobnost preciznog izražavanja emocija, kao i izražavanje potreba povezanih s tim osjećanjima | sposobnost razlikovanja tačnog od neadekvatnog, odnosno iskrenog od lažnog izražavanja emocija |

Četiri navedene sposobnosti poredane su prema složenosti psiholoških procesa koje uključuju od jednostavnijih (zapažanje i izražavanje emocija) do složenih (svjesnost refleksivnost i regulaciju emocija). Osim toga, svaka opisana sposobnost bliže je opisana s još četiri sposobnosti poredane od lijeva na desno prema razvojnom načelu: ranije razvijene sposobnosti se nalaze na lijevoj strani, a one kasnije razvijene i više integrirane pojavljuju se na desnoj strani.

A)   Percepcija, procjena i izražavanje emocija

Najniži nivo predstavlja sposobnosti i vještine osobe da tačno uoči emocionalni sklop. Tako već mala beba može prepoznati roditeljeve emocionalne reakcije. Razvojem dijete uči opažati i razlikovati svoje tjelesne osjećaje i socijalno okruženje (prva ćelija s lijeva).

Odrasla osoba može pažljivo posmatrati i opažati svoje osjećaje. Na primjer, ako je pitamo kako se osjeća, moguće je da nam odgovori da nije u najboljoj formi i da je malo umorna jer je kasno pošla na spavanje, i da se zbog toga boji da joj ni mišljenje nije baš previše bistro. Osjećanja je moguće prepoznavati i kod drugih osoba. Kako dijete odrasta sposobno je pridavati sve više različitih atributa živim i neživim objektima. Tako dijete povezuje svoju nelagodu kada mu je neko ograničavao kretanje s takvim reakcijama kod kućnih ljubimaca i kod druge djece, što mu omogućava da kasnije prepoznaje ekspresije nelagode i anksioznosti kod drugih osoba i u drugim situacijama (druga ćelija).

Nadalje, dijete uči prepoznati osjećanja drugih osoba izražena na različite načine (kod drugih osoba, u slikama, arhitekturi i sl.), kao i značenja pojedinih emocija. Za primjer je moguće navesti poznatu Munchovu sliku "Vrisak", gdje emocije ne otkriva samo izraz lica, nego i način na koji je prikazana pozadina kao i cjelokupna atmosfera kojom je autor htio izraziti stanje beznađa. To je primjer kako se izražavanjem emocija izražavaju potrebe povezane s njima (treća ćelija).

Kada razviju vještinu zapažanja i otkriju informacije koje emocije prenose, emocionalno inteligentne osobe su osjetljive, odnosno mogu prepoznati kod drugih pokušaje manipulacije emocijama, odnosno neiskreno izražavanje emocija (četvrta ćelija).

B)   Emocionalna facilitacija mišljenja

U ovom dijelu je opisano na koje sve načine emocije mogu imati pozitivan uticaj i olakšavati intelektualne procese. Tako već tek rođeno dijete plače kada želi mlijeko ili brigu, a smije se kada mu je ugodno. Dakle, emocije se od početka života koriste da signaliziraju osobi da su se kod njega, ili u njegovoj okolini dogodile značajne promjene. S razvojem pojedinca emocije sve više oblikuju i usmjeravaju mišljenje na važne promjene. U kasnijoj dobi dijete se brine o domaćem radu dok se igra ili gleda TV. Drugi je primjer gdje je učitelj zabrinut jer mora pripremiti predavanje za sutra. Budući da učitelj ima bolju anticipaciju budućnosti, on će radije obaviti zadatak prije nego što mu briga o njemu pokvari zadovoljstvo (prva ćelija).

Sljedeći doprinos emocija efikasnijem mišljenju predstavlja sposobnost generiranja emocija prema trenutnim "zahtjevima" situacije, sa svrhom boljeg razumijevanja konkretne situacije u kojoj se osoba našla. Ako se uspijemo uživjeti u neki događaj ili osjećanja osoba čiju priču pratimo, moći ćemo se lakše snaći i odlučiti (za povoljniji ishod) u sličnim situacijama u kojima se kasnije nađemo u životu. Tako kod odrasle osobe sposobnost generiranja osjećaja pomaže pri planiranju. Osoba stvara "zamišljeno emocionalno pozorište" kako ga nazivaju Mayer i Salovey (1996) u kojem generira, manipulira i provjerava moguće ishode važnih odluka u životu. Što ovo "pozorište radi" tačnije i realističnije, to će više pomagati osobi u pronalaženju boljih alternativa (druga ćelija).

Preostale dvije ćelije opisuju primjere gdje emocije doprinose efikasnijem mišljenju na jednom višem nivou. Tako emocije mogu pomoći osobi da stvari, osobe i događaje posmatra iz različitih perspektiva (treća ćelija).

Često mijenjanje perspektive promatranja zapaženo je kod osoba koje su duže živjele s manično-depresivnim pacijentima, a kao jedan od pokazatelja je da te osobe pokazuju veliku kreativnost u procjeni svojih aktivnosti. Osim toga, eksperimentalno je dokazano da sreća kao indukovano raspoloženje značajno poboljšava uradak u zadacima gdje se traži induktivno rezoniranje i kreativnost, dok kada su indukovana tužna raspoloženja osoba postiže bolji uradak u zadacima koji pretpostavljaju analitičko mišljenje (četvrta ćelija).

C) Razumijevanje i analiziranje emocija: usavršavanje znanja o emocijama

Ubrzo nakon što je počelo prepoznavati emocije dijete ih imenuje i može ih relativno dobro razlikovati. Osim toga, ono emocije počinje razlikovati prema intenzitetu, pa tako ubrzo razlikuje ljutnju od bijesa, ili naklonost od ljubavi (prva ćelija).

Roditelji uče djecu, a kasnije i sama djeca uče povezivati emocije sa situacijama u kojima se javljaju (žalost je povezana s gubitkom nečega). Formalna filozofija o osjećajima se razvijala kroz stoljeća. Tako je Spinoza sram definisao kao "*bol udružena s idejom neke naše akcije, za koju pretpostavljamo da bi mogla izazvati prijekor drugih ljudi*". Ljudi se obično slažu u svojim mišljenjima o tome što izaziva pojedine emocije. Tako se smatra da ljutnja može biti izazvana percepcijom nepravde, zatim da se tuga pojavljuje kao posljedica gubitka, a da strah izaziva prijetnja. Emocionalna znanja se počinju sticati u djetinjstvu i usavršavaju cijeloga života (druga ćelija).

 S razvojem znanja o emocijama dijete uočava da se u nekim sitaucijama mogu istovremeno javiti i suprotne emocije (npr. ljubav i mržnja) prema istoj osobi. Razvija se, takođe, spoznaja da se kombinacijom različitih emocija dobijaju neki novi kvaliteti (npr. nada je spoj vjere i optimizma) (treća ćelija).

 Emocije se najčešće ne pojavljuju izolovane, nego povezane u sklopove zavisno od situacije. Tako ljutnja izražena u nekoj situaciji može rezultirati zadovoljstvom, ali i osjećajem krivnje što sve zavisi od okolnosti (ponekad i od načina izražavanja). Poznavanje toka razvoja osjećajnosti u međuljudskim odnosima je bitan element emocionalne inteligencije (četvrta ćelija).

D)   Refleksivna regulacija emocija u promociji emocionalnog i intelektualnog razvoja

 Najsloženiji nivo emocionalne inteligencije je svjesna regulacija emocija koja vodi emocionalnom i intelektualnom napretku. Jedino ako je osoba svjesna svojih osjećaja može nešto o njima i naučiti. Da bi dijete ili odrasla osoba počela razmišljati o svojim osjećajima, mora biti ispunjen osnovni uslov: potrebno je tolerisati emocionalne reakcije da bi osoba ostala otvorena za svoje osjećaje. Zato najsloženiji nivo emocionalne inteligencije započinje otvorenošću za osjećaje bilo da su ugodni ili neugodni (prva ćelija).

 Kako dijete raste, ono samo uči (ili ga roditelji uče) socijalizaciji emocija, odnosno selektivnom izražavanju emocija zavisno od informacija i prosuđivanja o svrhovitosti, odnosno socijalnim normama. Dijete vremenom uočava da je ponašanje moguće odvojiti od emocija. Roditelji uče djecu nekim "laičkim" načinima kontrole emocija (npr. "kad si ljut broji do deset"). Tako na primjer, razbjesniti se zbog nepravde može koristiti u situaciji kada razmišljamo o situaciji koja je do toga dovela, ali nikako i u samoj situaciji kada je osjećaj bijesa na svom vrhuncu. Posljedica procesa socijalizacije emocija je da emocionalno zrela osoba zbog veće kompetentnosti (samopouzdanja) u različitim situacijama reaguje adekvatnije i "hladne glave". Kasnije, uvid u svoje emocije i energija koju one razvijaju može biti upotrijebljena u procesima mišljenja, pogotovo u dijelu njegovog motivisanja (druga ćelija).

 Osim toga, razvoj pretpostavlja i refleksivnosti odnosno meta-iskustvo o emocijama i raspoloženjima. Osjećaji uključeni u refleksivno iskustvo o svojim raspoloženjima izražavaju se na sljedeći način: "Ne razumijem u potpunosti zbog čega se ovako osjećam", ili "Raspoloženje ima značajnog uticaja na moje mišljenje" (Mayer & Gaschke, 1988; Mayer & Stevens, 1994; Salovey, i dr., 1995). Meta-iskustvo o raspoloženjima moguće je podijeliti u dva procesa: meta-evaluaciju i meta-regulaciju. Evaluacija uključuje procese kao što su: pažnja koju osoba pridaje svojim raspoloženjima, koliko su mu ona jasna, tipična, prihvatljiva i koliki im je uticaj na način mišljenja (treća ćelija).

 Najsloženija sposobnost najsloženijeg nivoa je regulacija svojih emocija i emocija drugih osoba. Ona se odnosi na pokušaje popravljanja loših, a održavanje ugodnih raspoloženja. Zakonitost meta-iskustva nisu dovoljno poznate, uglavnom zbog nedovoljno razvijenog instrumentarija za procjenu. Zbog toga je zanimljivo dalje istraživati ovo područje u njegovim dinamičkim i dispozicijskim kvalitetima. Jedna od značajnih je da emocije valja razumijevati bez prenaglašavanja ili podcjenjivanja njihovog značenja i utjecaja na informacije koje prenose (četvrta ćelija) (V.Takšić, 1998).

 Upitnik emocionalne kompetentnosti smo koristili da bi istražili povezanost emocionalne inteligencije i školskog uspjeha. U poglavlju Rezultati biće detaljno navedeni deskriptivni parametri, kao i analiza čestica pojedinih subskala.

Statistička obrada podataka

Od metoda deskriptivne statistike urađeni su:

2. Prikaz raspodjela frekvencija, tj.frekvencije i procenti koji se odnose na pojedine kategorijalne varijable (nominalni nivo)
3. Prikaz prosječnih vrijednosti, standardna devijacija i medijan kod skalnih vrijednosti za koje se pretpostavlja da su na intervalnom nivou mjerenja
4. Prikaz vrijednosti prosječnih rangova

Od metoda inferencijalne statistike korišteni su

1.1 Indeks zakrivljenosti, indeks spljoštenosti, njihove standardne pogreške za ispitivanje normalnosti raspodjele

1.2 Kolmogorov-Smirnova Z-vrijednost za ispitivanje normalnosti raspodjele

1.3 Hi-kvadrat kada su se testirale razlike u raspodjelama frekvencija prema pojedinim kategorijama nominalnih varijabli sa svije, tri ili više kategorija kao vrijednosti (npr. miuško i žensko)

1.4. Analiza varijance kada su se testirale značajnosti razlika između dvije ili više skupina u vrijednostima na skalama za koje se pretpostavlja da mogu biti intervalnog karaktera (npr. mjesečna primanja između muških i ženskih).

1.5 Levenov test kojim se testira pretpostavka o jednakosti varijance unutar grupa ili varijance pogreške podgrupa

1.6. Boxov test jednaosti elemenata matrice varijance-kovarijance za ANOVA (analizu varijance).

1.7. Mann-Witneyev U-test ili test razlike u rangovima između dvije podskupine

1.8. Kruskal-Wallisov test razlika u rangovima između tri i više podskupina

1.9 Logistička regresija tamo gdje se testirala korelacija i moć redikcije dihotomizirane zavisne varijable školskog uspjeha na osnovu prediktora koji mogu biti ili kontinualni ili dihitimni ao u slučaju ovog rada.

1.10 Point-biserijalni koeficijent korelacije se koristio u situacijama kada su se korelirali dihotomna varijabla sa nekom kontinualnom varijablom.

Rezultati

Razlike među učenicima različitih usmjerenja prema emocionalnoj inteligenciji

Učenici škola različitog usmjerenja se razlikuju po svojoj emocionalnoj inteligenciji (Hipoteza 1)

Cilj nam je da utvrdimo postoje li značajne razlike među učenicima različitih usmjerenja prema emocionalnoj inteligenciji

Ispitivanje razlika između učenika različitih smjerova u školama u vrijednostima na pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetencije (EUK)

Tabela 1.

Prosječne vrijednosti na komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti kod učenika u odnosu na smjerove škola

Zavisna varijabla (Komponenta emocionalne kompetencije)	Skupina (Smjer)	N	Aritmetička sredina	Standardna devijacija
Sposobnost razumijevanja emocija	**Gimnazija**	**371**	**3,7816**	**0,44416**
	Turistički smjer	**376**	**3,7291**	**0,47046**
	Ekonomski smjer	**2**	**3,6944**	**0,74639**
	Ukupno	**775**	**3,7577**	**0,45594**
Sposobnost imenovanja i nabrajanja emocija	**Gimnazija**	**371**	**3,6589**	**0,58719**
	Turistički smjer	**376**	**3,6758**	**0,54504**
	Ekonomski smjer	**2**	**3,5000**	**0,98995**
	Ukupno	**775**	**3,6685**	**0,56575**
Upravljanje emocijama	**Gimnazija**	**371**	**3,8896**	**0,37853**
	Turistički smjer	**376**	**3,8425**	**0,44129**
	Ekonomski smjer	**2**	**3,8235**	**0,24957**
	Ukupno	**775**	**3,8679**	**0,41013**

Tabela 2.

Završna analiza varijance u ispitivanju razlika između učenika različitog usmjerenja u školama a u pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti (EUK)

Izvor varijabiliteta	Zavisna varijabla	Suma kvadrata	Stepen slobode	Varijanca	F-omjer	Nivo značajnosti
Smjer u školi	Sposobnost razumijevanja emocija	0,515	1	0,515	2,461	0,117
	Sposobnost imenovanja i nabrajanja emocija	0,053	1	0,053	0,166	0,684
	Upravljanje emocijama	0,414	1	0,414	2,449	0,118
Unutar grupa	Takmičenje sa drugima	155,995	745	0,209		
	Istrajnost u ostvarivanju ciljeva	238,974	745	0,321		
	Ostvarivanje ciljeva kao izvor zadovoljstva	126,041	745	0,169		
Ukupno	Takmičenje sa drugima	10690,245	747			
	Istrajnost u ostvarivanju ciljeva	10286,061	747			
	Ostvarivanje ciljeva kao izvor zadovoljstva	11290,250	747			

Kako se vidi iz tabele, nijedan F-omjer nije statistički značajan ni na jednom od nivoa značajnosti, te se može zaključiti da nema statistički značajnih razlika između učenika u školama različitih smjerova u vrijednostima na pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti. Ovakav nalaz analize ne govori u prilog potvrdi hipoteze H1.

Tabela 3.

Vrijednosti i nivoi značajnosti Mann-Whitneyevih U-izraza u ispitivanju značajnosti razlika između učenika sa različitim smjerovima u školi a u vrijednostima na pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti

Zavisna varijabla	Mann-Whitneyev U-test	Nivo značajnosti p
Sposobnost razumijevanja emocija	64444,500	0,072
Sposobnost imenovanja i nabrajanja emocija	68395,500	0,646
Upravljanje emocijama	65789,000	0,179

Kako se vidi iz tabele nijedan Mann-Whitneyev U-statistik nije statistički značajan ni na jednom od nivoa značajnosti, pa se može zaključiti da nema značajnih razlika između učenika koji pohađaju različite smjerove u školi u pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti. Ovi rezultati samo potvrđuju one prethodne, dobivene uz pomoć ANOVA-e. Prema tome može se reći da nalazi analize ne potvrđuju hipotezu H1.

Učenici škola različitog usmjerenja se ne razlikuju po svojoj emocionalnoj inteligenciji.

Emocionalna inteligencija učenika i njihovo školsko postignuće

Postoji povezanost emocionalne inteligencije učenika i njihovog školskog postignuća (Hipoteza 2)

Ova hipoteza tvrdi da postoji povezanost emocionalne inteligencije učenika i njihovog školskog uspjeha.

Ispitivanje razlika između učenika sa različitim školskim uspjehom u vrijednostima na komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti EUK

Tabela 4.

Prosječne vrijednosti učenika različitig školskog uspjeha u pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti (Ocjena 1)

Zavisna varijabla	Skupina (Učenici-ocjena 1)	N	Aritmetička sredina	Standardna devijacija
Razumijevanje emocija	**Odlični i vrlo dobri**	**550**	**3,7837**	**0,44053**
	Loši (dobar, dovoljan i nedovoljan)	**225**	**3,6943**	**0,48679**
	Ukupno	**775**	**3,7577**	**0,45594**
Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	**Odlični i vrlo dobri**	**550**	**3,6617**	**0,57312**
	Loši (dobar, dovoljan i nedovoljan)	**225**	**3,6851**	**0,54822**
	Ukupno	**775**	**3,6685**	**0,56575**
Upravljanje emocijama	**Odlični i vrlo dobri**	**550**	**3,8917**	**0,39693**
	Loši (dobar, dovoljan i nedovoljan)	**225**	**3,8097**	**0,43622**
	Ukupno	**775**	**3,8679**	**0,41013**

Boxova M-vrijednost nije statistički značajna (M=8,929 i p=0,180), te se može zaključiti da je zadovoljena pretpostavka o jednakosti varijance pogreške podskupina.

Tabela 5.

Završna analiza varijance u ispitivanu razlika između učenika koji postižu vrlo dobar i odličan uspjeh i onih koji postižu lošiji uspjeh u školi (dobar, dovoljan i nedovoljan) a u vrijednostima na pojedinim skalama emocionalne kompetentnosti EUK (ocjena 1)

Izvor varijabiliteta	Zavisna varijabla	Suma kvadrata	Stepen slobode	Varijanca	F-omjer	Nivo značajnosti
OCJENA1	**Razumijevanje emocija**	**1,275**	**1**	**1,275**	**6,176**	**0,013 ***
	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	**0,087**	**1**	**0,087**	**0,273**	**0,602**
	Upravljanje emocijama	**1,073**	**1**	**1,073**	**6,425**	**0,011 ***
Unutar grupa	**Razumijevanje emocija**	**159,622**	**773**	**0,206**		
	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	**247,648**	**773**	**0,320**		

	Upravljanje emocijama	129,119	773	0,167
	Razumijevanje emocija	11104,381	775	
Ukupno	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	10677,694	775	
	Upravljanje emocijama	11724,431	775	

* F-omjer je statistički značajan na nivou manjem od 5%

Kako to pokazuju rezultati u tabeli ANOVA-e, F-omjeri koji se odnose na zavisne variable „Razumijevanje emocija" i „Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija" su statistički značajni te se može zaključiti da postoje značajne razlike između učenika različitih smjerova u školama u ove dvije komponente emocionalne kompetentnosti.

U prosjeku, odlični i vrlo dobri učenici imaju veće vrijednosti na komponenti „Razumijevanje emocija" (M=3,7837) u odnosu na slabije učenike (M=3,6948). Takođe, odlični i vrlo dobri učenici imaju veće vrijednosti na skali „Upravljanje emocijama" (M=3,8917) u odnosu na ostale učenike (M=3,8097).

Što se tiče komponente „Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija" između ovih podskupina učenika nema statistički značajnih razlika jer kako se i vidi iz tabele F-omjer nije statistički značajan.

Na osnovu rezultata ove analize može se zaključiti da ovi nalazi većim dijelom potvrđuju hipotezu H2.

Tabela 6.

Završna analiza varijance u ispitivanju razlika između učenika koji postižu vrlo dobar i odličan uspjeh i onih koji postižu lošiji uspjeh u školi (dobar, dovoljan i nedovoljan) a u vrijednostima na pojedinim skalama emocionalne kompetentnosti EUK (ocjena 2)

Izvor varijabiliteta	Zavisna varijabla	Suma kvadrata	Stepen slobode	Varijanca	F-omjer	Nivo značajnosti
	Razumijevanje emocija	0,305	1	0,305	1,466	0,226
OCJENA 2	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	0,002	1	0,002	0,006	0,937
	Upravljanje emocijama	0,836	1	0,836	4,997	0,026 *
	Razumijevanje emocija	160,593	773	0,208		
Unutar grupa	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	247,734	773	0,320		
	Upravljanje emocijama	129,356	773	0,167		
	Razumijevanje emocija	11104,381	775			
Ukupno	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	10677,694	775			
	Upravljanje emocijama	11724,431	775			

* F-omjer je statistički značajan na nivou manjem od 5%

Kako se iz gornje tabele vidi jedini statistički značajan F-omjer je onaj koji se odnosi na varijablu „Upravljanje emocijama".

U kontekstu prikaza prosječnih vrijednosti može se zaključiti da odlični i vrlo dobri učenici imaju veće vrijednosti na ovoj komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti (M=3,8885) u odnosu na lošije učenike (M=3,8155). U ostalim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti nijesu utvrđene značajne razlike te se može zaključiti da nalazi analize samo djelimično potvrđuju hipotezu H2.

Tabela 7.

Završna analiza varijance u ispitivanu razlika između učenika koji postižu vrlo dobar i odličan uspjeh i onih koji postižu lošiji uspjeh u školi (dobar, dovoljan i nedovoljan) a u vrijednostima na pojedinim skalama emocionalne kompetentnosti EUK (ocjena 3)

Izvor varijabiliteta	Zavisna varijabla	Suma kvadrata	Stepen slobode	Varijanca	F-omjer	Nivo značajnosti
OCJENA 3	Razumijevanje emocija	1,311	1	1,311	6,351	0,012 *
	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	0,221	1	0,221	0,691	0,406
	Upravljanje emocijama	0,611	1	0,611	3,644	0,057
Unutar grupa	Razumijevanje emocija	159,586	773	0,206		
	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	247,514	773	0,320		
	Upravljanje emocijama	129,581	773	0,168		
Ukupno	Razumijevanje emocija	11104,381	775			
	Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	10677,694	775			
	Upravljanje emocijama	11724,431	775			

* F-omjer je statistički značajan na nivou manjem od 5%

Kako se može vidjeti iz tabele gore, F-omjer koji je statistički značajan odnosi se na zavisnu varijablu „Razumijevanje emocija".

U prosjeku, odlični i vrlo dobri učenici imaju veće vrijednosti na ovoj komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti (M=3,7822) u odnosu na dobre, dovoljne i nedovoljne učenike (M=3,6887). U ostalim komponentama nema značajnih razlika između podskupina učenika sa različitim školskim uspjehom.

I ovi nalazi analize samo djelimično govore u prilog potvrdi hipoteze H2.
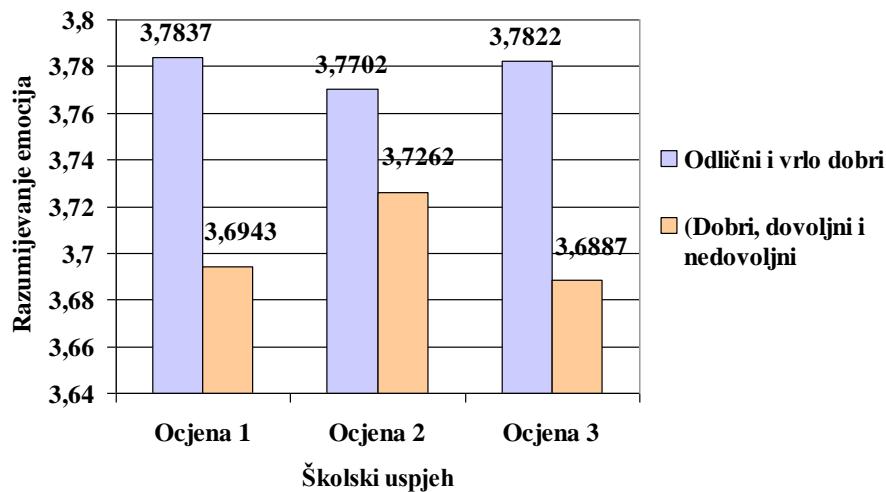
Grafikon 1. Prosječne vrijednosti učenika različitog školskog uspjeha na varijabli „Razumijevanje emocija" a s obzirom na različite ocjene školskog uspjeha

Kako se vidi iz grafikona, učenici sa boljim uspjehom imaju veće vrijednosti na komponenti „Razumijevanje emocija" kod sve tri ocjene školskog uspjeha. Međutim, značajno se razlikuju u tim vrijednostima samo kod ocjena 1 i 3.
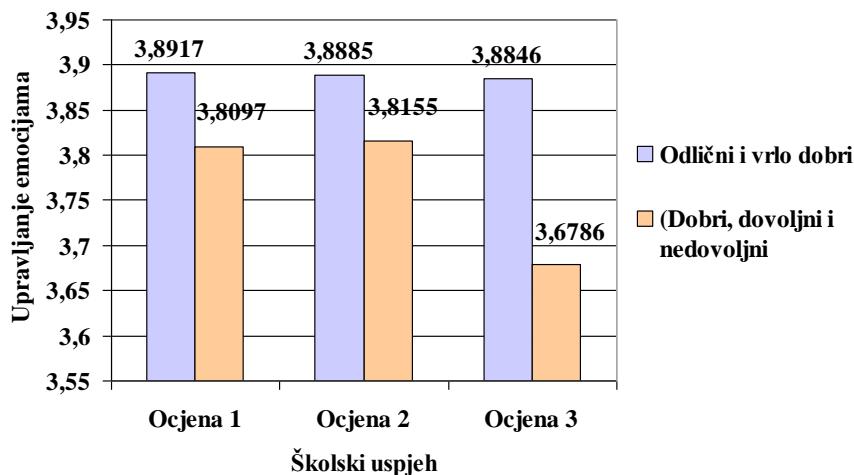
Grafikon 2. Prosječne vrijednosti učenika različitog školskog uspjeha na varijabli „Upravljanje emocijama" a s obzirom na različite ocjene školskog uspjeha

Iz grafikona se vidi da bolji učenici imaju veće vrijednosti na komponenti „Upravljanje emocijama" kod sve tri ocjene školskog uspjeha.

Međutim, značajna razlika između učenika različitog školskog uspjeha je utvrđena samo kada su u pitanju ocjena 1 i ocjena 2.

Na osnovu dosadašnjih analiza, može se zaključiti da je hipoteza H 2 potvrđena ali ne u svakom svojem segmentu. Naime, postojanje značajnih razlika u pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti zavisi i od ocjene, tj. kriterija uspjeha u školi. Kada je u pitanju ocjena 1, razlike su identificirane na komponentama „Razumijevanje emocija" i „Upravljanje emocijama". Kada je u pitanju ocjena 2 kao kriterij školskog uspjeha, pokazalo se da se učenici razlikuju na komponenti „Upravljanje emocijama" dok kod ocjene 3 razlika je utvrđena na komponenti „Razumijevanje emocija". Međutim, na sve tri komponente odlični i vrlo dobri učenici su imali veće vrijednosti u odnosu na dobre, dovoljne i nedovoljne.

Budući da su rezultati na pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti značajno odstupali od normaliteta, što je i prigovor za korištenje ANOVA-e, analize su ponovljene uz pomoć neparametrijskog Mann-Whitneyevog testa. Rezultati analize su prikazani u narednom dijelu.

Tabela 8.

Prikaz vrijednosti i nivoi značajnosti point-biserijalnih koeficijenata korelacije između vrijednosti emocionalne kompetentnosti i školskog uspjeha

Uspjeh Dimenzije emocionalne kompetentnosti		Ocjena 1	Ocjena 2	Ocjena 3
Razumijevanje emocija	Korelacija	0,089	0,044	0,090
	Značajnost	0,013 *	0,226	0,012 *
Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	Korelacija	-0,019	-0,003	0,030
	Značajnost	0,602	0,937	0,406
Upravljanje emocijama	Korelacija	0,091	0,080	0,068
	Značajnost	0,011 *	0,026 *	0,057

* korelacija je statistički značajna na nivou manjem od 5%

Kako se iz tabele može vidjeti, postoji značajna korelacija komponente „Razumijevanje emocija „ sa sve tri ocjene školskog uspjeha. Korelacije su pozitivne, što znači da su veće vrijednosti na ovoj komponenti povezane sa višom ocjenom školskog uspjeha. Korelacija je značajna za sve tri ocjene školskog uspjeha. Takođe, kada su u pitanju ocjene 1 i 2, utvrđena je značajna korelacija ovih ocjena sa komponentom "Upravljanje emocijama". Ovi nalazi su prilično konzistentni sa prethodnim neparametrijskim i parametrijskim analizama.

Na kraju može se zaključiti da postoji povezanost nekih komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti sa nekim kriterijima školskog uspjeha.

Tabela 9.

Prikaz vrijednosti i nivoi značajnosti point-biserijalni koeficijenata korelacije između vrijednosti komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti i školskog uspjeha a u odnosu na pol

Dimenzije emocionalne kompetentnosti	Uspjeh Pol		Ocjena 1	Ocjena 2	Ocjena 3
Razumijevanje emocija	Muški	Korelacija	0,068	0,049	0,062
		Značajnost	0,234	0,395	0,278
	Ženski	Korelacija	-0,013	0,044	0,035
		Značajnost	0,818	0,439	0,542
Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija	Muški	Korelacija	0,090	0,093	0,095
		Značajnost	0,116	0,104	0,099
	Ženski	Korelacija	0,058	-0,006	0,093
		Značajnost	0,206	0,899	0,044 *
Upravljanje emocijama	Muški	Korelacija	-0,048	-0,063	0,017
		Značajnost	0,301	0,170	0,709
	Ženski	Korelacija	0,073	0,052	0,041

	Značajnost	0,114	0,258	0,370

* korelacija je statistički značajna na nivou manjem od 5%

Kako se može vidjeti iz gornje interkorelacione matrice samo je jedna statistički značajna korelacija i to između komponente „Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija" i ocjene 3 školskog uspjeha. Korelacija je pozitivna, što znači da je veća vrijednost na ovoj komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti povezana sa boljim školskim uspjehom.

Ova korelacija je utvrđena na skupini žena ali ne i muškaraca, te postoje indicije moderirajućeg efekta pola na ovu povezanost. Budući da značajne korelacije i moderirajući efekti pola nisu utvrđeni na ostalim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti i kod ostalih ocjena školskog uspjeha, može se zaključiti da je hipoteza H2 jednim dijelom potvrđena.

Naša hipoteza da postoji povezanost emocionalne inteligencije učenika i njihovog školskog postignuća je većim dijelom potvrđena.

Uglavnom komponente razumijevanja i upravljanja emocijama su povezane sa boljim školskim uspjehom.

U istraživanju u sklopu ovog rada utvrđena je značajna veza između upravljanja emocijama i samog školskog uspjeha.

Diskusija

S obzirom na dobijene rezultate analize podataka u istraživanju sprovedenom u sklopu ovoga rada, možemo izvesti određene zaključke.

1. Naša hipoteza da se *učenici škola različitog usmjerenja razlikuju po svojoj emocionalnoj inteligenciji nije potvrđena.*
2. Učenici se nijesu značajno razlikovali u nijednoj od komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti.
3. Hipoteza da *postoji povezanost emocionalne inteligencije učenika i njihovog školskog postignuća* je većim dijelom potvrđena.

Utvrđeno je da postoji povezanost nekih komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti sa nekim kriterijima, tj. ocjenama školskog uspjeha. Uglavnom komponente „Razumijevanje emocija" i „ Upravljanje emocijama" su povezane sa boljim školskim uspjehom.

Ispitivanjem korelacije između vrijednosti komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti i školskog uspjeha a u odnosu na pol utvrđena je statistički značajna korelacija između komponente „Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija" i ocjene 3 školskog uspjeha. Korelacija je pozitivna što znači da je veća vrijednost na ovoj komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti povezana sa boljim školskim uspjehom. Ova korelacija je utvrđena na skupini ispitanika ženskog pola, ali ne i kod ispitanika muškog pola, te postoje indicije moderirajućeg efekta pola na ovu povezanost. Budući da značajne korelacije i moderirajući efekti pola nijesu utvrđeni na ostalim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti i kod ostalih ocjena školskog uspjeha, može se zaključiti da je hipoteza manjim dijelom potvrđena.

Zaključak

Nema značajnih razlika između učenika koji pohađaju različite smjerove u školi u pojedinim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti, pa možemo zaključiti da se učenici različitog usmjerenja ne razlikuju po svojoj emocionalnoj inteligenciji.

Postoji povezanost školskog uspjeha i emocionalne inteligencije učenika u nekim segmentima. Učenici sa različitim školskim uspjehom se značajno razlikuju u komponentama: „Razumijevanje emocija" i „Upravljanje emocijama". Učenici sa odličnim i vrlo dobrim uspjehom imaju bolje razumijevanje emocija i uspješnije upravljanje emocijama za razliku od učenika sa lošijim uspjehom.

Ispitivanjem korelacije između vrijednosti komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti i školskog uspjeha a u odnosu na pol utvrđena je statistički značajna korelacija između komponente „Imenovanje i nabrajanje emocija" i ocjene 3 školskog uspjeha. Korelacija je pozitivna što znači da je veća vrijednost na ovoj komponenti emocionalne kompetentnosti povezana sa boljim školskim uspjehom. Ova korelacija je utvrđena na skupini ispitanika ženskog pola, ali ne i kod ispitanika muškog pola, te postoje indicije moderirajućeg efekta pola na ovu povezanost. Budući da značajne korelacije i moderirajući efekti

pola nijesu utvrđeni na ostalim komponentama emocionalne kompetentnosti i kod ostalih ocjena školskog uspjeha, može se zaključiti da je hipoteza manjim dijelom potvrđena.

Riggio (1986) sposobnost percepcije, poznavanja i razumijevanja emocija određuje kao vještinu primanja i razumijevanja neverbalnih poruka, što znači da osobe izraženih vještina obraćaju veću pažnju na neverbalne znakove iz okoline i da su sposobne brzo i tačno interpretirati emocionalne poruke.

Sposobnost percepcije i razumijevanja emocija povezana je s empatijom, zadovoljstvom života i opštom inteligencijom, dok su razvijenije sposobnosti upravljanja svojim i tuđim emocijama osnova emocionalne kompetentnosti. Upravljanje emocijama je najsloženija sposobnost u modelu emocionalne inteligencije, koja uključuje sposobnost održavanja pozitivnih i popravljanja negativnih (svojih i tuđih) raspoloženja.

Kako sposobnost upravljanja emocijama pokazuje visoku povezanost sa samopoštovanjem i percepcijom lične (ne)kompetentnosti, ona je važna u razvoju emocionalnog samopoimanja osobe, koje je uz akademsko, socijalno i tjelesno jedna od konstitutivnih komponenti opšteg samopoimanja. Osim toga, sposobnost upravljanja svojim i tuđim emocijama od svih ispitivanih varijabli samopoimanja i socijalnih vještina pokazala se kao daleko najbolji prediktor zadovoljstva životom. Sve navedeno daje dovoljno argumenata i o važnosti ove sposobnosti u životu pojedinca.

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Ovo nije test kojim ispitujemo Vaše znanje i zato ne možete dati pogrešan odgovor. Zanima nas kako se obično osjećate i kako razmišljate. Na postavljena pitanja odgovarajte po prvom utisku (osjećaju) i nemojte previše razmišljati o njima.

*Odgovarat ćete koliko se ponuđene tvrdnje **odnose na Vas** i to zaokruživanjem jednoga od brojeva koji imaju sljedeće značenje:*

1 - uopšte NE

2 - uglavnom NE
3 - kako kada
4 - uglavnom DA

5 - u potpunosti DA

Tvrdnja	Uopšte ne	Uglavnom ne	Kako kada	Uglavnom da	U potpunosti da
Dobro raspoloženje mogu zadržati i ako mi se nešto loše dogodi.	1	2	3	4	5
Gotovo uvijek mogu riječima opisati svoje osjećaje i emocije.	1	2	3	4	5
I kada je moja okolina loše raspoložena, mogu zadržati dobro raspoloženje.	1	2	3	4	5
Iz neugodnih iskustava učim kako se ubuduće ne treba ponašati.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada me netko pohvali (nagradi), radim s više elana.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada mi nešto ne odgovara, to odmah i pokažem.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada mi se neka osoba ne sviđa, nađem načina da joj to pokažem.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada sam dobro raspoložen, teško me je oneraspoložiti.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada sam dobrog raspoloženja svaki mi se problem čini lako rješiv.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada sam s osobom koja me cijeni, pazim kako se ponašam.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada se osjećam sretno i raspoloženo, tada najbolje učim i pamtim.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada se zainatim, riješit ću i naizgled nerješiv problem.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada sretnem poznanika, odmah shvatim kako je raspoložen.	1	2	3	4	5
Kada vidim kako se netko osjeća, obično znam što mu se dogodilo.	1	2	3	4	5
Kod prijatelja mogu razlikovati kada je tužan, a kada razočaran.	1	2	3	4	5
Lako ću smisliti način da priđem osobi koja mi se sviđa.	1	2	3	4	5
Lako mogu nabrojiti emocije koje trenutno doživim.	1	2	3	4	5
Lako primijetim promjenu raspoloženja svoga prijatelja.	1	2	3	4	5
Lako se mogu domisliti kako obradovati prijatelja kojem idem na rođendan.	1	2	3	4	5
Lako uvjerim prijatelja da nema razloga za zabrinutost.	1	2	3	4	5
Mogu dobro izraziti svoje emocije.	1	2	3	4	5
Mogu opisati kako se osjećam.	1	2	3	4	5
Mogu opisati svoje sadašnje stanje.	1	2	3	4	5
Mogu reći da znam puno o svom emocionalnom stanju.	1	2	3	4	5
Mogu točno odrediti emocije neke osobe ako je promatram u društvu.	1	2	3	4	5
Mogu zapaziti kada se netko osjeća bespomoćno.	1	2	3	4	5
Moje ponašanje odražava moje unutarnje osjećaje.	1	2	3	4	5
Na meni se uvijek vidi kakvog sam raspoloženja.	1	2	3	4	5
Nastojim ublažiti neugodne emocije, a pojačati pozitivne.	1	2	3	4	5
Nema ništa loše u tome kako se obično osjećam.	1	2	3	4	5
Obaveze ili zadatke radije odmah izvršim, nego da o njima mislim.	1	2	3	4	5
Obično razumijem zašto se loše osjećam.	1	2	3	4	5
Pokušavam održati dobro raspoloženje.	1	2	3	4	5
Prema izrazu lica mogu prepoznati nečija osjećanja.	1	2	3	4	5
Prepoznajem prikrivenu ljubomoru kod svojih prijatelja.	1	2	3	4	5
Primijetim kada netko nastoji prikriti loše raspoloženje.	1	2	3	4	5
Primijetim kada netko osjeća krivnju.	1	2	3	4	5
Primijetim kada netko prikriva svoje prave osjećaje.	1	2	3	4	5
Primijetim kada se netko osjeća potišteno.	1	2	3	4	5
Što se mene tiče, potpuno je u redu ovako se osjećati.	1	2	3	4	5
Uglavnom mi je bilo lako izraziti simpatije osobi suprotnog spola.	1	2	3	4	5
Uočim kada se netko ponaša različito od onoga kako je raspoložen.	1	2	3	4	5
Većinu svojih osjećaja lako mogu imenovati.	1	2	3	4	5
Većinu svojih osjećaja mogu prepoznati.	1	2	3	4	5

Local Public Sphere for Discursive Public Service in Indonesia: Habermas Perspective

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Abstract

Democracy is an important issue in the practice of public administration. Until the contemporary situation, democracy is a process that is constantly maintained to accommodate public aspirations. In the context of the democratic process, local public services could be determined by opening the deliberative public sphere and increasing public participation to think together what public services to be provided. This paper is an effort to explore the challenges, opportunities and possibilities of the terms of the acceptable public services for more stakeholders in Indonesia. In contrast to the practice of citizen charters that tend monologue in determining the services contract, the idea of local public sphere, public organization opens dialogue with all stakeholders including the public service users. Habermas's thought about public sphere be an inspiration in building the model of discursive public services. Historically, Indonesia has actually alreay had a concept of "musyawarah mufakat" (consensus) that is similar to deliberative democracy. Therefore, the prospect to create the public service policy that formulated together is possible. To open the possibility the theory into praxis, then the adaptation of Habermas's thought is formulated on a local scale, namely in the regions in Indonesia. Here, public sphere articulated with media or forum for all elements stakeholders for discussion and deliberation in defining public services. Now days with the development of technology, the opportunities will open widely. Beside to modernize and simplify the structure of the service process, technology can facilitate access to interact between the government and the public to create discursive public services.

Key words: Democracy, Habermas, Local Public Sphere, Public Service

Introduction

Public service is an important part that can't be separated from the social life between public and the state. Quality of public services provided can be a parameter level of the organization of the governance. Indonesian people has a bad history of public services quality in the New Order (Orde Baru) regime, which the worst bureaucracy momentum in Indonesia. After the New Order regime in 1998 cave, goverment made some efforts to improves in public services. But there is an interesting note, the results of research conducted Agus Dwiyanto et al (2002) which shows the performance of the public service performed by the bureaucracy after reformation era are not many experiencing significant changes. Accountability, responsiveness, and efficiency in public services is still low. In the contemporary situation, the practice of corruption is still dominant in the body of the government bureaucracy. According to Indonesia Corruption Watch (ICW) in 2014 increased by 12% the amount of corruption from the previous year as many as 560 cases of alleged corruption (The Wall Street Journal, 2015). This indicates that Indonesia can't be free from the old disease, called corruption.

The survey results integrity KPK shows that public service quality Indonesia recently reached the score becomes 6.84 from 10 to central institutions, and 6.69 for unit public services in the region. The score integrity in characteristic quality in public services, such as whether there exists a bribe, there is whether this process of naming a Standar Operating Procedur (SOP) the similarity service with SOP that is, information, justice and service speed and simplified public complaint (Direktorat Aparatur Negara: 2010).

Public services are closely related to the implementation of good governance. Kaufman (in Kumorotomo, 2007) conducted a survey in hundreds of countries shows elements of good governance, among others fulfill the political rights of citizens, the state's ability to control bureaucratic corruption, make conducive regulations, and the ability in public service. Than it is in line with the spirit of New Public Service paradigm initiated by Denhart and Denhart (2003) on the importance of the role of democracy in the administration and public service organizations. Especially after decentralization began, local governments have to compete to perform and make initiation of reforms in the public service according with the public voice.

Public services is not living in a vacuum, it dialectically necessary adaptive to the spirit of the age. Ideally it is not time for ABS (*Asal Bapak Senang* [The Important thing is the boss happy) typical New Order bureaucracy. Public organizations must not provide services to the leaders but fulfill the constitutional rights of public as citizens. But unfortunately the reality shows different things. The process of public services that the government is still addressing the people as passive costumer that limit citizens partisipation (Maani, 2010). People are marginalised of their own rights. Many medias in Indonesia report in some local areas there are people who refused treatment by the hospital. This is certainly an irony, amid calls for democracy in the services, people just do not have sovereignty to access public services.

To encourage quality of public services, some local goverments initiated adopt citizen charters as a form of contractual agreement in the standardization of public services. Obviously, it needs to be appreciated as an important innovation in the implementation of public services in Indonesia. Citizen charters put service users as the most important element. Therefore public organizations as service providers invite stakeholders and users to dialogue together define the various procedures and service standards, including the rights and obligations of the various stakeholders.

Citizen charter was first introduced in England in the time of Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher led government. In this case it is better we need to understand the context of the current political economic policy Thatcher became prime minister. For Thatcher no such thing as society there are only individuals. The premise of Thatcher thought is a free market economy. Then some of the critics gave the title as *neoliberal*. Thatcher believes the market will work efficiently if left free. Policies that were made since it first became Prime Minister in 1979 was highly controversial, such as financial deregulation, free markets, low taxes, and block all the trade union movement at the time. So the idea of citizen charter can not be separated from the context of the rationale of the "iron lady". Borrowing explanation Gaster (1995: 100), citizen charters only focused approach to the relationship between service providers and individuals as users. Citizen charter is basically a social contract between the bureaucracy and the customer that can ensure quality of service. Assumptions in this charter advocating citizen as a user in the service rather than as members of the organic community. Relationships is between the provider-user, the consequences of participation which opened not emancipatory. In this paper, the authors trying to deconstruct the idea of the citizen charter and give antithesis of it. The authors use Habermas thought about public sphere which opens up the possibility of a more emancipatory society involvement.

Method

In a systematic, the method used in this paper is library research and content. analysis. Data was collected find secondary data and information dissemination of scientific meeting

Result and Discussion

Some local areas in Indonesia have started doing inovations citizen charters in the implementation of public services. Especially in some areas of Central Java and East Java. As a new approach, it is certainly worthy of appreciation. But epistemologically, the concept of citizen charters low relevance to the spirit of mutual cooperation *(gotongroyong)* is typical of Indonesian society. As alluded earlier, the citizen charter presupposes a provider-user relationship. In other words, society is only the user, consequently the power of emancipatory is low. The spirit of citizen charter relevant to the development paradigm of public administration as New Public Management (NPM) or other designations market-based public administration, the post-bureaucratic paradigm and entrepreneurial government. Terms were basically describes the phenomenon is an alternative for the way traditionalbureaucracyin conducting business public (Denhardt and Denhardt: 2003).

Osborne and Gaebler (1992) summarizes their approach in some dictum; Government directs that acts as a catalyst rather than rowing the organization; Government belongs to the people who gave the authority rather than the servicing; Competitive government inject competition in the provision of services; Government driven by the mission rather than the rule; Results-oriented government.

As an alternative idea in the development discourse paradigm of public administration, NPM has a novelty that needs to be appreciated, but in the context of social public services, this was a problem is. Discuss this issue it is worth referring Denhardt and Denhardt on the concept of New Public Service (NPS). NPS is one of the roots of the theory of democratic citizenship. In theory democratic citizenship, governments have an obligation to ensure the rights of individual citizens

through various procedures. Denhardt and Denhardt said, "The role of government is to the make sure that the interplay of individual self-interest operates freely and fairly. Which, then citizens involved in government policy determinations. In that spirit, borrowing a phrase Mansbridge (1994), they referred to as "public spirit". On the important point is where the public service as a derivative of the emancipatory public services.

Public service is an important issue how to discourse about government and public relations. In NPS, Public services that are carried out did not place its citizens only customers such as the paradigm NPM. Citizens is a fundamental state which government is responsible for ensuring various interests of their needs. Denhradt and Denhradt said that citizens not only "customer", but the "owner". The citizens is not as customers who choose things according their have been willing. In contrast, the citizens of demanding that the government provides something that according to them is important. On the other hand the government is generally responsible to the citizens as a constituent; Not to the "customers" are confined to their personal interests only. And finally the main orientation of the state is not profit or citizen satisfaction, but is accountable as a public organization regulated by law.

Public Services and Local Government

The quality of public services in every area are different according to the nature of the society. Moreover, with the condition of Indonesian society that is plural, it will present a different public services depends on the uniqueness of each. In this case Hoessein (2001: 5) explains:

> "Given the diverse conditions of the local society, the local government and local autonomy will be diverse as well. Thus the function of decentralization (devolution) to accommodate the aspirations of the plurality of local society will also be diverse. Decentralization (devolution) gave political variety and structural variety to deliver local voice and local choice. "

Reviewing Hoessein explanation in advance, the goal of decentralization to improve the quality of public services within the framework of this democratic model should really uphold the values of democracy and independence that is rooted in local society. Through their representatives, the public can determine the expected service quality criteria in various fields: education, health, transportation, economic, social, cultural, and others. The citizens can determine areas of service that need to be given priority; how to determine the priority; by whom and where services were provided; how to care effectively, efficiently, representing the public needs and interests, and many other criteria that need to be explained. Hence the determination of all of these criteria in a model of democracy is determined society itself. It is certainly not easy and is highly dependent on changes in vision, mission, strategy, and implementation of the local government in making government policy. So far, there is a tendency that quality of public services is determined by the government or institution that provides services, not co-between provider with the user, customer, client, or citizen as community service users; which reflects democracy and independence.

Public Services and Habermas Perspective

Public Service rates relations between the government and the socaiety. Among These relationships are known as a public participation or community involvement in public policy and government role in public policy, which is in its development, public participation or community involvement was continued to experience the development and changes from time to time. E. Vigoda, as quoted by Subando Agus Margono (in Kumorotomo: 2010) revealed that evolutionary process took place in the context interaction between public administration and the society. She describes the process of initial evolution, where the position citizens as subjects and public administration as rulers, move to as citizens voters and public administration as trustees, then shift more to as citizens clients/costumer and public administration as managers, and for the next citizens as partners and public administration as partners, finally, citizens place on as and public administration as subjects.

Jurgen Habermas, a social scientist second generation critical Frankfurt School, offered about democracy deliberative. Habermas criticized his predecessor who understand rationalisation (Marxian) only as approach reaffirms safety. In fact, Hegel's concept divided into two parts: approach reaffirms so work and communication.

The backgorund of his thoughts is pessimism of Western rationalism in capitalism society. In capitalism age, the ratio just means dominatif through the work just for economic and instinc.

Borrowing the term J. F. Lyotard also observed in a postmodern, which can be a way out of deadlocked modern man in capitalism age is emacipatory communication. Communication that is not master-servant, co-equal, but free from the domination to become the basic deliberatif democracy. Then he actualizes communication in humanity, in the concept of public sphere. Democracy deliberative is derivation the concept of public space in political theory.

In a simple, democracy deliberative is marked with a space to confide, of origin, or criticism of the entire elements of the people, no compromise, in order that all humanity can be absorbed by political system and economic or economic-politics. He dreamed that communicative power through the public networking communication civil society has been created. Policy no longer monopolised by the elitist, both state or even the owner of financial capital, "wild" discourses happens in the society can affect the construction of public services that are required for public.

Locus of Habermas thought is capitalism age Eastern Europe or America. But it does not mean the mindset does not apply to the context of Indonesia. Moreover, Indonesia has pancasila as the basic for democracy. Pancasila democracy to prioritize mutual agreement, and so have common point with democracy deliberative. Democracy deliberative give priority to use how to decision-making that emphasizes deliberation and excavations problems through dialog and exchange experience between public.

Open Public Sphere

Community or society involvement in participate is the core of deliberative democracy. Deliberative democracy is different with representative democracy, which today applied in Indonesia, which in fact it's just procedural democracy. Public services in the local had a big opportunity in opening the public sphere for discurssive public services. Public Service which is produced from multi-stakeholders, and the most important thing is emansipatory community involvement as the "owner".

The idea of emansipatory community involvement refers to process of communication and decision-making process (to achieve a consensus) in the process of formulation public services, in which the participants will be urged to make communication process in the open, and using approach conference in reach an agreement that values the majority and minority opinions. Practice of the process of drafting public policy or pub;lic service must advance principle of equal and openness in the process so that it is able to process conference that's fair.

Through the balance in the right and authority from the experts or professional, bureaucracy, the commission legislative, and community in the dialog forum, it will create communication is equal. For example, when there is a side which is not yet agreed to, say society or community, the public forum process could not be continued and a deal with a high standard of services public not to be able to be approved by government officials. Here, there is a balance power relations, which in turn will push orientation of the participants forum to propose togetherness, or things that larger from self-interest and group-interest.

Jurgen Habermas's thought about action communicative and consciousness consensus-oriented to become the basis analysis in this paper, in which Habermas considered that communication process should equal in order to achieve an agreement to be able to received all stakeholders, or in other words, Habermas see social integration can only be achieved through the process action communicative that achieve consensus. In this case, Habermas (1984) explains that action communicative should be explained as,

> "…reach understanding [verstandigung] is considered to be a process of reaching agreement [einigung] among speaking and acting subjects… it has to be accepted or presupposed as valid by participants… a communicatively achieved agreement has a rational basis; it cannot be imposed by either party, whether instrumentally through intervention in the situation directly or strategically through influencing the decision of opponents…"

Through a mutual understanding between subject or partisan forum in a communicative can be accomplished. But when there is forcing and lies, and action communicative change just to action and strategic instrumental that will not lead to a consensus, but self-control and to fulfill the goals of self-interest. As explained earlier, implicitly public sphere function significantly, is as a room where public opinion that an authentic and critical of the political and economic power in order to

achieve the balance and social equity, can be formed and spread to all citizens, as well as pressurer against forms manipulation public sphere. The manipulation public sphere is that must be monitored by the participants in the dialog forum.

The process of making citizen charter today, in which the society can only be placed in a position that can only give criticism or input, but not created equality. This condition is only process of communication that created-oriented instrumental or strategic, so the public service standards and then it was cretaed is not a product of consensus, but instrumental or strategic pro-self-interest or interests of a number of stakeholders. In other words it was called as manipulation public sphere. So, to ensure holding action communicative in forums formulation of making public service standards, so each participant, whether it's bureaucracy, experts and society must be guaranteed by regulation regarding rights and authority in the forum will equal.

In the context of local public sphere for discursive public service, the first thing that has to be done is revitalizing public sphere. In the current situation, the role of local government more dominant of providing public service. In fact the public also have the same potential as possible to provide public service. Other sectors should continue to precious things, not even be removed, local government because of limited public services to give to the public. Public needs is constantly growing, both quantity and quality, and will not be met by the local government fully. Thus, local government should consider an alternative that supports developing other sectors outside of the Government. Thus the local government should become a facilitator in opening local public sphere for the public to the freedom and autonomy the participants. Public sphere can be implemented a free press, a political party, freedom intelligent person, freedom, freedom to grasp that people freedom demonstrated, freedom in his defense, freedom defended the community, regional autonomy, independence, and justice system of law (Saefullah : 2000).

Local public sphere can be articulated in the form mutual consultation or construct media with all the elements stakeholders, both in the form material or immaterial. In the material thing that could have been attempted is by holding dialog together with all stakeloders like local government and community or society representatives to consults from procedures, service duration and service cost (if needed). Action communicative must continue to be continually encouraged to a consensus is achieved.

Decision in forum for dialog which will be done in local public sphere is then taken to government policy government policy of standard public services. So the process needs analysis of public services is no longer will be done only by the technocrats, but all the stakeholders involved directly.

The public service which is maked by mutual agreement is very different from the role technocrats model because analysts or experts only as a facilitator for the public find their own decisions theirself. This process can simplified as follows:
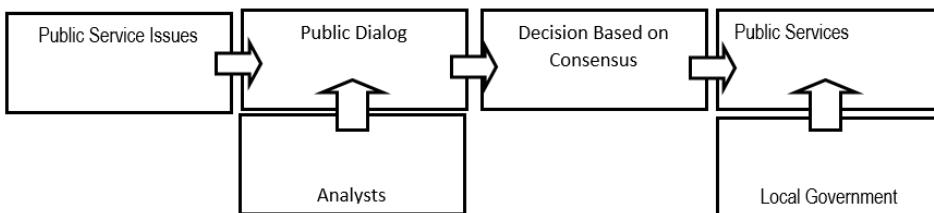
Source: Adaption from Nugroho (2012)

The role of government here more as a legislator of "public willing". While the role of the analysts or experts could be processor of the process of public dialog order to make public services that it was agreed by consensus. This model is well-known in Indonesia as *musyawarah mufakat*. In the villages in the past every decision always maked by the public, a resident of the village, then consults, and achieved consensus. This agreement which is referred to as a discursive public service.

Then, the development of technology today will open more width of the gate deliberative democracy for discursive public service. In addition to modernize the structure and simplifies process service, the technology can make it easier access interaction between the government and the public to create the public service diskursif. For example through the social media line with the real time, or through informatics system that enough, the government can hear many opinion directly

from the society. Consequence of the open local public sphere apparatus need to have more emphatic, because later public service is not only contract but a consensus (*musyawarah mufakat*).

Conclusion

Habermas offers agenda to revitalise public sphere with how to start the process on efforts formation of a consensus rational together and emphasis on public opinion which are critical. The idea local public sphere is expected to public opinion was later will influence the decision-making process of public service standards. The role of government in local public sphere as a legislator of "public willing". While the role technocrats, analysts or experts only as a facilitator for the public find their own decisions theirself. This model is well-known in Indonesia as *musyawarah mufakat*. The discursive public service that has been formulated together with all the stakeholders hopes will be the standard public services that more qualified and humanist and socially equitable.

As culturally-embeded social practice, public sphere in daily life becomes a local-to-day activities. Therefore the communities or society can directly control the quality of public services provided by the government. The presence various technology can be carrying capacity of local public sphere that was built, to modernize the structure and simplifies process service, and make it easier access interaction between the government and the public to create discursive public services.

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A New Pathway towards Retirement Preparation: Integration of Holistic Life Planning

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Abstract

This is a concept paper to review the needs of holistic life planning as a new pathway towards retirement preparation. It is based on the review of literature on the importance of this knowledge to fulfil individual successful planning and preparation for retirement. It includes the review on a planning process theory by Friedman and Scholnick (1997) which provides the basis for generation of retirement preparation. Meanwhile Hansen's Integrative Live Planning (ILP) theory is embedded within the theoretical framework to help better understanding on the domains of planning and preparation for retirement. The purpose is to develop a theoretical model for measuring employees' retirement preparation in government organizations. The primary problem in retirement preparation is the lack of theory to show the development of retirement preparation process. Although prior research has theories explained on retirement thoughts, behaviors, attitudes or goals undertaken to fulfill the retirement preparation, none of it measures applied in the studies were established to directly test the theories according to the process and development of retirement. According to the process theory, individuals acquire an understanding of the problem, goals will be set in making a decision to start preparing and finally behaviors is considered necessary to fulfil the goals (Noone et al., 2009). This raises intriguing questions: What factors influence retirement preparation? Which stages in retirement planning and preparation require intervention and support? (Noone et al., 2009) Which domain in life is significant to retirement preparation? The theory is discussed throughout the paper in the context of the needs of retirement preparation. This paper would be useful for policy makers, practitioners and employees in considering their own retirement preparation for future well-being.

Keywords: Retirement Preparation, Retirement Planning, Hansen's Integrative Life Planning (ILP), A process theory of planning, Retirement Domains.

1.0   Introduction

To prepare or not to prepare? This seems a straightforward question that anyone who is employed should be able to understand and answer. But what does it actually mean? The message that is given to individuals from the moment the term itself, 'retirement' becomes a decision making. It is no longer reflecting a dichotomous decision: yes or no. Rather, retirement preparation is becoming an increasingly enduring and diverse process. Retirement in the past is different from today and will be different again in the future. This marks the organization today to continue to provide incentives for employees to retire. This paper aims at developing a theoretical model for measuring employees' retirement preparation in government organisations in Malaysia. Although Malaysian government has slowly come to comprehend the rationale for investing in retirement research, more understanding need to be shown in the process towards retirement. After all, the findings are important in raising public awareness of the critical need for retirement planning and help to outline strategies to encourage early preparation for retirement (Noone, Stephans & Alpass, 2010).

From a global perspective, a new historical period has emerged in which retirement have raised social awareness of the status and increased the readiness in community initiatives in various forms. Today, retirement represents a major life change. Therefore, it requires sufficient planning and preparation. With the aging of many populations in the world, soon perhaps the largest proportion of the society classified as retired than ever. This is one of the fundamental driving forces for research in retirement planning as society-wide phenomena (Wang, 2013). Although much of the population is approaching retirement age, little is known about how they are preparing for the future (Noone et al., 2010). Retirement preparation needs to be taken seriously. Employees need to be ready and know what to do when they have retired rather than waiting to the last minute decision. According to the process theory by Friedman and Scholnich (1997), individuals acquire an understanding of the problem, goals will be set in making a decision to start preparing and finally behaviours is

considered necessary to fulfil the goals (Noone et al., 2010). The process will allow the individual in obtaining realistic expectations of their retirement. If the expectations are met, then the individual is likely to be ready for their retirement.

Although retirement is most related to financial preparedness (Noone et al., 2010), it is also important that individuals' journey towards preparing for their retirement includes work (career), health, interpersonal relationship, leisure (Petkoska & Earl, 2009) and spiritual (Noor Azima, Jariah & Rahimah, 2013). Each domain is dependent on others and other parts, and all are connected and must work together to maintain as a whole. By looking at financial alone will not resolve sufficient preparation. Good health beside financial security is also important during retirement years. One can engage in extensive financial preparation, but if one's health fails, those financial preparation likely to have little effect. Research also has shown that leisure such as social network, travelling, hobbies, sports and games are also associated with retirement (Dorfman, 1989). After withdrawing from the labour force, leisure activities will become a central focus of the retirees' life and becoming more important (Hendricks & Cutler, 1990). The differences are the leisure activities of retirees who live in different kind of environment settings and housing arrangements. Attention from spouse, family and friends are also important part of pleasure and will lead to retirement satisfaction. Family plays an important role in people's lives and the most significant role in life. Much of the research in work area focus on 'bridge employment', with its connotation as a transitional period of gradually stepping down from full time work to full time retirement (Feldman, 1994; Shultz, 2003). Regardless of being retired many older employees express a desire to continue working after they have formally retired (Brown, 2003). For some individuals, continued work increases financial stability in old age and it is a way to remain active and productive as well. Spirituality is an aspect of life that has been overlooked in retirement research. In this paper, spiritual concerns with religion or their perspective of live (Noor Azima, Jariah & Rahimah, 2013) towards retirement preparation. Spiritual matter is important to help employees to see its connection with their search for purpose and meaning in life especially towards retirement years.

This paper examines the integration of life planning into retirement process by using the model of general planning process by Friedman & Scholnick (1997) which proposes the foundation for generating the planning and preparation. The development of items scales in every stage of the planning course will be reviewed by applying Noone's (2009) PRePS (process of retirement planning scale). With respect to Muratore and Earl's (2010) definition, retirement preparation in this paper is defined as effort invested by individuals, while still employed, to provide for their well- being in retirement. Apparently, those who are investing effort in retirement preparation are those who are closer to perform actual preparatory steps. On the contrary, those who are not investing any effort in preparatory behaviour would be expected to spend little to no effort investigating that preparation behaviour (Muratore & Earl, 2010).

2.0   Retirement Preparation: Theoretical Background

There are number of theories related to retirement preparedness. Research on retirement over the last two decades has primarily focus on how planning for retirement influences retirement timing, post retirement satisfaction and adjustment. As a result, the theoretical conceptualizations most employed are retirement as decision making and retirement as adjustment (Wang & Shultz, 2010). For example, those who have prepared for retirement and feel ready to make the transition are more likely to exit the workforce at an earlier age (Reitzes, Mutran & Fernandez, 1998; Taylor & Shore, 1995). The related theories are rational choice theory (Gustman & Steinmeir, 1986), image theory (Feldman, 2003), role theory (Ashforth, 2001) and continuity theory (Kim & Feldman, 2000). All these theories are focusing more on determining the decision to retire. Continuity theory argues that peoples' basic nature does not change much from before to after retirement. Merging this concept with image theory, individuals' might foresee that they are more likely to retire if they think they can continue their self- image. Role theory has been used to draw workers' demographic status, work experience, marital life and many more. The theory is also related to decision making of retirement and it is more on how people perceive themselves and their roles in the larger societal context. Retirement preparation both formally and informally might increase subject's confidence in their abilities in making retirement transition later. However, most of the theories focus on retirement thoughts, behaviors, attitudes or goals undertaken to fulfil the planning and preparation for retirement, but it does not guide how cognitions can emerge into goal-setting or preparing behaviours (Noone et al., 2010). In other words, the cognitive and behavioural components of planning have not been integrated in a significant way towards retirement preparation in most of the current research. This has limited the way that planning for retirement can be conceptualized and led to unprepared in retirement (Noone et al., 2010).

Investigating behaviour in retirement preparation is a complicated task. This is because the planning and preparation are mostly accompanied by varying degrees of risk and uncertainty, yet the outcomes are vital in ensuring their positive well-being later in life. Despite the growing numbers of studies in retirement planning, Noone (2009) has mentioned that there has been very little empirical work done on the relationship between retirement preparation and the stages that leads to planning and preparing. The primary problem in preparation is the lack of theory to show the development of retirement preparation process. Without theoretical guidance about how relationship develop and change, individuals will plan and prepare retirement based on intuition, chance, convenience or tradition, which is prone to error (Mathew & Fisher, 2013). In order to address this limitation, a theory of process in planning will be developed in this study to measure different stages in planning for retirement that leads to retirement preparation.

As mentioned earlier in this paper, the initial theory of planning process model consist of four stages (Friedman & Scholnick, 1997, Noone et al, 2009) which the final stage is the preparatory behavior of an individual towards retirement planning. To integrate the knowledge on the four stages with effective retirement preparation, the process will be condensed into three stages to make the process clear and well-defined which is related to Malaysian context. The theory and model will be adapted and used to accommodate to the present paper, where the important essence of it, is looking at the development of the representation of the problem to reduce the uncertainty (Input), planning in order to obtain goals clarity (activities) and lastly base on their decision making, strategies will be implemented and revised (Output). Input, activities and output (Daft, 2001) in the process will reflect as approaches to measure the effectiveness of different stages and not only by final output or how the procedures work. These integrative approaches will be looking at the process as one united system, which encompasses several stages, understand the representation of retirement, transforming them and make it practical for retirement preparation. However, there are some minor problems with this approach such as goal multiplicity and the challenge of how to distinguish operative goals and measures goals clarity.

Apart from the general process of planning theory and retirement planning scale (Noone et al., 2010) as a basis foundation for retirement preparation, there are other theories underlines to support and incorporate to make the foundation clearer and apt to the aspects of preparation process. In order to synchronize stage one, stage two and stage three, a theory by Schank and Abelson (1977) will be incorporated. According to the theory, plans are including a representation of goal and knowledge of the methods that would enable reaching it. From this perspective, planning can connect events and made up of general information about how individuals achieve goals. The content of plans may also vary with age and cultural setting. For example, a 30 years old individual can already recognize and understand the typical definition of retirement. Yet because of the ignorant in the meaning of an action, its necessity, and usual concerns, they might have difficulty generating adequate plans.

Another theory which is included in the model is the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 2002) suggest that more favourable attitude towards specific act (retiring), more favourable subjective norm and greater perceived behavioural control will strengthen the intention to perform the behaviour. This basically states that if there is a more favourable attitude towards as behaviour, it is accepted socially, and the person has more control over the specific behaviour, they are more likely to perform that behaviour (Ajzen, 2002) such as planning for retirement, even if you are no necessarily ready to start preparing for retirement.

3.0   An Opportunistic Model of Retirement Preparation
Friedman and Scholnick's (1997) model of general planning as the foundation of the development of retirement preparation which is built upon four components: construct a representation of the planning situation, make a decision to start preparing, formulate a strategy to achieve the goal and finally implement and revise plans. Previous study by Noone et al., (2010), which has applied the model has examined the process of retirement planning scale (PRePS) can assist policy makers to determine which stages of retirement planning need support and intervention. Extending Noone and colleagues (2010) earlier research, this paper examines how life perspective contributes an important role in the model. The integration of planning process model and life perspective theory in this framework will explain how individual can shape the directions of their own lives towards preparation for retirement. Adapting the model framework by Noone et al., (2010) will hopefully help in giving a 'big picture' relating to societal context to the individual, families, education and work in retirement preparation in Malaysia's context.

The first stage in planning for retirement is to create an abstract picture of the problem where a cognitive understanding of the issue needs to be clarified. Once it has been recognized, goals for the future will be established (Friedman & Scholnick, 1997, Noone et al, 2009). This emphasized a crucial prerequisite for planning, where an individual use previous knowledge and compares to their present and desired expectations to develop an image of retirement (Noone et al, 2009). Retirement planning has also logical relationship to a variety of facets of retirement preparation and given its potential to shape a realistic expectation and readiness regarding retirement. This will facilitate further specific preparatory behaviour.

As for the second stage, once the individual cognitive understanding has been achieved, goals will be established (Friedman & Scholnick, 1997, Noone et al, 2009). Employees need to be clear on their goals as it is significant to proceed with further preparation. During this phase, the ability to foresee and anticipate and to make plans for and organize future possibilities represents one of the most outstanding traits of individuals (Fraisse, 1963; Locke, 1975). According to Seijts (1998), to bring the future into the present, the individual has to have, or develop the capacity to plan his or her activities. Gjsme (1983) suggested that the function of future time perspective is parallel to a searchlight, which helps to illuminate events ahead. According to Gjsme (1983), the stronger the searchlight, the farther individuals' see, the more objects they discover, the brighter and clearer these objects appear, and the nearer and more real individuals perceive them. As a consequence, individuals are better able to structure and plan future actions and to take precautions against future events (Seijts, 1998). Empirical evidence also suggests that future time perspective is a cognitive structure rather than stable disposition (Seijts, 1998).

In the third stage, individual will make decisions to start preparing for the behaviour to fulfil their goals. During this phase, individual will formulate a strategy or plan on how to attain their goals (Friedman & Scholnick, 1997, Noone et al, 2009). In formulating a strategy, individuals need an intention to assess the effectiveness of attitudes towards retirement preparation (Muratore & Earl, 2010). Planning is implemented and should to be improved if needed. Throughout this phase, the planning process might not be immediately clear compared to other tasks due to volatility of human behaviour. According to Noone et al., (2010), an individual might written a list of plans and strategies to organize their working week (formulation of plans) and adapt or amend it if required, but it is unlikely that they would apply the same planned techniques to a long term planning.

To absorb the model of general planning process (Friedman & Scholnick, 1997) and retirement planning (Noone et al, 2009) in retirement preparation, the first stage is still retained where to develop a mental representation of a problem space (retirement representations) and cognitive understanding of the subject are still significant to retirement preparation. The second stage will also unchanged whereby the employees need to be clear on their planning where clear goals is significant to proceed with further preparation. As for the last stage, where decision to start preparing (which is the third stage in Noone's (2009) model of retirement planning) and plans being implemented (which is the last stage in Noone's (2009) model of retirement planning) will be condensed into one stage of preparatory behavior in this paper. This stage will relate to the decision on preparing and at the same time will implement the strategies and revised if necessary. With respect to Noone's (2009) definition of retirement planning measure definition, the initial stage still reflect the cognitive components of retirement planning while the final stage reflect the preparation behavior undertaken to fulfill retirement objectives. Noone's (2009) planning measure is also used in this current research due to its measure of retirement planning that utilizes a theoretical approach to items development. More precisely, this measure can conceptualize retirement preparation as a multi stages process.

The generality of the model enables the theory to be used or employed with other theories and models. In addition, practically the model provides opportunities for not only employees or individuals but human practitioners to apply this model with to explore efficacious techniques and strategies for ensuring the dynamic of individual's preparation towards retirement. The model will be used in this current study as guidelines to complete the retirement preparation process. For example certain age cohorts may be able to complete the first stage of financial retirement preparation process, but they face structural and psychological barrier to complete the final stage of the preparation process. In contrast, completion of the non-financial might not be any barrier in completing the process. It might be that individual has control over these domains.

4.0 Integrating Holistic Life Planning in the Framework

Integrative Life Planning (ILP) theory is introduced by Sunny Hansen in the 1990's (1997), which explained how people can shape the directions of their own lives, help others to become empowered, manage change and contribute to the larger society. Adapting this approach might help in giving a bigger perspective relate to retirement preparation. The original concept of the theory focused on adult career development and represented a holistic approach to life and career planning. According to Hansen (1997), it is based on interaction, relation oriented and aimed at helping to achieve greater meaning, wholeness, satisfaction and a sense of community in lives. Life planning is interconnected with retirement preparation because all domains are related with life of an individual. Ideally, effective retirement preparation needs to start early in life, but research shows that this is also a time when most people have their minds, resources and plans firmly fixed on other things, such as children education, housing and car payments, caring for elderly parents and so forth. Even Reitzes, Mutran and Fernandez (1998) also mentioned that having more children was related to greater delayed in planning and preparing for retirement. Due to that, integration of life planning needs to be embedded within the framework of retirement preparation to bring connection and link on parts of life to represent a person's whole life (Hansen, 2001). Further than that, it is important to understand that ILP is also a concept in process (Hansen, 1997). Through holistic approaches in ILP, an individual can think, perceive and act in new ways (Hansen, 1997) to make retirement preparation meaningful.

In line with Hansen's (1997) approach, the theory uses a quilt as a metaphor. The quilt itself composed many different levels, all telling their own stories that brings together many aspects of people's lives into 'big picture'. Therefore, adapting ILP theory will integrate planning and preparing together with lives like a quilt and weaving it into a meaningful whole element connected with each dimensions and make it significant into the process of retirement preparation. The generality of the theory enables it to be used or with other theories and models. In addition, practically the theory provides opportunities for individuals to apply this approach to explore efficacious techniques and strategies for ensuring the dynamic of planning and preparing of individuals (Hansen, 1997). ILP was introduced to look at a new way on selecting a career, preparing for it, entering it and succeeding in it. But the concept can go far beyond than that (Hansen, 1997), whereby an individual has a new way of looking at retirement, preparing for it, entering it and succeeding in it.

The ILP theory is best understood by highlighting six major critical life tasks (Hansen, 1997). The first task is (a) finding work that needs doing in changing global contexts. Fortunately, for retirement preparation, it will enhance the finding of solutions to many human challenges and work to be done locally and globally for example, persevering the environment, voluntarism and advocating for human rights. Individual will be able to look for their future and find which goal is fit for their future retirement; Second task is (b) weaving lives into a meaningful whole. From time to time, there are other roles and other part of human development that has been ignored; for example the social, physical, spiritual and emotional. According to Hansen (1997), the differentiation of women and men for various life roles can become a barrier to life planning of each and both need to integrate self-sufficiency and connectedness into their lives. This is important for individuals' future well-being. The third task is (c) connecting family and work. With increasing of two earner families, retirement preparation can become an easy task with the role both are playing. Each partner should treat each other with dignity and respect. Understanding of each other's roles and responsibilities will make retirement preparation much easier to be organized. Fourth task is (d) valuing pluralism and inclusivity. According to Hansen (1997), an awareness of all kinds of differences which are: racial, ethnic, class, religion, age, gender, disability, geography and sexual orientation will be essential in the future. Proper programs and training will reduce bias and discrimination to the human relations issues facing planning. The programs and training will help people learn not only to understand but also to accept, value, and celebrate diversity. This is important in retirement preparation; each individual is different in the way they prepared for retirement. Proper training and program will broaden the concept of retirement itself. The fifth task is (e) managing personal transitions and organizational change. Making decisions is an important task if dealing with uncertainty. Retirement preparation is a future process that an individual does not know what it will be. These decisions are sometimes made by people and organizations. People will need to be prepared for the uncertainty, ambiguity and complexity they may need to face in the future (Gelatt, 1989). Organization need to think about employees' transition process towards their retirement. Clearly, organization will be an important field in the future not only during work life but also later life (Hansen, 1997). The last task is (f) exploring spirituality, purpose and meaning. According to Hansen (1997), spirituality becomes more widely associated with life planning. Spirituality defined as the core of a person which is the center from which meaning, self and life understanding are generated, a sense of interrelatedness of all of life (Hansen, 1997). One of the goal is to let an individual explore their purpose and meaning in life. It is related to retirement preparation where individuals need to know more about themselves, something they need to give back to the society upon retirement by contributing their talents toward community improvement and achieve some connectedness with others.

5.0 Conclusion: Future Direction

The concept of holistic approach and planning has to be woven into organization policy. Unfortunately, it is not there at present and with current focus only in financial planning. Retirement study has identified many theories such as adjustment theory, disengagement theory, activity theory, role theory, continuity theory, image theory and theory of planned behaviour. However, out of many theories, Integrative Life Planning (ILP) theory has an attempt to explain relationship of multiple aspects of life are interrelated and integrated with the mind, body and spirit. Integrative Live Planning (ILP) approach has been conceptualized to assist individuals in attaining wholeness and integration and to be able to functions in all contexts of life and retirement preparation is part of that context. Furthermore, with this theoretical framework, it could help to identify which stages that need attention in retirement preparation. This is useful especially for policy makers and human resource practices to understand more about peoples planning and preparation for retirement.

Most of research regarding retirement is done by the gerontologist (concern on aging workers, retirees and post retirement), economists (financial and saving behavior) and psychologist (FTP, anxiety, depression and adjustment). HRD practices should share the same responsibility for the development and progress of individuals in organization which will not only assist the employees during their 'working period' but to support their decision making in retirement preparation likewise. The current HR systems emphasize and focus on recruiting, selecting and retaining applicants and giving training. Ths paper is to present challenges that will affect human resource policies and practices especially concerning the developmental stages of future retirement preparation. Requiring a pool of information (Retirement Profile) of employees in an organization regarding retirement matters will help to keep rich data source on current pattern of retirement preparation especially in Malaysia.

Therefore, this framework makes a significant contribution to develop an integrative model that combines an integration life planning and retirement preparation. Important impact emerges in this article which are: to understand how individuals prepare for their future in retirement preparation; to enable social policy makers to determine which stages of planning for retirement require support and intervention; it provides individual to relevant information that will be required for the 'third age' and the retirement program should be designed not only for employees nearing retirement but also for the young middle hood employees who exist in organization. The program itself should involve different age cohorts in the organizations so that they are exposed with the meaning of retirement.

This paper is the first step of an endeavor to embark on a comprehensive study on retirement preparation in Malaysia that involves retirement preparation within six domains and integration of life planning. It is important to see younger workers entering the workforce will become productive and sustain in a competitive global environment which is constantly changing and required rapid adaptability, creativity and innovation not only during the working era likewise in their retirement years. The need to develop readiness and looking forward within employees in retirement preparation is already urgent and will soon become critical due to aging population. It is hoped that the outcomes of study will be beneficial to all parties concerned while at the same time contribute to the knowledge enhancement in academic world. The paper is rather to draw the reader's attention to some of the underlie retirement issue that need to be aware of. Overall, research into retirement preparation is also a rich soil for future research. Attention to the retirement preparation process will help produce better and more confidence that will in turn provide the basis for improved understanding of social and organizational phenomena in retirement.

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Young Learners' Perceptions of Learning English Using Language Games in a Non - Formal Context

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Abstract

In Malaysian schools where English is taught as a second language, the need to maximize learners' exposure to the language outside the classroom is vital. Learning is greatly enhanced, especially among young learners through exposure to English media and language learning activities. However, learners in rural primary schools have very limited exposure to English media and hardly ever use English outside the classroom despite constant encouragement from teachers. They also refrain from participating in English class activities because of a lack of motivation and self-confidence. This paper reports on a possible initiative that may address this need of young rural learners. Forty BA English Language Studies 3rd year undergraduates enrolled in a course that required them to create language games as their final class project. A rural school was selected to execute the pilot project in an informal classroom setting. Acting as facilitators to 112 students all aged 9 years, these undergraduates engaged the pupils in language games that they had created, taking into account the learners' age, English proficiency and interests. Pupils were observed to become less inhibited in the company of these young facilitators in a non-threatening, informal environment. The project offered opportunities for the student facilitators and their young learners to interact. At the end of the session, the learners were asked to respond to a self-report questionnaire to provide feedback about their perception of the games and the facilitators involved. The encouraging results are good reason for continuing such engagements between undergraduates and pupils.

Keywords: language games, language learning, non-threatening approach, facilitators, second language

Introduction

Learning a second language is admittedly a complex and challenging endeavour, and numerous reasons have been given to explain why Malaysian ESL/EFL learners, especially those in the rural areas, fail to learn English to any appreciable level of proficiency. Factors such as poor learning approaches, lack of confidence and motivation, negative perceptions of English as a foreign language, or unsuitable teaching methods/approaches, and the syllabus are widely acknowledged as valid reasons. One of the most important factors is most likely that these learners lack exposure and opportunity to use the language in natural settings (Samuel & Zaitun Bakar, 2008).

From informal conversations with schoolchildren, it was found that they refrained from speaking English whether in or out of class for fear that their poor speaking ability would cause them to be perceived as slow or incompetent learners. Even with constant encouragement from their teachers, the lack of confidence and the fear of making mistakes hold them back. This was the same finding from a study with university students in Laos (Souriyavongsa et al., 2013).

In Malaysia, the problem is compounded by the fact that pupils come from different ethnic groups and so they tend to use their own dialect/language to interact among themselves simply because it feels more comfortable to them. English is largely perceived as a foreign language for which they do not have much use other than in English class. This is markedly true in the case of schoolchildren in the rural areas as their contact with English is only during their English classes in school (Normazidah Che Musa et al., 2012). In addition, they tend to lack support to use English at home and in the community, and inevitably have inadequate or insufficient exposure to the language in their rural environment. With such limited

exposure and little opportunity to construct their own understandings, it is unsurprising that learners frequently become disengaged.

As ESL pupils in rural schools have little motivation to learn English, their teachers find it even more challenging to engage their interest in learning. The language games project reported in this paper emerged from a discussion about a group project for a cohort of English Language Studies (ELS) undergraduates at the Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. When the undergraduates were asked to think about using the project to help schoolchildren get more opportunities to use English, they suggested that a good strategy might be to encourage them from very young to participate in activities that necessitate using English so that it becomes an automatic second language, spoken confidently, without any fear of embarrassment. Further discussion led to the idea of initiating a community English-literacy programme with a selected primary school. The language games project grew out of that idea; it was suggested as a non-threatening approach to get young learners to use English. This approach supplements the existing repertoire of tools that ESL teachers might already have, such as worksheets, music and songs, and simple computer games.

The challenge then was for the ELS undergraduates to devise games that require team work and interaction, and equally important, the use of English among the pupils to achieve the goals of the game. One important goal of the game, besides creating an opportunity for movement and oral interaction, is to offer the opportunity to really use the language without reserve. In other words, while some important new vocabulary and expressions are introduced as part of the game, pupils are to use whatever little English they can muster to participate. Still, for practical reasons and for continued support, teachers need to prove to the school authorities the real effect on learning these language games have on pupils's motivation to learn, as well as on measurable outcomes such as reading and writing ability and accuracy in language use. It is also important to have clearly stated objectives and learning goals for each game so that pupils' learning may be assessed after some time.

Since the proof of the pudding is in the eating, one important way to evaluate the programme is to obtain feedback from the very learners who have experienced the game or activity. Obtaining feedback from the primary stakeholders is an important aspect of this project; it conveys to the young learners that their opinions matter, and that their participation in learning is taken very seriously. This is part of what the learner-centred classroom is about.

The aim of this paper is to describe the language learning games project that was piloted in a rural school, and to discuss the feedback from the young participants themselves about their experience. It is necessary first of all to provide a glimpse of the educational setting that is the backdrop to ELT in Malaysian primary schools. A brief review of the literature on using language games in ELT is also necessary to establish the theoretical basis and pedagogical significance of the project before the feedback data is discussed.

The Malaysian English curriculum for primary schools

In Malaysia, the Primary School Standard Curriculum (KSSR) was introduced as an effort to restructure and enhance the existing curriculum to ensure that pupils acquire the appropriate knowledge, skills and values to face the challenges of the 21st century. Level I (Year 1, 2 & 3) of the Primary School Standard Curriculum started in 2010/2011 while Level II for Years 4, 5 & 6 started in 2014. KSSR is based on a statement of standards which encompasses content standards and learning standards to be achieved by a pupil in a specific period and level of schooling. Content standards are specific statements on what the pupils should know and can do, within a specific period of schooling, covering the areas of knowledge, skills and values. Learning Standards are set criteria or indicators of education quality and achievements which can be quantified for each content standard.

This curriculum focuses on the 4Rs - the four basic skills of Reading, Writing, Arithmetic and Reasoning and it is designed to cater to six areas of development:
• Communication
• Spirituality, Attitude and Values
• Humanitarian
• Physical and Aesthetic Development
• Science and Technology

(http://www.moe.gov.my/v/soalan-lazim-view?id=146&cat=30&keyword=&page=1&)

According to the Assistant Director of the Educational Technology Division, Ministry of Education, the Standard Curriculum uses diverse approaches in teaching and learning including hands-on learning, using games and projects and learning outside the classroom (http://www.slideshare.net/Fadzliaton/transformasi-kurikulum-kssr

7171559?utm_source=slideshow02&utm_medium=ssemail&utm_campaign=share_slideshow_loggedout).

English is taught formally as a subject in national schools for a total of 5 hours per week. Other than that, there is no other subject that uses English as a medium of instruction. Perhaps this is where the fundamental problem in the Malaysian ESL situation lies: there seems little reason for pupils to attend to English as it is not used beyond the few lessons allotted to the subject. Hence the continual challenge in "promoting" English to pupils and "enticing" them to use it through the use of fun activities.

Language Games in ELT: Theoretical Perspectives

According to interactionist second language acquisition (SLA) theories reflecting Krashen's theory (1994), comprehensible input is critical for second language acquisition, and interaction can enhance second language acquisition and fluency. In fact, two-way interaction is critical in learning a second language (Pica, 1996). However, the role of interaction in second language acquisition (SLA) is valued quite differently by different theorists. For Krashen (1985, 1994), whose theory became a predominant influence in both second language teaching practice and later theories, interaction must consist of "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1985, 1994), which means that the message can be understood at the level just beyond the current linguistic competence of learners (Krashen, 1996) as well as "output" (Swain, 1995), which provides opportunities for independent expression and negotiation of meaning. Krashen's scaffolding theory, referred to as *i+1,* is similar to Vygotsky's "zone of proximal development" (1962). Viewed as an innatist perspective, it maintains that a second language is acquired unconsciously in a manner similar to the acquisition of a first language. Language input can be made comprehensible using a variety of strategies, such as linguistic simplification, and the use of realia, visuals, pictures, graphic organizers, and other current ESOL strategies.

While Krashen (1994) states that only one-way comprehensible input is required for SLA, others, acknowledging the role of two-way interaction, take an interactionist position. Pica (1994), Long (1985), and others assert that conversational interaction facilitates SLA under certain conditions. Lightbrown and Spada (1999) explain that, "When learners are given the opportunity to engage in meaningful activities they are compelled to 'negotiate for meaning,' that is, to express and clarify their intentions, thoughts, opinions, etc., in a way *which* permits them to arrive at a mutual understanding. This is especially true when the learners are working together to accomplish a particular goal . . . "(p. 122). Pica (1994) goes on to define negotiation as "modification and restructuring that occurs when learners and their interlocutors anticipate, perceive, or experience difficulties in message comprehensibility" (p.495). Modifications may involve linguistic simplification as well as conversational strategies such as repetition, clarification, and confirmation checks. Long and Robinson's interaction hypothesis (as cited in Blake, 2000) suggests that when meaning is negotiated, there is increased comprehensibility of input and learners tend to focus on salient linguistic features. Awareness of these language forms and structures is seen as beneficial to SLA.

Other interactionist theorists define the role of interaction in SLA by applying Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory of human mental processing (Lightbrown and Spada, 1999). They hypothesize that second language learners may gain proficiency from interacting with more advanced speakers of the language, for example, teachers and peers, as more proficient speakers tend to use scaffolding structures such as modelling, repetition, and linguistic simplification, believed to provide support to learners, thus enabling them to function within their zones of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1962).

The use of language games is therefore not a stand-alone method in ELT; it is a means of creating an environment using a game-like activity that encourages and supports practice and natural use of the language input that has recently taken place in the classroom.

Language Games in ELT Practice

Language games may not have received the interest and respect it deserves simply because the activities are generally seen more as ways to liven up the class rather than for real learning. Nguyen Thi Thanh Huyen and Khuat Thi Thu Nga (2003) are among researchers that claim that although games are seen as a time-filling activity in most English classrooms, they are not just for fun because they have an effect on teaching and learning. Ahmed Awad Amin Mahmoud and Ziyad Ahmed Tanni (2014) studied the role of language games on pupils' attitudes towards learning English. Most of the teachers of English for the Palestinian young children aged 6-10 years (grades 1- 4) in the schools of Jenin Refugee Camp, Ya'bad, Araba, and Rommana acknowledged that using games affected the pupils' attitudes towards learning English. They did not perceive of using games just for fun but saw them as serving many educational purposes such as developing creative thinking, critical thinking, problem solving, role playing and collaborative work.

There is much in the ELT literature that promotes the use of games. Language games encourage interaction among pupils; when children play language games in small groups, they engage in cooperative learning activities that encourage them to talk freely and offer natural opportunities for social interaction. Learning is more effective when school children have the opportunity to participate freely in discussing ideas and sharing information. Fromme (2003) concurs with McFarlane and Sakellariou (2002) in promoting the use of games from different points of view. Games can lower anxiety, thus facilitating acquisition of the second language. As they are highly motivating and entertaining they can draw out shy or timid pupils by providing ample opportunity to express their opinions and feelings.

Games can help the teacher create useful and meaningful contexts for learning new vocabulary (Cameron, 2001, in Seda, 2010). Using games in the teaching and learning of vocabulary is particularly effective because in a fun situation, learning is less stressful for children and increases their' motivation too. According to Wright et al. (1996:1) games help and encourage many learners to sustain their interest. Mazidatuz Zahro et al. (2013) used guessing games in the form of crossword puzzles and riddles to examine the effects of these games on the vocabulary achievement of eight-year old pupils in Balung, Indonesia. The findings showed that the use of guessing games had a clear positive effect on the pupils' vocabulary achievement. Nguyen Thi Thanh Huyen and Khuat Thi Thu Nga (2003) also acknowledged that games were effective in helping their pupils improve their vocabulary building skills.

By taking part in the variety of games designed to integrate all the language skills, children expand their language skills in a natural and holistic manner. Practising any one particular skill promotes development in the other skills too, because they read when they write, and they listen when they are talking with someone. This is significant as connections between abstract and concrete concepts are best accomplished when all language processes—reading, writing, listening, and speaking—are incorporated during practice and application (http://www.misd.net/bilingual/ell.pdf). Most importantly, games enable pupils to acquire new experiences within a foreign language and add a diversion to the regular classroom activities, thus creating a relaxed atmosphere which makes it easier and faster to learn, and to remember.

Ersoz (2000) offers some advice on how to choose games in teaching and learning language. Firstly, games should be regarded as supplementary activities. The whole syllabus should not be based on games only – not even for young learners. Secondly, when choosing a game, the teacher should be careful to find an appropriate one for the class in terms of language and type of participation. Thirdly, once the game has begun, the teacher should not interrupt to correct mistakes in language use. Fourthly, the teacher should not compel an individual to participate. Some learners may not want to participate due to personal reasons and forcing children to participate usually does not have successful results. Fifth, a game which looks wonderful on paper may not work in an actual classroom setting. If it is tiring or boring, it should be stopped. Sixthly, instructions must be given clearly. Unless the learners know what he is expected to do and how to do it, the aim cannot be achieved, and the game cannot be played. Well- chosen games are valuable, highly motivating, amusing, challenging and they encourage cooperation as they give students a break and at the same time allow students to practise language skills.

Methodology

This study aimed to survey the perceptions of young learners of the use of language games in learning English. As it was a pilot study, it was decided that a quantitative approach would be appropriate for the research design. Purposive sampling was used in selecting 112 Year 3 learners from a selected rural school in Mantin, Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia. This sample was chosen because they were in level I of the Primary School Standard Curriculum. Thirty English Language Studies (ELS) undergraduates from a public university worked in groups of four to design language games for the learners. While the task of designing language games was a graded project on the ELS programme, the use of the games in the selected

school was part of a project envisaged to promote English literacy among rural children. The language games were aimed at injecting fun into the learning of English and were expected to motivate and develop confidence among pupils, and shy learners in particular would benefit from the opportunity to express their opinions and feelings in a stress-free, non-threatening environment (Fromme, 2003).

The instrument used for gathering data was a self-report questionnaire to get feedback from pupils about their experience of playing the game. The 10- item questionnaire was designed using a 3-point Likert scale (Agree, Unsure and Disagree) appropriate to the intellectual ability of young learners. In addition, it was written in simple and straightforward Malay to ensure it was clear and easily understood by the young learners. Items 1-7 required students to indicate their perceptions of learning English using games while items 8-10 asked about their perception of the roles of the student facilitators.

The questionnaire was administered after they had participated in a session of language games. The language games were created and prepared by the ELS undergraduates who also served as student facilitators in introducing the games and managing the young learners as they played the games.

The ELS undergraduates had worked in small groups of four to discuss the types of language games they considered suitable based on the pupils' age. These ELS students themselves gained an opportunity not only for social interaction which promotes language development, but more importantly the project afforded them a practical opportunity to apply the theories of language learning in designing the activities. The activities had to meet the language and learning needs of the target group and had to stimulate high levels of student engagement, providing them with opportunities to use English in meaningful ways.

They also developed useful soft skills from working as a team: learning to express their ideas, to accept criticism, and to argue their case. In the end, they had to agree unanimously on a language game and therefore had to solve problems and issues related to their projects by engaging in discussion in a sensible and fair manner. It also required them to draw upon their own experience as ESL/EFL learners as well as explore their own creativity.

Besides discussing and creating the language games, the ELS students had to report their progress in writing and also orally to the lecturer. They had to record their work of designing a language game, giving a clear explanation of the game and instructions for using the game. They also needed to practise good management skills as this was not the only task they had to attend to. Thus, the project of devising the language games actually afforded learning opportunities to be creative and to work as a team.

On the day of the activity, the school children were assigned to eight small groups (15-16 children in a group), each group to a game. Each game was monitored and facilitated by the group of four to five ELS students who had created the game. When a group finished one game, it would move on to the next and this went on till every group had played all eight games. Thus, all the school children involved had the opportunity to play all the eight language games created by the ELS students. The activities were held in the hall from 9 a.m. to 1 p.m. No other classes were held for year 3 on the particular day. Food and drinks were provided for the students. By the end of the day, there was a handing-over ceremony of the games by the leader of each ELS group members to the headmaster of the school. Each of the 112 schoolchildren received a Certificate of Participation signed by the Head of the ELS Programme.

The language games helped pupils overcome their apprehensiveness about learning English. When they participated in the games, it could be observed that they became less conscious about using English as they were immersed in the games and having fun. The project seemed to have benefited not only the school children, but also the university students who had learned a lot on their own from designing and facilitating the language games/activities. Their own excitement about the project and enthusiasm in working with the school children was contagious, as evident from the positive feedback from the pupils about their experience. The comments from the headmaster and the English language teachers involved were very positive as they could see that the school children had so much fun and were so enthusiastic in using English, being so immersed in the activities that they practically forgot their former apprehension about making mistakes. These can be seen from the pictures taken during the activities (See Appendix A). The most important outcome was therefore the positive experience of accomplishment in their language learning experience, for, as the saying goes, success breeds success.

The young learners' perceptions

The data was analysed descriptively using frequency and percentages. On the whole, the results indicate that the pupils had positive perceptions learning English using games. The great majority of the respondents (93.75%) agreed with the first statement "*I was very happy when the teacher told us that learning English through language games would be held on that day".* 4.46% felt unsure and 1.78% did not agree with the statement. When the university students arrived at the school on that day, the teachers told them that 3 weeks prior to the event day itself, the students had been excited and looking forward to experience learning English using games.

In responding to a question about their prior experience of playing language games in English, 51.78% agreed with the second statement *"I have played language games in English before"* while 34.82% were unsure and 13.39% did not agree. These responses indicate that only about half of them had played language games before. Being situated in a rural area, not all the school children would have had language games in English. Besides, the schools do not have enough funding to provide them with such opportunities.

When asked to respond about their feelings using English in playing language games, 65.18% indicated that they did not feel shy to use English, as in statement 3 "*I am not shy to play language games using English language".* However, 23.21% indicated they were unsure while 11.61% did not agree with the statement. This lends support to Fromme's (2003) finding that language games lower learners' anxiety, motivate and give confidence and also provide shy learners with the opportunity to express their opinions and feelings.

Using games to learn English was a source of enjoyment to the pupils, supporting Ersoz's (2000) findings that language games are motivating, amusing and challenging. The evidence is in the responses given by the learners; 98.21% agreed with statement 4, *"I feel happy and enjoyed myself playing language games using English language".* 1.79% were unsure and only 0.89% did not agree with the statement.

Almost all the respondents felt that the activity taught them more about English. This can be seen when 97.32% of them agreed with statement 5, *"playing the games today taught me a lot about English language".* Only 1.79% were unsure of the statement and 0.89% did not agree. Again, this supports the results of Ersoz's (2000) study which found that language games encourage cooperation as they provide opportunities to practise language skills.

With regard to acquisition of new vocabulary, the findings reveal that 91.96% of the respondents agreed that they have acquired new vocabulary while 6.25% were unsure and 1.79% did not agree. To a certain extent, the findings concur with Mazidatuz Zahro et al.'s (2013) study which found that using language games affected the students' vocabulary achievement positively.

Most of the students involved reported feeling more confident in using English after playing the language games; a total of 72.32% agreed with statement 7, *"I am more confident to use English language after playing the language games".* However 20.54% were unsure and 7.14% did not agree that they had gained more confidence in using the language. According to Vygotsky's (1962) socio-cultural theory, when learners interact with more advanced speakers (i.e. student facilitators) of the language, it provides them with scaffolding structures that enable them to function within their zones of proximal development (Lightbrown & Spada, 1999). Considering that there was limited time in interacting with the facilitators, this response seems honest, and does not detract from the overall positive feedback. In fact, this highlights the need to sustain such efforts, as a one-off effort admittedly may not have a significant effect on pupils's confidence in learning English.

The young learners were guided by the student facilitators rather than their own teachers as part of the effort at creating a non-threatening context that this approach promotes. The findings reveal that 93.75% agreed that *"The facilitators from the university were very dedicated and committed when handling the language games with me",* while 4.46% and 1.79% responded as "unsure" and "did not agree" respectively. In line with this, Lightbrown and Spada (1999) posited that young learners are able to function within their zones of proximal development during their interaction with more advanced speakers (i.e. student facilitators) when they engage in these language games, expressing and clarifying their intentions, thoughts, and opinions in this non-threatening context.

As for their perception of the facilitators' treatment of all the school children, the majority (91.07%) of the respondents agreed with they received equal attention and treatment. Finally, almost all (93.75%) of the learners who took part in the language games would like to have the opportunity to do the activity again in the future. Playing language games was a new experience and a happy diversion from the regular classroom activities (Fromme, 2003).

Conclusion

The feedback from the pupils provides adequate evidence for the positive impact of using language games in teaching English. As a pilot project, there are some aspects that need fine-tuning and rethinking. For example, since this was a one-day event of language games, the fun factor was particularly salient and time was not a constraining factor; however, in the daily class, teachers have to plan their lessons to allow for some time to have a game played as reinforcement of particular learning points. Also, it must be remembered that the ELS undergraduates had designed eight games after a great deal of time and effort, so teachers may wonder if their schedule would allow them any time to create language games. There are of course answers to such reservations and doubt about the practicality of using language games. There are games galore available in print and in online ELT sites, and each game need not take up a lot of time. In fact a game may be repeated and if found to be a source of fun, the pupils themselves may play on their own whenever there is some time available.

There are plans for the pilot project to become a regular part of the English curriculum for the particular school that hosted it. This is indeed promising, and if that is established, there are many possibilities of expanding this effort and replicating it in other rural schools. It would also then become necessary to offer some kind of training to teachers who are unfamiliar with the concept of games in language learning, and perhaps in the process, afford a practical way of demonstrating how a learner-centred classroom should be.

Given the enthusiasm of the school authorities and the teachers, and the eagerness of the young learners, this pilot study is likely to proceed to develop into a full-fledged programme to supplement language classes, and become an initiative for the community literacy effort that first gave birth to this idea of using language games in SL learning.

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APPENDIX A

Kosovo's International Trade: Balance of Trade

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Abstract

*Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to present a review of literature on the composition of exports and imports during 2005-2011 in Kosovo and key findings from secondary research on the reasons for the high trade deficit which affects economic development within this country.**Design/Methodology/Approach** – This paper presents secondary data related to background of the international trade and its increasing importance throughout the years because globalization. Then it is followed by characteristics of Kosovo's trade environment, its domination of imports from 2005 to 2011 and its comparison with EU and non EU countries.**Findings** – The results of this paper illustrates that Kosovo is facing a major problem with its negative balance of trade, suffering with excessive volume of imported goods and insufficient exported goods. Kosovo's trade marked an increase of its exports with annual average growth rate of 36%, on the other hand imports marked an increase with annual average growth rate of 13%, while the share of exports and imports of GDP was relatively 60% by the year of 2011. The reasons of poor export performance are mainly based on social, political, and economical issues that Kosovo is confronting. Nevertheless, government took important macroeconomic steps, as well as developed comprehensive process to review, shift the political and economic policies, to sustain the countries balance of trade in long term.*

Keywords – International trade, imports, exports, economic growth

Introduction

Kosovo is characterized as an open economy with trade liberalization establishment. When it comes to international trade restrictions, countries do not have exactly open or closed economy, because through their actions governments tend to control, regulate and supervise some aspects of economic activities. Governments have self-determination to practice trade policies of their choice. Kosovo's economy was ruined during the conflict with Serbia in 1999, where all economic activities were shutdown, including the international trade linkage. Despite occurrence of this event, Kosovo's economy has been compacted and it is oriented toward the free trade market.

Kosovo is facing a major problem with its negative trade balance[1], suffering with excessive volume of imported goods in contrast with exported ones. Trade environment is dominated by imports that result in trade deficit. In general, trade balance of a country is considered as key aggregate indicator of a country's economic condition. Kosovo's international trade liberalization is characterized with disproportion of exports and imports. Analysis made by this study, investigate the composition of exports and imports during 2005-2011, which shows that Kosovo's trade marked an increase of its exports with annual average growth rate of 36%, in the other hand imports marked an increase with annual average growth rate of 13%, while its share of exports and imports of GDP was relatively 60% by the year of 2011. The negative trade balance is linked direct to economic development. Since 2007, Kosovo is part of Central European Free Trade Agreement (CEFTA) that is a free trade agreement signed between South-East Europe countries (SEE). CEFTA is well designed and harmonized with the principles and policies of World Trade Organization (WTO) and European Union. In Kosovo, the negative trade balance is mostly related to poor economic policies, poor level of infrastructure, low prices of exports, low wages, and low level of foreign investments; moreover, it is related also to high prices of inputs, barriers and tariffs in exchange with trade partners. Furthermore, government authorities are aware for the steps that should be undertaken to improve trade agreement and trade-related developments policies. Such polices are crucial for country's trade environment and must be wisely appraised to achieve trade policy trend.

Literature Review

The importance of the international trade dates back from years between 1776 and 1826, where Adam Smith's publication "Wealth of Nations" describes the invention and meaning of a theory of free trade. According to Smith, the low cost of labor ensures the effective competition among the nations. The main principle of the publication was the absolute advantage that discusses the capabilities of a nation, firm or individual that uses its resources efficiently to produce more goods or services than other nation, by using the same volume of resources. However, the new theory of international trade began in late 1970s. According to Krugman (1980) the acceleration of International trade and its patterns had massively changed from theory of perfect competition, return to scale and comparative advantage predicted from classical trade theories in previous centuries.

The volume of international trade in 1950 was 380 billion Dollars, while in 2005, it has increased to 21.2 trillion dollars. This large expansion of world trade volume marked the globalization of trade due to innovations and advancements of technology, as well as decreases in trade tariffs and trade agreements signed between countries. Through globalization of international trade, countries have increased the participation into global market, including human capital, and finance resources. The country's integration into global marketplace leads with cross-border investment flows. A major problem to investigate is the current trade balance of a country, whether its imbalances are justifiable and essentially sustainable over time. Studies have come to a conclusion that there is no clear definition of an unsustainable trade deficit (Kaminsky et al., 1998). However, countries have to consider many factors that influence the trade balance, whether if there is a need for shifts and reviews of trade policies or to reconstruct the functionality of trade environment. The reasons of influenced factors are fundamental, because the effects on trade balances vary across countries and time. The survey made by Bahmani-Oskooee and Ratha (2004), refers to various studies that examine the factors of trade balance including the bilateral trade balance or aggregate trade balance. Nevertheless, the survey concluded that condition of trade balance does not tell precisely the size of the effects on trade environment. Essentially trade deficits cannot be judged entirely considering the economic theory that indicates negative trade balance is not a very uncomfortable situation, implying that negative trade balance usually improves its negative trend situation over time.

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[1] The trade balance for any country is the difference between the total values of its exports and imports in a given year. When a country's total annual exports are lower to its total annual imports, it is said to have a trade deficit.

Kosovo's Trade Environment

Kosovo a newborn country[1] is characterized with new and dynamic economic activity. Before 1999, Kosovo's economy was focused on such economic system where economic activities were made by the central authorities or government, assumed that market never intend to work on the interest of citizens; thus, decisions for national economic objectives were set direct by state rather than by the interaction between buyers and traders. Since the conflict with Serbia ended in 1999, Kosovo's economy have been transformed into a modern economy consisting assortments of central economies and free trade market economies, with governments actions and regulations on supervising and monitoring some aspects of the economic activities.

Kosovo's economy was ruined during the conflict; all economic activities were shutdown, including the international trade linkage. Economy of Kosovo has been solid and it is considered as an open economy, its reconstruction process has been pushed and supported by many international donors. International trade is dominated by imports that result in negative trade balance (trade deficit). Hence, negative trade balance is one of the main economic issues for Kosovo economic environment. Despite, global financial crises the economy has recorded a moderate growth, while its trade balance remains negative. In regard to international trade, Euro adoption in 2002 has made easier the trade process; its share of exports and imports of GDP was relatively 60% by the year of 2011. The subject of the study will investigate the trade balance form 2005-2011 (figure 1. negative trade balance of Kosovo). The reasons why this study focuses on this period is the fact that, after the conflict with Serbia, the reconstruction of country's economic trade environment linkage can take up to 4 or 5 years, and taking into account the European economic crisis of 2010 - 2011 that impacted the international trade.
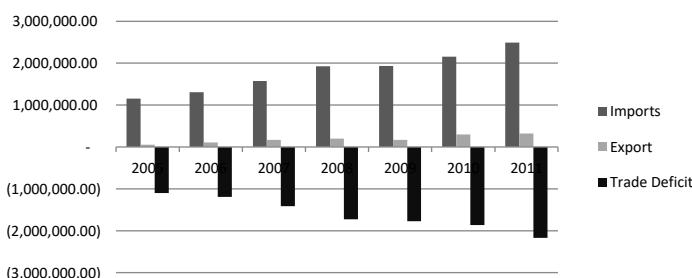
Figure 1 Kosovo's trade balance during 2005 – 2011

Data Source: Kosovo Agency of Statistics (KAS), Author plot.

To improve International trade environment, Kosovo's government needs to develop the process of its political and economic policies review and restructure the functionality of international trade, to strengthen its position on global market. The review of economic policies will help to determine the level of investments and production that are main factors to increase export sector of the economy. Other challenges in improving the trade deficit are trade liberalization and international trade agreements. One of the key objectives of Kosovo government is to boost participation in wider trade facilitating mechanisms, by focusing mainly on trade facilitation that provides various benefits such as release and clearance of goods, including goods in transit and provisions for expediting the movement[2] and import rationalization and replacement including export promotion. Based on United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), trade environment should be integrated with export strategy that results in mutual importance to competitiveness in national and international market. In the nutshell trade, liberalization and trade agreements are not sufficient to improve the negative trade balance. However, the implementation and usage of trade liberalization agreements would support the improvement of trade development.

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[1] With international authorities interventions on Balkan during 1999, Kosovo is set free from the conflict with Serbia. In February 18th, 2008 Kosovo declares its independence.

[2] Trade Facilitation of World Trade Organization

As Kosovo is comprehensively dependent on its imports (around 60% of GDP), important key macroeconomic steps were taken to improve the negative trade balance. According to Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF, 2012) negative trade balance will be enhanced through improvements of domestic efficiency, including real exchange rate depreciation[1] and reduction on wages.

Essentially in economic theory, negative trade balance is not a very uncomfortable situation, implying that negative trade balance usually improves its negative trend situation over time. However, in Kosovo's case, trade deficit is not expected to improve in short-term, since the trend is consistently increasing. Table 1, shows the negative trades balance among the countries where Kosovo's main imports and exports is based. Countries have been grouped into European Union Countries (EU), and non EU Countries.

Table 1 Trade Deficit of flow goods and International trade ('000 Euro)

| | **EU** | | | | **Non EU** | | |
Period	Exports	Imports	Trade Deficit		Exports	Imports	Trade Deficit
2005	21,621	431,977	-410,356		34,662	725,515	-690,853
2006	42,108	449,833	-407,725		68,666	856,046	-787,380
2007	69,370	572,904	-503,534		95,742	1,003,282	-907,540
2008	93,974	701,982	-608,008		104,489	1,226,254	-1,121,765
2009	71,275	755,004	-683,729		94,053	1,180,537	-1,086,484
2010	131,811	825,745	-693,934		164,146	1,331,980	-1,167,834
2011	136,648	946,557	-809,909		182,517	1,545,791	-1,363,274
Total	566,807	4,684,002	-4,117,195		744,275	7,869,405	-7,125,130

Source: KAS, Authors' computation.

Table 1 analysis shows Kosovo's exports for goods and services within EU countries during the period 2005 – 2011 that constitute 566,807 million Euros, while the imports for goods and services for the same period constitute 4,684,002 billion Euros. It is important to emphasize that Kosovo has been part of the CEFTA zone since 2007 and during global financial crisis around 2008, where prices decreased in global market. Thus, Kosovo's economy has been impacted. Table 1 shows a significant decline of 24.2% on total exports in 2009, while total imports continue to increase of 7.6% for EU countries. Based on the analysis, a positive significant sign is evident for Kosovo's trade environment in relation to EU countries, total exports of goods and services in average per annum have been increased of 43.2%, while total imports of goods and services indicates a gradual increase in average per annum of 14.3%. Nevertheless, the expansion in total exports and total imports does not imply improvements on negative trade balance of Kosovo's trade environment. The negative trade balance is estimated to be -4,117,195 billion Euros in respect to EU countries. Similarly, the trend follows for non EU countries, exports of goods and services over the period of 2005-2011 constitute 744,275 million Euros, while the imports of goods and services over the same period constitute 7,869,405 billion Euros. Analysis of trade environment for non EU countries for the year 2009 shows a decline for both exports and imports. Significant decline is evident for total exports around 10%, while total imports resulted with moderate decline around 3.7% for the year 2009 in respect to non EU countries. Furthermore, trade environment of total exports in respect to non EU countries have been increased in average per annum of 37.1%, while total imports have been increased in average per annum of 13.8%. According to analysis from Table 1, Kosovo's trade environment is focused more on non EU countries and its negative trade balance in respect to non EU countries is -7,125,130 billion Euros. Kosovo's export of goods and services for non EU countries is 31% larger in comparison to EU countries, while the imports of goods and services for non EU countries are 63% larger in comparison to EU countries. The negative trade balance of Kosovo's trade environment of non EU countries in comparison with EU countries is larger about 73%. In respect to Kosovo's international trade gap (trade deficit), it can be concluded that, the

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[1] Lowering the relative prices among buyers and sellers or trading partners could imply the real exchange rate deprecations

growth in the market value for exchanging goods and services produced by country's economy over time is very low. Trade balance in such cases is mostly affected by various factors: (i) The cost of production of exporting/importing goods and services of the economy; (ii) the cost of raw inputs and intermediate goods; (iii) real exchange rate movements; (iv) multilateral policies of tax restrictions on trade; (v) non-tariff barrier etc.

3.1 Composition of Kosovo's Export and Import

Nowadays in the fast paced economic environment, trade balance (net exports "NX") of a country is considered as key aggregate indicator of the analysis of a country's economic condition. Consequently, Kosovo is suffering with excessive volume of imported goods and services in comparison with exported ones.

Figure 2 Proportion view of Exports and Imports of goods and services 2005-2011
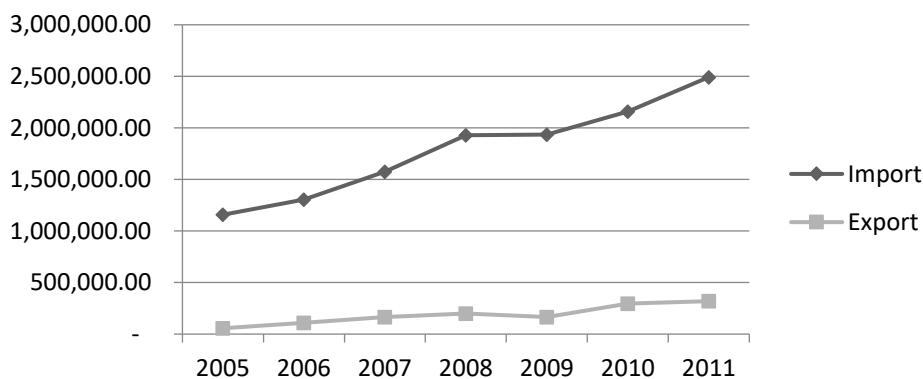
Source: KAS, Author's plot.

Kosovo's main exports and imports are based on EU and countries under CEFTA agreement (including neighbor countries), resulting with growing trend on both exports and imports sectors as shown in Figure 2. Kosovo's goods and services that are produced for export have had an average annual growth rate of 36% over the period of 2005 – 2011. On the other hand, the goods and services that country's economy could not fulfill for domestic demand over the same period, have had the average annual growth rate of 13% on imports. This situation results as the economic development is extremely slow, and resources on producing goods and services to fulfill the actual domestic demand for imported goods and services are not used effectively and efficiently.

Government implemented various mechanisms to expand the efficiency of the country's productivity of export sector (MTI - Trade Policy Framework, 2009). A change that needs to be made into the trade policy framework consists of the harmonization and review of various policies, including macroeconomic policy, tax policy and fiscal policy. However, trade policy is supposed to have a positive effect on fiscal policy, which serves as a channel to conduct successful social and industrial policy. Kosovo's trade policy framework has an impact on the country's budget. The impact of such policy covers expenditure and revenues side of the budget and it has a positive relationship between trade revenues and tariff revenues. The volume of the trade and its impact on country's revenues are also affected by their cost of implementation of World Trade Organization agreement (WTO). Table 2 shows the exported goods based on sectors and their percentage coverage of total exports in the period of 2005 to 2011.

Table 2 Percentage coverage of Exported Goods

% Coverage of Exports	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Food and live animals	9.0%	7.7%	8.6%	7.4%	8.8%	6.3%	5.5%
Beverages and tobacco	4.9%	2.5%	2.4%	2.9%	3.1%	1.8%	2.5%
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	47.7%	38.7%	32.4%	23.0%	23.2%	25.0%	25.4%
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	3.1%	7.7%	7.6%	4.2%	4.4%	3.7%	5.1%
Animal and vegetable oils, fats and waxes	0.3%	0.2%	:	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Chemicals and related products, n.e.s.	2.4%	1.3%	0.8%	1.2%	1.5%	0.8%	1.3%
Manufactured goods classified chiefly by material	11.9%	28.8%	30.7%	52.9%	50.9%	56.1%	52.9%
Machinery and transport equipment	15.7%	8.1%	13.7%	5.4%	4.7%	3.3%	5.1%
Miscellaneous manufactured articles	5.1%	5.0%	3.7%	3.0%	3.4%	3.0%	2.2%
Commodities and transactions not classified else. in the SITC	0.0%	:	:	:	:	0.0%	0.0%

*Source: KAS, Authors' computation. *data that were not available for particular goods classification are stated with ":"*

Kosovo's trade structure apparently has experienced a growth trend of international trade volume (Figure 2). Analysis of Table 2 shows primary goods and manufactured goods exported in 2005, where primary goods covered of 64.93% of total exports, while manufactured goods covered of 35.07%. The analysis indicates different development trend on exports structure in 2011 (upside down trend), as primary goods covered of 38.55% of total exports, while manufactured goods covered of 61.45%. This development suggests that Kosovo's trade performance has been shifted over years in structure of export resources. Primary goods exported over the period of 2005-2011 accounted of annual average of 46.45%, while manufactured goods over the same period accounted of annual average of 53.55% of manufactured goods exported. The classification of the primary goods and manufactured goods has been done accordingly to Standard International Trade Classification[1] (SITC).

Table 3 Percentage coverage of Imported Goods

% Coverage of Imports	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Food and live animals	17.8%	17.5%	17.3%	16.8%	16.7%	16.4%	16.6%
Beverages and tobacco	5.7%	5.6%	5.8%	4.5%	4.5%	4.7%	4.6%
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels	2.0%	1.9%	2.3%	2.3%	2.3%	3.1%	3.5%
Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials	15.8%	16.6%	16.4%	14.7%	14.6%	15.7%	18.2%
Animal and vegetable oils, fats and waxes	0.9%	1.1%	1.0%	0.8%	0.8%	0.8%	0.8%
Chemicals and related products, n.e.s.	10.0%	10.6%	9.9%	10.0%	10.0%	9.5%	10.3%
Manufactured goods classified chiefly by material	19.0%	20.3%	19.5%	19.3%	19.3%	19.6%	19.6%
Machinery and transport equipment	20.2%	17.8%	18.7%	22.6%	22.5%	20.4%	16.9%
Miscellaneous manufactured articles	8.6%	8.6%	9.1%	9.3%	9.2%	9.4%	9.1%
Commodities and transactions not classified else. in the SITC	:	:	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	0.5%

*Source: KAS, Author's computation. *data that where not available for particular goods classification are stated with ":"*

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[1] The Standard International Trade Classification (SITC) distinguishes five main categories (sections) of primary goods: Sections 0 and 1 are often grouped together as 'food and drink', 2 and 4 as 'raw materials'. Food and live animals (SITC 0); beverages and tobacco (SITC 1); crude materials, excluding fuels (SITC 2); mineral fuels (SITC 3); animal and vegetable oils, fats and waxes (SITC 4).

The negative trade balance is addressed mostly from rapid growth of imported goods over the years. Growth in imported goods resulted from increase in prices of products into international market of a category of Kosovo's imports (e.g. Kosovo main import category is Oil Derivate). Prices increased as an impact of global financial crises of 2008 and Eurozone crises of 2010 addressing the public debt difficulties. Hence, analysis from Table 3 above show that, as primary goods and manufactured goods, in 2005 primary goods covered of 42.13% of total imports, while manufactured goods covered of 57.87%. The analysis of imports structure over the years indicates a constant continuity, accordingly in 2011 primary goods covered of 43.56% of total imports, while manufactured goods covered of 58.63%. Overall performance of imports structure over the period of 2005-2011 for primary goods imported accounted for annual average of 41.42%, while manufactured goods imported over the same period accounted for annual average of 58.63%.

Besides looking at exports and imports goods based on sectors, it is important to recognize the destinations of exported and imported of goods to analyze the trade balance of the country. Trade is difficult to sustain only by domestic resources; thus, countries are interested to cooperate together for their mutual benefits.

Trading among countries also increase and reinforce the competitiveness among them. Therefore, relevance of countries destinations is in helping the country's trade environment to identify the trade opportunities, trade barriers and trade tariffs in respect to trade bilateral agreements with each respective country. Table 4 shows the exports of Kosovo's international trade with EU, CEFTA and Other countries.

Table 4 Exports EU, CEFTA and Others in ('000 Euro)

Period	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Austria	1,017	1,211	2,005	2,072	1,978	5,670	5,711
Belgium	19	17	5,587	28,113	5,176	11,455	5,085
Great Britain	72	62	154	173	249	681	1,343
Denmark	142	44	94	53	75	44	52
France	515	232	145	247	639	1,084	1,305
Germany	5,965	3,952	16,190	7,205	7,563	15,587	24,144
Greece	5,522	3,914	8,400	10,851	240	222	194
Italy	5,668	12,654	9,672	25,485	46,218	80,193	83,924
Slovenia	1,231	4,515	4,290	6,304	2,882	6,203	6,001
Bulgaria	970	13,506	10,005	2,632	2,709	6,765	936
Other of EU	500	2,001	12,828	10,839	3,546	3,907	7,953
Total of EU	21,621	42,108	69,370	93,974	71,275	131,811	136,648
Albania	5,784	12,645	20,799	21,113	26,182	30,841	34,566
Macedonia	10,828	9,734	17,384	20,046	17,355	26,308	30,949
Montenegro	743	2,207	2,913	3,770	3,084	3,920	6,988
Serbia	8,158	20,910	19,280	9,893	3,504	3,941	7,198
Turkey	1,041	1,668	2,660	3,044	6,512	9,357	7,831
Switzerland	681	7,047	12,937	7,380	10,510	17,786	17,611
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3,411	5,126	5,287	5,919	1,206	1,847	612
Croatia	928	1,123	1,837	793	2,151	2,744	2,794
USA	182	3	17	286	290	116	182
China	10	5	18	31	1,596	14,779	28,268
Other of non EU	2,896	8,198	12,610	32,214	21,663	52,507	45,518
Total non EU	34,662	68,666	95,742	104,489	94,053	164,146	182,517
Total Export	56,283	110,774	165,112	198,463	165,328	295,957	319,165

Data Source: KAS.

An exports analysis made from Table 4 of international trade data, shows that Kosovo's exports in 2005 within EU countries were based mainly to Germany accounting for 5,965 million Euros and Italy accounting for 5,668 million Euros of total exports. While for the same year, exports in countries under CEFTA were mainly to Macedonia accounting for 10,828 million Euros. Thus, Germany, Italy and Macedonia in 2005, have been main destination of Kosovo's exports, which covered the international trade volume with 11%, 10% and 19% respectively. However, for the international market excluding EU and CEFTA countries, Kosovo's exports have been relatively low. While, in 2011, regarding the EU countries main exports covered similar destinations, Germany accounting for 24,144 million Euros and Italy accounting for 83,924 million Euros of total exports with EU countries. While, the case of exports in 2011 under CEFTA agreement were mainly based to Albania accounting for 34,566 million Euros of total exports. Whereas, the development of exports structure in international market is evident. Exports to China accounted for 28,268 million Euros in 2011 in comparison to 2005 where total exports to China accounted for 10,000 Euros. Thus, Germany, Italy, Albania and China in 2011, have been the main destination of Kosovo's exports, which covered the global trade volume with 8%, 26%, 11% and 9%, respectively. Analysis suggests that Kosovo exports structure has been sustained efficiently, and recorded annual average growth rate of 36% of total exports during 2005-2011.
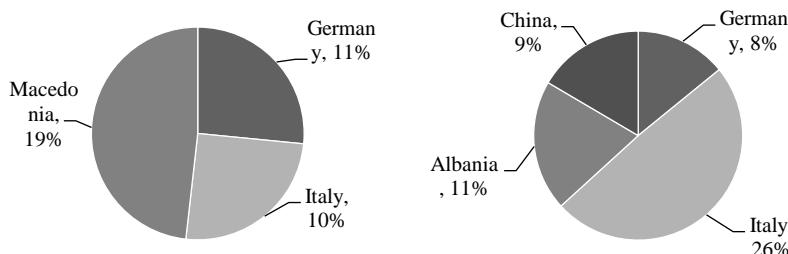
Figure 3 Exports 2005 Exports 2011

Data Source: KAS, author's plot.

Nevertheless, the growth rate in total exports is not a sufficient indicator to imply drastic improvements on country's negative trade balance (MTI, Trade Policy of Kosovo 2009). Trade balance or net exports of a country are defined by the ratio of imports over exports (monetary value or physical value of NX). Therefore, below on Table 5, are shown the imports with EU, CEFTA and Other countries. The comparison analysis of imports and exports in international market is one of key indicators that reveal country's economic condition and its development toward economic growth. Similarly, analysis of imports has been made to see if there exist improvements of trade balance during 2005-2011.[1]

Table 5 Imports EU, CEFTA and Others in ('000 Euro)

Period	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Austria	20,719	23,539	26,842	30,953	38,886	33,126	38,669
Belgium	4,646	4,734	6,012	7,223	6,105	6,394	8,656
Great Britain	7,478	6,378	9,502	12,580	14,133	13,457	17,084
Denmark	1,730	1,806	3,751	6,194	3,413	2,624	3,545
France	19,468	15,834	25,007	37,505	27,166	33,635	34,755
Germany	123,763	122,652	155,031	196,627	246,120	280,617	293,441
Greece	44,027	37,614	63,737	81,403	79,107	96,267	103,179
Italy	49,555	52,461	57,678	74,385	87,646	100,603	159,444

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[1] Economy theory suggests that Country's trade balance improves gradually over time.

Slovenia	54,998	56,001	62,420	66,762	66,249	65,738	71,614
Bulgaria	37,791	58,498	42,008	53,824	44,493	35,211	50,541
Other of EU	67,802	70,316	120,916	134,526	141,686	158,073	165,629
Total of 27 EU	431,977	449,833	572,904	701,982	755,004	825,745	946,557
Albania	18,093	23,108	35,262	59,632	58,385	69,714	96,400
Macedonia	220,148	257,754	237,895	346,536	291,837	319,313	365,961
Montenegro	6,411	17,800	15,063	13,789	13,059	11,454	12,232
Serbia	152,257	191,053	222,534	208,951	210,901	260,471	254,917
Turkey	85,375	97,075	101,827	128,249	141,545	150,360	184,452
Switzerland	18,415	22,800	28,222	32,441	21,949	20,981	22,194
Bosnia and Herzegovina	18,450	18,465	29,838	38,747	59,739	82,986	79,835
Croatia	24,975	28,074	38,982	49,985	58,544	58,542	64,063
USA	17,693	11,555	14,698	23,610	26,703	35,311	42,847
China	54,864	74,655	104,951	121,059	128,318	135,406	170,285
Other	108,834	113,707	174,010	203,255	169,557	187,442	252,605
Total non EU	725,515	856,046	1,003,282	1,226,254	1,180,537	1,331,980	1,545,791
Total Export	1,157,492	1,305,879	1,576,186	1,928,236	1,935,541	2,157,725	2,492,348

Data Source: KAS.

Table 5 shows the imports of Kosovo international trade environment. Kosovo's main reasons for importing are essentials; it needs to fulfill the demand for the goods and services that are not available in country's production resources, it does not have sufficient quantity of the imported goods within its borders, and sometimes is cheaper to import relevant goods and services from abroad due to innovations and technology advancement in developed countries. However, increased imports of primary and manufactured goods that do not exist in domestic market leads in overall growth of productive manufacturing (Lee, 1995). Thus, Kosovo's main imports in 2005 form EU countries were from Germany, which accounted for 123,763 million Euros and Slovenia, which accounted for 54,998 million Euros of total imports. While, in 2005 the imports within CEFTA are mainly carried from Macedonia, which accounted for 220,148 million Euros, followed by Serbia that accounted 152,257 million Euros of total imports. Since international trade volume of imports were mainly carried out by Germany, Slovenia, Macedonia and Serbia, the percentage coverage of total imports of 2005 were 11%, 5%, 19% and 13% respectively. The flow of imports in 2011, have almost similar structure as of 2005, where within EU countries, Germany accounted for 293,441 million Euros, and Italy accounted for 159,444 million Euros of total imports. Accordingly to CEFTA and other countries imports were carried out from Macedonia, which accounted for 365,961 million Euros, and Serbia, which accounted for 254,917 million Euros of total imports. While, imports from other countries were from Turkey, that accounted for 184,452 million Euros then China accounted for 170,285 million Euros of total imports. In 2011 the coverage of total imports by EU countries was covered by Germany with 12% and by Italy with 6%. Furthermore, total exports from CEFTA and other countries were covered from Macedonia with 15%, from Serbia with 10%, from Turkey with 7%, and from China with 7%. Analysis made from table 5 show that Kosovo's imports structure has been marked with annual average growth rate of 13% during 2005 - 2011.
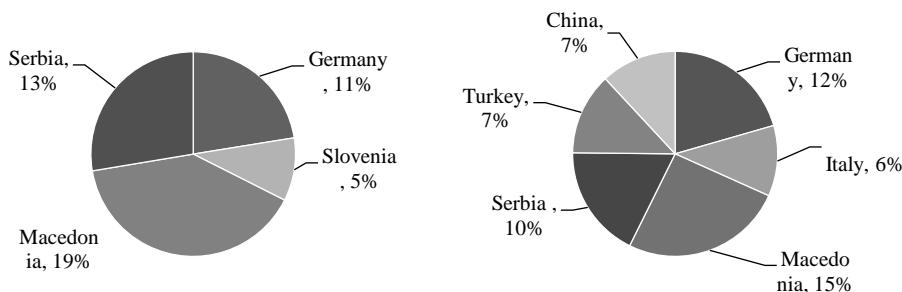
Figure 4 Imports 2005 Imports 2011

Data Source: KAS, author's plot.

Since, the study's purpose is to investigate the country's trade balance from 2005-2011, from analysis of Table 4 and Table 5 (flow of exports and imports structure of the country), it can be concluded that Kosovo's trade balance during the investigation period was improving slightly its negative trade balance. Where annual average growth rate of exports was 36% of total exports, while in the other hand annual average growth rate of imports was 13% of total imports. According to David Hume (1752), increased to exports leads to inflation and higher in prices, while increased in imports leads to lower prices. Therefore, it is very difficult to sustain trade balance of the country.
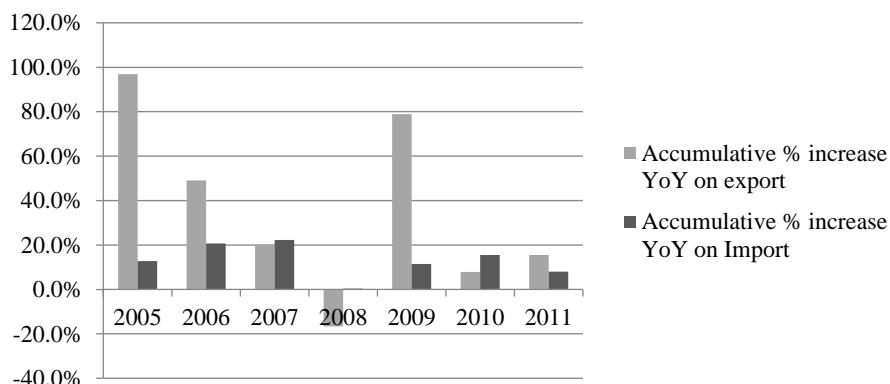
Figure 5 Accumulative % increase Year over Year (2005-2011) of exports and imports

Source: KAS, Author's plot.

In Figure 5, it can be seen that Kosovo's exports participation in the international market is increasing, thus, improvements of productivity and promotion of exports structure leads to export competitiveness (Wagner, 2007). On the other hand, increased imports lead to improvements of country's productivity, while trade growth would contribute to country's economic growth.

Conclusion

Kosovo's economic activities, considering international trade linkage were destroyed during the conflict with Serbia in 1999. Despite circumstances, Kosovo's economy has been gradually recovered into a modern open economy. The main

economic issues that Kosovo is facing remain its negative trade balance. International trade environment is dictated by imports; where shares of net exports in proportion to GDP were relatively to 60% in 2011. The reason of poor export performance are mainly based on social, political, and economical issues that Kosovo is confronting. Nevertheless, government took important macroeconomic steps, as well as developed comprehensive process to review, shift the political and economic policies, to sustain the countries trade balance in long term.

The main suggestion that Kosovo's trade balance could improve in long-term leads to depreciation of the value of the real exchange rate that can help to reduce the trade deficit. Thus, when the real exchange rate is depreciated, it makes export sector more competitive, rising the quantity demanded. Whereas, a depreciation of the value of the real exchange rate would make import sector more high-priced, thus reducing the demand for importing international goods. Sustaining efficiency and productivity in export sectors would require a period of low interest rate and low inflation rate.

The ability of the Kosovo economy to achieve constant continuity growth of exports and to resists the challenges of imported goods to sustain the negative trade balance will depend on economic performance. Improvements on negative trade balance would help the country to reduce the poverty and boost economic development, enhance competitiveness by helping the country to cut the cost of inputs, and recovers the value added of produced output. Foreign direct investments are also encouraged by country's trade performance that facilitates innovations and technology. As a result, trade has an impact into job invention by increasing the employment rate with higher income; also, it helps in boosting the supply of goods and services by implying wider consumers' choice with lower prices (European Commission, Benefits of Trade).

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The Evaluation of the Drafting Process of Regional's Development Strategies in Albania. the Research on Gjirokastra's Region.

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Abstact

The development strategies have a very important role in the sustainable development of the regions. As documents they should serve to guide public policy at the local level in those areas where regions have competitive advantages and to coordinate all available resources to achieve the ultimate goal, the improvement of the quality of community life. Albania is still considered as a country with a significant difference in the development of the regions. In this context and in the new conditions which are created by the new administrative reorganization, preparation of the regional development strategies, and integrated these national strategies are an immediate request. This paper aims to assess the necessity of drafting development strategies, as basic documents that define a general framework of strategic development for every region. Another purpose of the study is the analysis of the process of drafting regional development strategies in general and the District Development Strategy of Gjirokastra in particular. The aim is to assess how is going this process and if there were any problem that may have affected the quality of the strategy. The study was conducted by using the method of primary research and take place in the South region of Albania, in local governments of the district of Gjirokastra, in public institutions and non-profit organizations and various businesses at the local level.

Keywords: Regional development strategies, sustainable development, Gjirokastra's region.

Introduction

The most important goal for any government is to enable the development of the country and to increase the welfare of its citizens by means of state policies at local and national level (Bejko 2015, p.19). In this context the use of strategic planning concepts in the design of policies is crucial, so as to enable a sustainable economic and social development of the regions and the whole country. Alongside development strategies at the national level developed by the government, central institutions in the sustainable development of the country have an undisputed role in the Regional Development Strategies (RDS). These important documents define the main directions in the development of the regions and the priorities according to each area and sector based on the competitive advantages of each region. For these strategies to reach their goals it is absolutely necessary that they be coordinated and coherent with national and sectional strategies. This is the only way to enable a significant reduction of disparities in the development of regions throughout the country and of course a balanced economic and social development across the country. It is high time that regional development and its policies were seen in a new dimension in Albania based not only on the need for more economically developed regions but on a need to be integrated in the EU structures as well.

Taking into account the indispensable role that RDS's, have in the national development of a country there have been attempts to design RDS in the 12 regions in Albania since 2005. Although there might be discussions on how these

strategies are created and on their quality, it should be noted that it was a brave effort that produced 12 regional development strategies that can and should be improved over time in relation to changing conditions, to better serve the development in specific regions and the country in general.

The District of Gjirokastra was the first in Albania who managed to formulate its strategy of regional development with the assistance of UNDP. The District Council in Gjirokastra as the local government unit of the second level, namely in 2005 approved the Regional Development Strategy of the District of Gjirokastra (DSDGJ) using the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), as the foundations for domestic policy that would ensure a sustainable regional development. With the passing of years this strategy was due to adapt to reflect the changes in economic and social conditions in the region and to be better adjusted with the policies and strategies of development.

1.   **The general context of regional development in Albania and the role of RDS-s**

Nowadays the concept of development is considered to be multi-dimensional (Civici 2009, p.4). Besides economic growth, it brings social welfare, changes in the quality of the workforce, better organization of society, better functioning of the institutions, namely the evolution of society as a whole. Development means urbanization, industrialization, education, professionalism, knowledge and wealth accumulation so that human needs are better met.

Worldwide central and local governments, the private sector and civil society continuously look for the right way to promote local economic development as a cornerstone for a sustainable development of the country. Many economists try (Stimpson, et al. 2006, p.4) to maximize economic profit, rather than to seek new approaches to achieve sustainable economic development, which will generate more benefits for people and businesses in the community. Temali (2002) links the concept of economic development with the community's economic development, which according to him does not simply mean to put up buildings and businesses, but it also means to develop your talents, skills, improve the lifestyle of people living in these buildings, of the owners of these businesses and of the people who are their customers. Development means helping the community to grow, helping people live better as individuals and as a community (Temali 2002, p.2).

Stimson, et al. (2006) referring to Blakely (1994) defines regional economic development as: a process in which local governments and the community engage in order to promote business activities and employment. The main goal of local economic development is economic development that promotes employment opportunities in sectors which improve the community by using existing human, natural and institutional resources (Stimson, et al. 2006, p.5).

The term region is widely used not only in literature, but also in daily life mainly in the vocabulary of people who deal with drafting policies, or public officials at all levels. Considered at national level the regions of a country are divided in such a way that areas within a region have similar economic, cultural, social and climatic characteristics. EC defines the region as "land surface with more or less defined boundaries, which often serve as an administrative unit of the state" (Cardiff University 2005, p.10). In the Albanian legislation, the term region is generally equivalent to that of the county.

Regional development policies have undergone significant transformations during the last 5 decades. The traditional planning model in many developing countries, considered regional planning as one of the strategic planning components of the state. During the past three decades, the current global situation has caused this concept to be redefined and rebuilt (Mercado 2003).

The Albanian Parliament approved the resolution in support of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) in July 2003, "... encouraging partners to regularly monitor the progress made in achieving the MDGs, through national systems of evaluation, monitoring and the preparation of annual reports, which encourage public discussion and offer recommendations on ways to improve regional policies and national development. "After setting the MDGs for Albania, objectives and indicators used to measure progress and degradation within regional and local levels of the National Strategy for Economic and Social Development, the process of drafting the RDS's has begun in all Regional Councils since 2003. To assist you in this process, the Ministry of Economy published Manual for the design of RDS's in December 2003.

In each region work began with the drafting of the Regional Reports, in which a full analysis of the current situation in the region was performed and development opportunities for each sector were identified. These regional indicators subsequently served as the basis for drafting the RDS's.

With the help of UNDP, WB, SIDA, and SNV, RDSs were drafted in the 12 regions in Albania in 2005, which had been approved by the respective county councils. These development strategies were conceived as a combination of regional interests on the one hand and of political commitments on the other hand at national and international level. Underlying these strategies are the MDGs and all policies at local level should aim at achieving these objectives. Generally the main objectives of these strategies are sustainable development and improving the quality of life for the communities, poverty alleviation, improving education, improving health care, encouraging the development of small and medium businesses, sustainable environment and better governance. RDS-regional reports in Albania were produced through an interactive and participatory process, which included local institutions, regional and national civil society organizations, international partners, citizens and their communities.

Among the nine MDGs in each of the counties in Albania the objectives selected were those considered as more important given the specifics of particular regions. E.g. the county of Gjirokastra has selected five goals, which have been evaluated as priorities among all the problems the region faces.

Since improving development strategies in relation to changing conditions is very important so as development strategies are coherent, it has been noted that there have been attempts by some counties to update their development strategies e.g. The Regions of Lezha and Shkodra presented new development strategies in 2010, "Regional Development Concept", Lezha region and "Regional Development Strategic Concept" of Shkodra, both with support from the German foundation GTZ and with local and international advice. These documents determine the priorities of development in the District of Lezha and Shkodra and at the same time they determine the action plans, enforcement measures, performance indicators and costs of implementing these strategies.

Even the district of Tirana presented the main directions of its development in 2012 in the act: "Regional Development Concept for the District of Tirana 2012-2017", a document which was drafted with the support of the Albanian Foundation for Local Capacity Development. Although a very good job has been done in this document for the presentation of the current situation regarding the economic and social development in the district of Tirana, we notice that the definition of strategic priorities of development for the District of Tirana, is not accompanied by action plans, by the definition of indicators that will be assessed and not even by a detailed analysis of the costs that will accompany the implementation of this strategy and the planned funding sources.

In a study conducted by UNDP in 2010 related to the regional disparities in Albania it is mentioned that Inter-regional disparities in terms of economic development are still evident. Therefore economic growth calculated by the GDP over the last decade has been unequally distributed in high concentration in the region of Tirana and Durres. Tirana generates about 36% of the total GDP, while it represents only 10% of the active population of the country. GDP differences among regions are very high.

Even in terms of employment figures differentiation between regions has been quite high. Internal migrating movements from the less developed regions to developed ones such as Tirana and Durres has caused deterioration in the employment figures in the eligible counties. Access to water is still a problem: about a quarter of the population has no access to the water supply system. Significant disparities are also noticed among circuits in infrastructure access. Jano (2012) states that Albania does not only have the lowest level of GDP per capita among all member states and candidate countries to the EU, but also its regional disparity has been enhanced by socio-economic structures, inherited infrastructure, the latest developments ,massive migration, and by the lack of appropriate, effective development policies to address issues of regional cohesion (Jano 2012, p.5).

Reports between RDS and NSDI sector strategies should be dual. On the one hand NSDI and sector strategies must be appropriately focused on the development of the territory and on the other hand the identified problems and proposed actions on regional strategies should find their position in the action plans according to the sectors. The latter seems not to have really happened. After seeing the development strategies in the 12 regions of the country we notice that the problems identified in these strategies, in very few cases have been given due importance by being included in national and sector development strategies. This has probably happened because it is difficult to regard RDS as a reference point because of the long time that has passed since the moment of their development, during which these strategies must absolutely be improved and adapted, (which in most cases has not happened) in terms of the evolution of society, the new needs, changes in environmental conditions and the generation of new requirements for the integration of the country in the EU.

In the Progress Report on Albania in 2013 it is recommended that in connection to the programming, administrative capacities must be considerably strengthened, so as to be able to develop and implement realistic policies and strategies. The development of priority projects remains an important issue to be addressed, particularly in connection to the future EU assistance within IPA 2 (KE Progress Report Albania 2013, p.46).

In Albania it is difficult to identify a comprehensive policy framework which addresses all priorities: economic ones, social ones, and security ones, those regarding institutional development of regional and European integration of the country. We have a policy framework often characterized by a large number of strategies, priorities, objectives and initiatives, which often overlap or are repeated and most of them are programmed, implemented, monitored and reported separated from each other. Despite the fact that most of these initiatives are successful, it seems that the country lacks a unified vision and a unique national strategic framework, which above all should integrate the process of European integration with priorities of national development (Meksi 2004, p.25).

The results of the study conducted by UNDP regarding regional disparities in Albania showed that: the country has not effectively applied a policy of regional development. Bilateral relations between regional development and decentralization have not been analyzed and assessed, and truly there is no consensus as to which level regional development policies will be implemented. There has been little progress in implementing the RDCS and its prospects are questionable (Girejko 2010, p.26).

2. An evaluation on the process of drafting the Regional Development Strategy in the District of Gjirokastra (RDSGJ)

Despite the positive efforts that have been made in Albania in terms of drafting the Regional Development Strategies, many conducted studies have identified significant problems in the implementation of these strategies. From conversations conducted with focus groups to identify these problems and to find solutions, it was concluded that one reason may have been the poor quality of the strategy that has led precisely to the lack of commitment from public institutions of local government units in terms in its implementation. Namely to assess the RDSGJ drafting process a study was undertaken that basically had to estimate how this process has been going and if there were any problems that may have affected the quality of the strategy.

Methodology of the study

In the second part of this paper some results will be presented in relation to the process of drafting the RDSGJ, results that are part of a full study carried out in connection with the drafting and implementation of RDSGJ and the problems encountered in this process. The main problem mentioned in this study is the analysis of RDSGJ drafting process, identifying the problems that have accompanied this process in order to try and make the necessary improvements to this strategy thus not remain just a document in the archive, but to actually contribute in the develop of the region. So as to get a more complete evaluation of the situation, it was thought that the questionnaire should be used as a research instrument. It was designed to collect the information needed. In order to achieve the objectives of the research the questionnaire was compiled which was conceived in two different sections to be completed by two different groups of interviewees.

• The first section of the questionnaire, from which information could be collected on the process of drafting the RDS, would be filled by people who had participated in this process. Since the number of these people was small 40 people, it was thought that this part of the questionnaire should be distributed to everyone.

• The second section of the questionnaire, aimed at gathering information on the drafting process of the strategy only by the expert group which was a total of 6 people. This group was deliberately considered because it could identify any problem that may have negatively affected the quality of the strategy.

The geographic area where the study was conducted was the county of Gjirokastra, with its three districts of Gjirokastra, Tepelenë and Permet. Questionnaires were distributed via direct contact with people and a very small number of questionnaires were distributed in electronic form. The review, processing and data analysis of the research was conducted using the program *SPSS IBM Statistics* version 21.

Study results

The analysis of demographic indicators for the first section of the questionnaire (Table 1) from a total of 34 interviewees shows that: only one in 34 (2.9% of the interviewees) were aged 25-30 years, which makes the assessment it has provided controversial about the process of drafting the strategy. Taking into account that the other 33 interviewees or 97.8% of the interviewees are over the age of 31 years, it is evaluated that the results of this questionnaire, at least in terms of age criteria will be valid.

Although selective sampling was used in this survey we tried to assess the level of information that respondents had about the process of drafting the strategy. Since it was drafted nine years ago and we are conscious of the personnel changes that have happened in public administration, this information was considered important for us. Calculating the results (chart 1), we note that only 14.7% of the interviewees have average information about this process, while 85.3% of the interviewees have very good information about this process. Thus it is believed that the information gathered will be very useful to us.

Based on the discussions that took place in the focus groups the problem of high impact that UNDP had in the process of initiation and development of the strategy was identified. This influence was reflected in the content of the RDS, the objectives of which were built based on the MDGs. The following question was included in this questionnaire: "Who initiated the process of drafting the regional development strategy?" We have the following results: 44.1% of the interviewees think that the district of Gjirokastra needed a development strategy, 26.5% of the interviewees think that there was a need to improve the old strategy of development and 23.5% think that there was a wish to adapt RDS to NSSED and 8.8% of the interviewees stated that it was UNDP that initiated this process.

Judging that the quality of the strategy is directly related to the quality of the working group dealing with its design, the interviewees were asked about the selection of the members of this group. From the results we notice that: all interviewees had information on the composition of the working group, 15 out of 34 interviewed did not know how the members of the working group were selected, while the answers of the other 19 people who had information regarding the selection of the members of the working group were spread between the Chairman of the County Council and County Council. There were also answers that did not yield any useful information on this question.

At the same time they were asked about the assessment they had on the composition of the working group that dealt with the drafting of the strategy. 23.5% of them felt that the group was completed with specialists from all fields, 38.2% felt that the working group was partially completed with specialists from all fields, 38.2% thought that the working group had a lack of specialists from all fields.

From the evaluation that the interviewees made how positive was the impact of the composition of the working group on the quality of the strategy (see Chart 2), the results show that only 29.3% assess it to be over the average (positive, very positive), while the rest 67.6% rate it as average or low, and 2.9% did not provide any valid response.

Based on these results we can judge that the absence of specialists from all fields in the working group is an indicator that has damaged the quality of the strategy.

Two questions are used to assess the quality of the strategy in the questionnaire: "At what level do you evaluate the quality of the strategy?" and "At what level do you think the priorities set in the strategy reflect the most problematic issues in our region?" This is done in order to assess how careful and considerate are the respondents while filling in the questionnaire. From their answers (Table 2) we see that the average answers are as follows:

It is noted that the evaluations of the quality of RDSGJ are very close to the average assessment. To statistically assess how important these averages are the T-test is used, from which we see that with a 99.9% confidence interval, these estimated averages are important.

Since the evaluation for the first variable "strategy quality " is regarded with a slight positive tendency, and there is a little negative tendency for the second variable in order to give a fairer evaluation, the coefficient of variation is calculated for both variables:

V = (Standart Deviation / Average) x100

Note that v_1 = 31.3 and v_2 = 29.5, which indicates that the second variable "To what extent do priorities reflect the issues of the region", has a lower coefficient of variation, so the data have a greater homogeneity in relation to the variable "strategy quality ". This argument shows that the priorities defined in the strategy averagely reflect, with a slight negative tendency, the problems in our region. *In conclusion it could be said that this strategy is assessed to be of average quality with a low tendency to negativity.*

In order to gather information about the interviewees' opinion on other problems that exist in our region that should be reflected in the strategy, they have identified as the most important ones: the problems of tourism development, the problems of agriculture and problems of regional economic development (Table 3).

In view of assessing the strategy, information was collected from a group of experts who dealt with the drafting of the strategy.

At first, information was requested in connection to this process from the County Council of Gjirokastra which was the institution responsible for this strategic document. From the information obtained it was confirmed that the process of drafting the strategy had proceeded normally. It began with the appointment of the expert group that would lead the process, then several working groups were created with regional specialists, from the prefecture and public administration that would work to gather the necessary information in order to analyze the current situation (at the time) to identify where the problems were and after that to define the priorities of regional development. After this information was collected and processed, the priorities set in advance were discussed with all interest groups. Their thoughts and suggestions were reflected in the final draft of the strategy which specified the levels of the main objectives that had to be achieved as well as the programs that would be undertaken in order to apply the strategy. According to the regional council the process had been participating, and the priorities set in the strategy were discussed in advance with all interest groups and their consensus was obtained.

Information was taken from the expert group to get a second assessment on the progress of this process. From a total of six members we were able to obtain this information only by four of them. In the information collected we sometimes deal with contradictory answers e.g.: they admit that they had experience in designing strategies, while two experts confess they have not received the necessary training to engage in this process, another expert admits being trained for this . At the same time they accept that the old strategy of the regional council served as a reference document in this process also the UNDP has consistently advised this process.

Question: "Do you think that the working group includes appropriate experts to design a development strategy?" two of them think that the group was partially complete with the appropriate specialists to design a development strategy. They admit having had problems in the process of strategy designation and they list these problems as follows:

• Lack of training or inadequate training

• Great lack of information

• Lack discussions in the interest groups

• Lack of logistical infrastructure

• Lack of support specialists

• The impact of politics on the determination of development priorities

At the same time they believe that their opinions were greatly regarded in the final document.

Based on this information, considering the fact that this part of the questionnaire aims to collect information on a process carried out 9 years ago, and while the focus of this questionnaire is a group of experts, the assessment of the effectiveness of the process of drafting a strategy really does present difficulties. However, we consider that if the effectiveness of this process was high, it would produce a good strategy to implement the requirements of interest groups and would be under continuous pressure from these groups to assess the progress made in achieving the objectives. This was not observed in the years that followed the drafting of the strategy. On this basis we can say that this process has been lukewarm and the strategy has not realized the expectations of the interest groups. This is proved by the results of the first section of the

questionnaire related to the assessment that the interviewees had on the quality of the regional development strategy, where the strategy is estimated at average level.

Conclusions and recommendations

The country's economic development can be achieved by coordinating public policies at the national level with national policies on regional and local level. In this context the role that regional development strategies have in the sustainable development of the country, is very important.

Despite being a condition for the overall development of the country regional development in Albania despite is also a must to integrate into EU structures. In this context, our country still has much to do to bring regions on a uniform development like the EU.

The drafting process of RDSGJ was an inclusive process during which the development priorities of the region were defined in full coherence with the MDGs. The absence in the working group, which dealt with the design of DSDGJ and with the specialists from all areas, is an indicator that has damaged the quality of the strategy.

Analyzing the results, RDSGJ is estimated of average quality with a low tendency to negativity. In this context it could be said that this document does not meet the expectations of interest groups. Therefore under these circumstances it is important to make the necessary changes to the strategy so as to be more coherent and serve the region's development as much as possible. Research showed that 3 important regional problems need to be reflected in this strategy: tourism development problems, the problems of agriculture, and problems of regional economic development.

The study showed that there have been some problems in the process of drafting the DSDGJ, among which we mention: lack of training or insufficient training of the working group, great lack of information, lack of discussions in the interest groups, lack of logistical infrastructure, lack of support specialists, political influence in determining the development priorities etc.

RDSGJ has already lost its value as a strategic document for the development of our region because of the fact that its term is ending, but also because of the fact that the priorities set in this strategy should be reconsidered in relation to economic, social, political and demographic development that have occurred during these eight years since its approval. Under these circumstances based on the previous experience the District of Gjirokastra should definitely start work on drafting the new development strategy in accordance with the requirements of the time.

It should be borne in mind that the process of drafting a new development strategy for the region of Gjirokastra, should be more partaking in order that all interest groups can accomplish their expectations for the new strategy. This will make them more active in the process of implementing the strategy.

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Tables

Table 1: The distribution of the interviewees by age

Age	Frequency	Percentage
25-30	1	2.9
31-40	12	35.3
41-50	5	14.7
Over 50	16	47.1
Total	34	100.0

Table 2: Calculation of averages for variables that assess the quality of the strategy

Variables	N	Mean	Stand. Deviation
Quality of the strategy	34	2.85	.892
At what level the priorities set in the strategy reflect the most problematic issues in Gjirokastra region	34	3.21	.946

Table 3 Problems that should be reflected in the RDSGJ

Nr	Problems that should be reflected in the RDSGJ	Percentage
1	The problems of tourism development	67.6
2	The problems of agriculture	50.0
3	The problems of regional economic development	47.1
4	Maintaining monuments of culture	38.2
5	The problems of development of mountainous areas	32.4
6	The problems of unemployment	32.4
7	Treatment of urban wastes	32.4

Figures

Chart 1: Level of information about the process of drafting the RDS

1	Average
2	Very good
3	Good
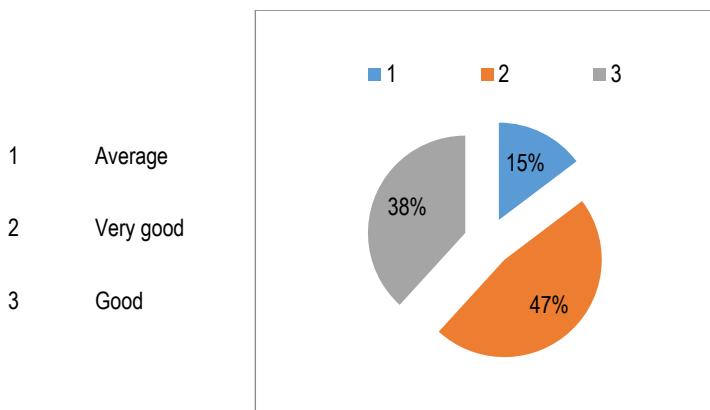
Chart2: How positive was the impact of the composition of the working group on the quality of the strategy
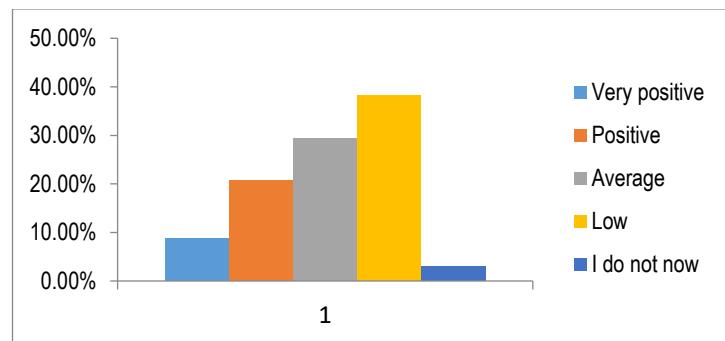
Appendixes

Questionnaire

Section I: The process of drafting a regional development strategy.

This is a questionnaire to be filled in by the County Council clerks or former clerks, and other individuals who have helped in the drafting of RDSGJ.

1. What is your age:

       1. 30-40 years old   2. 25-30 years old   3. 40-50 years old   4. Over 50 years

2. What is your profession? _____

3. How much information do you have about the process of drafting the regional development strategy for the District of Gjirokastra?

       1. A lot 2.Enough 3.Average 4.A little 5. Not at all

4. Do you have any information on who initiated the process of drafting the Regional Development Strategy for Gjirokastra:

           1.   The need there was for a development strategy in Gjirokastra

2.   The need for improving the old strategy of development
3.   The request to adapt the regional development strategy with the National Strategy for Economic and Social Development.
4.   Other_____
5.   I do not know

5. Do you have information on the composition of the working group that drafted the District Development Strategy?

1. Yes 2. No

6. Do you have any information on the election of members of the working group? (Specify)
_____

7. What is your opinion regarding the working group

1. The group was completed with specialists of all fields

2. The working group was partially completed with specialists of all fields

3. The working group lacked specialists of all fields

4. I do not know

8. Do you think that the composition of the working group has had a positive impact on the design of the strategy?

1. Very positive 2.Positive 3.Average 4.Somewhat positive. 5.I do not know

9. At what level do you evaluate the quality of this strategy?

1. Very good 2. Good 3.Average 4.Poor 5. Very poor

10. At what level do you think the priorities set in the strategy reflect the most problematic issues in our region?

1.   Very high   2. High   3. Average   4. Low   5. Very Low

11. In your judgment what other problems should be better reflected in the strategy?

1. Problems of regional economic development

2. Problems of agriculture

3. The problems of development of mountainous areas

4. Problems of transportation

5. Tourism development problems

6. Transnational cooperation

7. The quality of public services

8. Environmental pollution

9. Treatment of urban waste

10. Problems of unemployment

11. The problems of urban planning

12. Food safety problems

13. Social problems

14. The problems in the education sector

15. The problems in the health sector

16. Issues related to business development

17. The preservation of cultural monuments

18. The problems of water supply and sanitation

19. Other _____

Section II: The process of drafting a regional development strategy.

A questionnaire for the group of experts that has been in charge of drafting the Regional Development Strategy for Gjirokastra 2007-2013.

1. What is your age:

     1. 25-30 years old   2. 30-40 years old   3. 40-50 years old   4. Over 50 years old

2. What is your profession? _____

3. Do you have experience in drafting development strategies?

     1. A lot 2.Sufficient   3. Average   4 Little   5.Not at all

4. Have you received proper training to engage in this process?

     1. Yes   2. No

5. If yes, how much did this training help in the drafting of the regional development strategy

1. A lot   2.Sufficient   3.Average   4. Little   5.Not at all

6. Have you had any reference document that served as a basis in this process?

     1. Yes   2. No

7. If so which one was it?

     1. National Strategy for Economic and Social Development

     2. Old County Strategy

     3. Strategies developed by other regions in Albania

     4. Other (specify) _____

8. Do you think that the working group was composed of the appropriate experts to design a regional development strategy?

     1. Totally   2.Partially   3. Not at all

9. What was your motivation in this process?

     1. The development of new knowledge

     2. Positive contribution to the development of my region

     3. Financial incentives

     4. Exchanging views and experiences

     5. Other (specify) _____

10. How motivated were you in the process?

     1. Very much   2. Enough 3. Average   4. Little   5. Not at all

11. If you did not feel motivated, what were the reasons for this?

     1. You were not free to express your professionalism

     2. You did not feel financially motivated

3. You did not have the right information to design a strategy

4. Your thoughts were not taken into account

5. You were constantly pressured to make certain choices

6. The work group did not meet your expectations

7. There was not enough time to judge objectively

8. Other _____

12. Did you come across setbacks in the process of drafting the strategy?

      1. Yes   2. No

13. If yes, what were these setbacks?

      1. Lack of training or inadequate training

      2. Poor communication within the working group

      3. Weak support by the regional council

      4. Significant lack of information

      5. Strong reactions from interest groups

      6. Lack of discussions with the interest groups

      7. Lack of seriousness by the members of the working group

      8. Lack of logistical infrastructure

      9. Lack of support specialists

      10. Poor coordination between governments (county, municipal, municipality)

      11. Bureaucratic obstacles in collecting information

      12. Political influences on the presentation of the situation

      13. Political influences on determining the priorities of development

      14. Other (please specify) _____

15. How much were your thoughts reflected in the final document

      1. Very much   2. Enough 3.Average 4. Little   5.Not at all

Record-Keeping as a Factor Related to Meeting the Personal Financial Ratios Guideline

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Abstract

An effective way through which the families can measure the progress of their financial situation is using personal financial analysis. The aim of this study is to determine that household record-keeping of the personal expenditures and incomes is positively significant in achieving the recommended level of liquidity ratio, saving ratio and capital accumulation ratio. This study was conducted in the region of Gjirokastra, South Albania and this paper presents the partial results of this study. The analysis of personal financial ratios applied for Albania is still a "fragile seedling". As a result, researchers, policy-makers and groups of interest should pay more attention to it. Up to the present day, there is no recommended level for financial ratios of personal financial reviews discussed in any academic projects especially for Albania. In order to perform the analysis of the ratios we have been referring to the foreign researches and their guide levels, from which were selected the guide levels that we shall refer to during the study. Based on the analysis of data related to this study, as well as on the results of Chi-Square Test, it resulted that the managers of household who keep notes on the personal expenditures and incomes are more probable to become closer to the recommended levels of financial ratios. The lack of alternative data led us to questionnaires in order to collect information. After the data was collected and refined, the programs Microsoft Office Excel and Spss Ibm Statistics were used for their elaboration. Chi – square test was used for testing.

Key words: Record - Keeping, Personal Financial Ratios, Guideline

Introduction

The financial progress of a family is related to personal financial ratios and the achievement of their recommended level.

Researchers as: Griffith, 1985; Prather, 1990; Lytton, Garman, & Porter, 1991; DeVaney, 1993 & 1994; Grenninger, Hampton, Kitt, & Achacoso, 1996; Moon, Yuh, & Hanna, 2002; Baek & DeVaney, 2004; Park & DeVaney, 2007; **Yao** 2009; Bieker 2011; Garrett et al, 2013; etc. have suggested or used analysis of financial ratios and their guideline levels.

"Just as stock ratios are primarily based on a company's earnings, the personal financial ratios are based on an individual's income. The objective of the ratios is to help individuals move from a situation of having high debt and low savings at the beginning of their working careers, to one where they have high savings and no debt at the end of their working careers" (Charles & Farrell, 2006, p.1).

Indeed, the application of financial ratios supports several basic skills such as keeping records, thinking analytically, and setting goals. As families begin to understand that meeting one or more of the ratio guidelines could help in avoiding insolvency or the propensity for insolvency, the use of financial ratios and guidelines should be reinforced (DeVaney, 1994, p. 21).

This paper presents the partial results of a wider study related with personal financial ratios, meeting recommended levels of these ratios from households and factors that affect the achievement of the recommended levels. This study was conducted in the region of Gjirokastra, South Albania.

The main objective of this study is to evidence that managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of: liquidity ratio, savings ratio and capital accumulation ratio.

The research tests are as it follows:

Test 1: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of liquidity ratio.

Test 2: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio.

Test 3: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of savings ratio.

Literature review

Liquidity ratio

The basic liquidity ratio further clarifies personal financial status by revealing the number of months the household could continue to meet its expenses after a total loss of income resulting from illness, disability, or unemployment. It is calculated by dividing total liquid assets by the household's net monthly living expenses, (Lytton et al. 1991, p.11). Though some financial assets are not in liquid form, they could be converted to spendable form with little or no loss in value, provided enough time is allowed for the conversion (Prather 1990, p. 55).

Liquidity ratio = liquid assets /net consumption expenditures (monthly), (Lytton et al. 1991, p.12).

Families who are contemplating the purchase of a home, vehicle or major furnishings may want to evaluate the level of debt which they are able to manage relative to income. Other families may be concerned with having a reserve of cash or cash equivalents for emergencies and want to know what amount is recommended; understanding the liquidity ratio and guideline may help them make decisions about the allocation of assets (De Vaney 1994, p.24).

Griffith (1985), has recommended a minimum value of this report at least 2-3. Greninger et al, 1996, p. 67 have suggested that the liquidity ratio to be at least 2.5.

Savings ratio

Savings ratio = annual total savings / annual disposable income

"The savings ratio provides an indicator of progress in achieving financial goals by measuring the percentage of disposable income that is being saved annually. The savings ratio compares all cash inflows over a specific time period, generally one year, to disposable income. If the individual or family does not save any money during the year, the savings ratio will be zero. Moreover, the savings ratio is a measure of the percentage of disposable income allocated for future, not present, goal attainment" according to Lytton, Garman, Porter (1991, p. 18-19). Greninger et al, 1996 has recommended that the ratio should be at least equal to or greater than 10%.

Capital accumulation ratio

Capital accumulation ratio = investment assets / net worth. The capital accumulation ratio reveals how well an individual or family is advancing toward financial goals for capital accumulation. It compares the value of investment assets with net worth (Moon, et al. 2002, p.501).

In fact, "In the formation stage of the financial life cycle, people often have very little money left over after living expenses to use for investment purposes. If money is available, most young people soon use it as a down payment for a home. The investment assets-to-net worth ratio should increase as the family advances through the life cycle"(Lytton et al. 1991, p.21).

Some experts recommend that at least 25 % of a household's assets should be monetary, with that percentage expected to increase as the individual and/or family nears retirement (Carman and Forgue, 1991 cited at Lytton et al. 1991,p. 21)

Under spending has a positive effect on meeting the guideline, which is expected, as saving can contribute to accumulation of investment assets (Yao, Hanna, Montalto, 2002, p.168).

The fact that net worth increased with decreases in household income is an important consideration in working with beginning and expanding families. This indicates that net worth can increase even though income does not increase as well. Young families, faced with increasing expenses of a growing family, need this type of information (Fitzsimmons & Leach, 1994, p. 15).

Vaughn, 1976 has concluded that increasing income is not the only way to increase net worth. The most likely possibility is reduction of expenses via change in quantity, quality, and variety of goods and services purchased (cited at Fitzsimmons & Leach, 1994, p. 15).

In 2015 Xarba, Peta, Bejko recommended technical assistance for the citizens to use not only the earnings with high efficiency but also to manage better their personal expenses.

Husniyah & Fazilah (2011) have noted that "financially stable urban families were those doing budgeting whereas financially stable rural families were those who frequently involved in cash-flow activities specifically doing record-keeping. Record-keeping practice predicted the families to be more financially stable as compared to budgeting"(p. 10).

In an economy such as one started in 2007, homeowners that do not meet the solvency ratio would be more likely to be exposed to the serious financial problem of being unable to keep up with their mortgage payments if they experience an income loss **(Yao, R.** 2009. p.141).

According to Yao, Hanna and Montalto (2002) "Having a capital accumulation ratio guideline is helpful because it helps households to be more aware of their financial healthiness and encourages households to invest for their goals. However, the capital accumulation ratio should be used together with other ratios in terms of assessing households' financial health" (p.169).

Methodology of the study

Questionnaires

As it is mentioned previously in our country (Xarba et al. 2015) it is the first time that it is performed an analysis of the financial ratios of households. This lack of official data on households in Albania, from which we could take data to calculate the personal financial ratios, directed us towards questionnaires that were given to complement to the managers of the households. The distribution of questionnaires was conducted into households of Gjirokastra District in its rural and urban areas, households selection was casual. Data was collected specifically for the purpose of calculating and analyzing financial ratios. While much of the response effect cannot be corrected at the data processing stage of a study, to minimize that portion of response error due to lack of information, the analysis in this study was limited (Prather 1990 p. 59) to a subset of the original sample where the informant was either the head of the household or the spouse of the head of household. This eliminated cases where the informant was the child, parent, grandparent, sibling, or roommate of the head of the family. Thus the original sample of 523 was restricted to 302 cases. Questionnaires were distributed and completed during 2013. Households that had no employees or self-employed persons to provide safe monthly income were excluded from this study. Gjirokastra district consists of the three towns: Gjirokastra, Permet, Tepelenë (Office of Tourism, Gjirokastra) with an area of 2883.98 km2 and lies in the south of Albania, bordering with Korca, Berat, Fier and Vlora. According to the Population and Housing Census 2011 in the district of Gjirokastra are 20,991 residences inhabited by persons with ordinary residence (Census of Population and Housing Census 2011, INSTAT). This sample represents a 95% confidence level with an error ± 5%. A copy of the questionnaire by which are generated data for tabulation of results is attached in appendixes.

Creating and computing new variables

In order to calculate the capital accumulation ratio was necessary to create and compute variables: investments assets and net worth.

Net worth is the amount remaining after subtracting total liabilities from total assets. It is what a household would be worth on paper if all assets (monetary, tangible, and investment) were sold at the current market value to repay all debts (Lytton et al. 1991, p. 20)

Creating variable "Net worth":

A significant indicator necessary for the calculation of financial ratios is net worth. Based on existing theory and using the data collected from the questionnaire was calculated:

Net worth = Total assets - Total liabilities

Creating variable "Investment assets":

For purposes of this study in this group were included all assets that can generate income, the calculation of "investment assets" was performed as follows: "Investment assets" = "The amount in checking account" + "The amount invested in different types of savings accounts" + "The amount invested in stocks" + "The amount invested in Treasury Bonds" + "The amount invested in other financial investments" + "The value of rented land" + "The value of rented warehouses" +

 "The value of rented stores" + "The value of other properties leased" + "Other investment assets"

Creating variable "Total of other personal assets"

For purposes of this study in this group were included: Residence, Vehicle, Furniture, Appliances, Assets for personal use. The calculation of this variable was performed as follows:

Total of other personal assets are: Residence + Vehicle + Furniture + Appliances + Assets for personal use.

To calculate the variable "total assets" was gathered all the amount of personal assets that owns households at the moment of completing the questionnaire.

Total assets = Investment assets + Total of other personal assets + C*ash*

Creating the variable "Total liabilities":

For purposes of this study in this group were included all loans and unpaid liabilities which are shown in the questionnaire (for further more information see the appendix).These are measured by the creation of new variable "total liabilities" which is calculated as follows:

Total liabilities = "The amount of mortgage" + "The amount of the car loan" + "The amount of student loan" + "The amount of other loans and liabilities" + "Credit card debts."

According to methodology used at (using data from questionnaire) Xarba, Peta & Ruspi 2015 were calculated the liquidity ratio and were created the necessary variables for the calculation of this ratio.

To calculate the savings ratio and create the necessary variables for the calculation of this ratio we were referred to the methodology used at (using data from questionnaire) Xarba, Peta, Bejko 2015.

Results of the research

The managers of the household in the sample were divided into 63.2% males, 24.2% females and 12.6% were both males and females.

Table 1 indicates the distributions of the main financial variables which are components of personal financial ratios.

The mean value of total assets were 7175552.58 and the median 5890000.00. In the table you can find all respective values of the mean and median for the main components of personal financial ratios and their distributions.

Regarding to the distribution of investment assets, annual savings, total liabilities and annual debt payment we can conclude that they were more deviated. Deviation was more evident to total liabilities and annual debt payments presented with a median value of 0.

Table 2 shows the distribution of three household financial ratios are discussed and used in this study. The mean of liquidity ratio was 10.8, however median was 2.52. It indicates that many households have unnecessary high value of liquidity ratio, while more than half fail to reach even the minimum of recommended level.

It is worth emphasizing that the mean value of savings ratio is 0.09. It indicates that the level of savings is nearly in the recommended levels. On the other hand, the 5th percentile value was –0.35 and 25th percentile value was –0.03, and nearly a third of households have had negative savings ratios. Negative savings are the result of higher expenditure than income.

Savings ratio must have a level greater or equal to 0.1 (Greninger et. al. 1996), according to Xarba, Peta & Bejko (2015) for this sample only 43% of the households included in the study, meet the guideline.

According to Xarba, Peta & Ruspi (2015) for this sample only 47.4% of the households included in the study, meet the guideline for the liquidity ratio (liquidity ratio greater than 3).

Part of the problem with the Capital Accumulation Ratio guideline is that net worth is in the denominator, because some households have zero or negative values of net worth. However, when the analyses are performed excluding households with zero or negative net worth, there are few changes in the patterns reported. (Yao et al. 2002, p.170).

In our study only 1 of champions who had investment assets with a value greater than 0 had a negative net worth.

Researchers have given their recommendations about the guide level of capital accumulation ratio:

Yao 2009, Moon et al.(2002), De Vaney, Greninger et al. (1996), Lytton et al. 1991.

Considering the literature studied (calculations for this ratio were performed in Excel) the capital accumulation ratio was calculated for the sample studies where the households were classified into household that reached level guide and ones that did not reach. This classification was performed starting from the guide of this ratio suggested by researches greater or equal to 0.5. Only 20.5% of the households including in the study, meet guide level of savings ratio. For detailed information see Table 3.

In the specific section of the questionnaire was measured with Likert scale of 1 to 5 the variable "How often do you record the notes of your household incomes and expenses?" where the respective ratings were: 1 = Never, 2 = Any time, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Always.

In order to measure the impact of record keeping on spending and personal income in achieving the recommended level of personal financial ratios was used Chi square test. The research tests are as it follow:

Test 1: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of liquidity ratio.

Test 2: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio.

Test 3: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of savings ratio.

To perform the above tests was used this variable "How often do you record the notes of your household incomes and expenses?" which is measured with 5- point version: never, any time, sometimes, often, always, compared with the variables "Households classified by meeting the recommended level of liquidity ratio", "Households classified by meeting the recommended level of savings ratio", "Households classified by meeting the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio", variables that were classified into 2 categories: "Households that do not meet the recommended level" and "Households that meet the recommended level".

Test 1: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of liquidity ratio.

From the results of Chi-Square Tests for "How often do you record the notes of your household incomes and expenses?" and "Households classified by meeting the recommended level of liquidity ratio", was concluded that there is significant association between record-keeping on personal spending and personal incomes and meeting the recommended level of

liquidity ratio (χ^2 = *126.395, df=4, p <0.05*, when Sig < alpha, there is a relationship between variables, Table 4).

For concrete research (*V*= *0.647*, df = 4) it was concluded that effect size is very high. According to the result that expresses the relationship between two variables (*V*= *0.*647, Table 5) was concluded that: regularly record-keeping on personal spending and personal incomes has a significant impact in meeting the recommended level of liquidity ratio.

Based on these results it was concluded that managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of liquidity ratio.

Test 2: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio.

From the results of Chi-Square Tests for "How often do you record the notes of your household incomes and expenses?" and "Households classified by meeting the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio", was concluded that there is a significant association between record-keeping on personal spending and personal incomes and meeting the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio (χ^2 = *24.322, df=4, p <0.05*),(when Sig < alpha, there is a relationship between variables, Table 6).

For concrete research (*V*= *0.284*, df = 4) was concluded that effect size is very high. According to the result that expresses the relationship between two variables (*V*= *0.*284), Table 7, it was concluded that regularly record-keeping on personal spending and personal incomes have a significant impact in meeting the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio.

Based on these results it was concluded that managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio.

Test 3: Managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of savings ratio.

From the results of Chi-Square Tests for "How often do you record the notes of your household incomes and expenses?" and "Households classified by meeting the recommended level of savings ratio", was concluded that there is significant association between record-keeping on personal spending and personal incomes and meeting the recommended level of savings ratio (χ^2 = 96.053, *df=4, p <0.05*, when Sig < alpha, there is a relationship between variables, Table 8).

For concrete research (*V*= *0.564*, df = 4) it was concluded that effect size is very high. According to the result that expresses the relationship between two variables (*V*= *0.*564), Table 9, it was concluded that regularly record-keeping on personal spending and personal incomes has a significant impact in meeting the recommended level of savings ratio.

Based on these results it was concluded that managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of savings ratio.

Conclusions

From the 302 households involved in the calculation of the capital accumulation ratio only 20.5% meet the guideline. This indicates that a very small amount of net worth was held in liquid and investment assets. In a considerable percentage of the households in this study, the largest weight of assets is occupied by other personal assets (as we know net worth is calculated as the difference: what I own (asset) - what I owe (liabilities) = what belongs to me (net assets), while for the effect of this study (Total assets = investment assets + other personal assets + cash). A statement that indicates indirectly that income from interests and rents will be very low for a considerable percentage of the studied households.

Xarba, Peta & Ruspi (2015) results indicate that 47.4% of households that were surveyed have met the recommended level for liquidity ratio (p. 55).

According to Xarba, Bejko, Peta (2015) the analysis of the savings ratio results that 57% of households that were surveyed did not meet the recommended level for this ratio. They recommended that government, through its policies, should stimulate savings in our country".

The findings indicate that there is a statistically significant association between record-keeping on personal spending and personal incomes and meeting the recommended level of liquidity ratio, capital accumulation ratio and savings ratio, thus

managers of households which practice record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes are more likely to achieve the recommended level of these ratios.

Only 24.5% (Table 10) households managers have always keep notes. This shows that one of the main factors that has affected in the low numbers of households that have met the recommended level of liquidity ratio, capital accumulation ratio and savings ratio has been because of the negligence of households in record keeping.

An *investment assets-to-net worth ratio* reveals how well an individual or family is advancing toward financial goals other than home ownership as it compares the value of actual investment assets accumulated to net worth (Lytton et al. 1991,p. 20).

No financial ratio created in the United States has been tested empirically of its efficiency of financial status for Albanian households. Thus according to Xarba et.al 2015 it was recommended considering the fact that for our country there is no recommended levels for savings ratio, it is of interest to be studied and determined the optimal level of this ratio for our country.

As families gain understanding of the use of financial ratios, they will want to make comparisons of ratio values using information from past records and to set goals for the future (DeVaney, 1994, p. 21).

According to Xarba, Peta, Ruspi, (2015) researches into households budgets in the Albanian economy in the view of using financial ratios during the transition period has been minimal. Empirical researches in this area have been quite rare in our country. Lack of knowledge on household finances and their management make quite important to attract the attention towards personal finance and personal finance ratios. This emergency is indicated even by world experience of recent years which connects the start of the global financial crisis with household finances and their mismanagement.

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Tables

Table 1: Distribution of variables, components of personal financial ratios

	Mean	Median	Percentile 05	Percentile 25
Disposable annual income	1130706.54	959500.00	335200.00	614000.00
Monthly disposable income	94225.57	79958.50	27933.00	51167.00
Monthly Household Consumption Expenditure	76740.41	68950.00	24200.00	50833.00
annual savings	209821.95	54750.00	-222000.00	-32000.00
Annualy debt payments	50976.16	.00	.00	.00
Liquid assets	823382.05	180000.00	5000.00	15000.00
Investment assets	2372491.32	700000.00	.00	.00
Total assets	7175552.58	5890000.00	565000.00	3625000.00
Total liabilities	295895.70	.00	.00	.00
Net worth	6879656.89	5695000.00	335000.00	3260000.00
	Percentile 25	Percentile 75	Percentile 95	Percentile 99
Disposable annual income	614000.00	1380000.00	2390000.00	3900000.00
Monthly disposable income	51167.00	115000.00	199167.00	325000.00
Monthly Household Consumption Expenditure	50833.00	97292.00	152083.00	215334.00
annual savings	-32000.00	279750.00	1080400.00	1900000.00
Annual debt payments	.00	.00	276000.00	619200.00
Liquid assets	15000.00	900000.00	4100000.00	8005000.00
Investment assets	.00	3500000.00	10100000.00	16500000.00
Total assets	3625000.00	9605000.00	18550000.00	23450000.00
Total liabilities	.00	.00	2000000.00	4000000.00
Net worth	3260000.00	9360000.00	18050000.00	23450000.00

Table 21: Distribution of Financial Ratios

	Mean	Median	Percentile 05	Percentile 25
Liquidity ratio	10.80	2.52	.07	.29
Capital Accumulation Ratio	.21	.13	.00	.00
Savings ratio	.09	.07	-.35	-.03
	Percentile 75	Percentile 95	Percentile 99	Standard Deviation
Liquidity ratio	11.92	43.28	90.24	20.74
Capital Accumulation Ratio	.44	.84	.92	.68
Savings ratio	.23	.55	.66	.30

Table 3: Households classified by meeting the recommended level of savings ratio *The gender of household manager Crosstabulation*

			The gender of household manager			
			Male	Female	Both	Total
Households classified by meeting the recommended level of capital accumulation ratio	Households that do not meet the recommended level	Number	146	65	29	240
		% within total	48.3%	21.5%	9.6%	79.5%
	Households that meet the recommended level	Number	45	8	9	62
		% within total	14.9%	2.6%	3.0%	20.5%
Total		Number	Number	73	38	302
		% within total	% within total	24.2%	12.6%	100.0%

Tabela 4: *Chi-Square Tests* (Impact of record-keeping & liquidity ratio)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	126.395a	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	140.950	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	115.461	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	302		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22.25.

Table 5: *Symmetric Measures* (Impact of record-keeping & liquidity ratio)

		Value	Approx. Sig.
	Phi	.647	.000
Nominal by Nominal	Cramer's V	.647	.000
N of Valid Cases		302	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 6: *Chi-Square Tests* ((Impact of record-keeping & capital accumulation ratio)

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.322a	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	28.444	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	23.321	1	.000

N of Valid Cases	**302**	

a. *0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.65.*

Table 7 : *Symmetric Measures* (Impact of record-keeping & capital accumulation ratio)

		Value	Approx. Sig.
	Phi	.284	.000
Nominal by Nominal	Cramer's V	.284	.000
N of Valid Cases		302	

a. *Not assuming the null hypothesis.*
b. *Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.*

Table 8: *Chi-Square Tests* (Impact of record-keeping & savings ratio)

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	96.053a	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	114.466	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	93.562	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	302		

a. *0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.23.*

Table 9: *Symmetric Measures* (Impact of record-keeping & savings ratio)

		Value	Approx. Sig.
	Phi	.564	.000
Nominal by Nominal	Cramer's V	.564	.000
N of Valid Cases		302	

a. *Not assuming the null hypothesis.*
b. *Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.*

Table 10: Record keeping on personal spending and personal incomes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	65	21.5	21.5	21.5
	Any time	62	20.5	20.5	42.1
	Sometimes	54	17.9	17.9	59.9
	Often	47	15.6	15.6	75.5
	Always	74	24.5	24.5	100.0
	Total	302	100.0	100.0	

Appendixes

Questionnaire

Please circle the alternative approximates more you and your household. Complete the required information.

1. The gender of the person who actually manages the money in the family is:

1.   Male
2.   Female
3.   Both

2. Personal expenditures:

2.1   Please enter your household average monthly expenditure that your family has had to last month:

Attention! Do not report expenditures more than once.

DESCRIPTION	Sum/ALL
2.1.1 Personal expenditures (food, clothing, shoes, detergent, hairdressing, make- up, gifts, fitness, jewelry, etc.)	
2.1.2 Health care expenditures (medicines, doctor visits, etc.)	
2.1.3 Transportation expenditures (fuel, maintenance, license / taxes, tickets, public transport, etc.)	
2.1.4 Debt expenditures (credit cards, car installment loan, personal installment loan, line of credit, etc. excluding home loan)	
2.1.5 Housing expenditures (phone, water, electricity, cables, furniture, appliances, etc.)	
2.1.6 Expenditures for children (day care, babysitters, toys, clothing, etc.)	
2.1.7 Tax expenditures / taxes (taxation and various taxes)	
2.1.8 Monthly expenditures of mortgage	
2.1.9 Expenditures: Monthly rent house	
2.1.10. Entertainment expenditures (movies, concerts, theater, vacations, hobbies, pets, bars, restaurants, art magazines and books, CDs, videos, cassettes, etc.)	
2.1.11. Other expenditures	

2.2 Please enter your household average yearly expenditure that your family has had to last year.

DESCRIPTION	Sum/ALL
2.2.1 Insurance Expenditures: car, life, etc. (not included insurance of the home)	
2.2.2 Education Expenditures (school fees payment, textbooks, courses, etc.)	
2.2.3 Maintenance of the apartment, utilities, repairs, etc.	
2.2.4 Tax expenses for housing, apartment insurance	
2.2.5 Expenditures for charity (donations, other)	
2.2.6 Other expenditures	

3.   Personal Income:

Please enter your household average monthly/yearly incomes that your family has had to last month/year**. (**Attention! Do not report expenditures more than once.)

DESCRIPTION	Sum/ALL	Monthly	Yearly

3.1.1 Incomes from private business			
3.1.2 Incomes from agriculture			
3.1.3 Incomes from livestock			
3.1.4 Incomes from remittances			
3.1.5 Incomes in the form of gifts			
3.1.6 Incomes from workhand			
Salaries of family members are as follows::			
3.1.7 Salary 1			
3.1.8 Salary 2			
3.1.9 Salary 3			
3.1.10 Salary 4			
Pensions for members of the family are as follows:			
3.1.11 Pension 1			
3.1.12 Pension 2			
3.1.13 Pension 3			
Other incomes			
3.1.14 Other incomes			

1. Set below the amount of cash that your family owns at the moment:
2. *Cash* _____ ALL

3. Set below the amount of money that your family owns in checking account:
4. Amount of _____ALL

5. Does your family has saved or invested financial instruments?
6. Yes No

7. Circle the appropriate alternative in which your family has saved or invested money:
8. Accounts, savings deposits
9. Stocks
10. Bonds / Treasury Bonds
11. Other investment

12. Set below the amount on money you have invested or saved:
13. Amount of _____ALL

14. Set below the income derived from the amount of the money you have invested or saved.
15. Amount of _____ ALL earned during one year

16. Does your family has invested in real estate?
Yes No

17. Circle the appropriate alternative in which your family has invested money:
18. Rented land.
19. Home rented.
20. Warehouses rented.

21. Stores rented.
22. Other assets rented.

23. Set below the amount on money you have invested in real estate
24. Amount of _____ALL

25.   Write down the income earned from the amount of the money you have invested in real estate:
26. Amount of _____ ALL earned during one year

27. Houshold liabilities:
28. 14.1 Does your family has taken loans (money owed)?

     Yes No

     a.   Circle the appropriate alternative that shows the kind of loan that your family has taken:
                          1.   mortgage
                          2.   car loan
                          3.   student loan
                          4.   other loans and liabilities

     b.   How much unpaid loan does your family owe?
29. Amount of _____ALL

     a.   Credit card debts.
30. Amount of _____ALL

31. Household assets:

Please enter the market value of the following items:

DESCRIPTION	Sum/ALL
15.1 Residence	
15.2 Vehicle	
15.3 Furniture	
15.4 Appliances	
15.5 Assets for personal use	
15.6 Other investment assets	

14   On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is "Never" and 5 is "Always" determine how often do you record the notes of your household incomes and expenses?

The Impact of Family Income on Students Financial Attitude

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Abstract

This research explores the differences on Financial Attitudes among Albanian university students based on their family income. The main objectives of this study are: i) firstly, to assess students attitude towards money management practices; ii) to examine whether their financial attitude differs based on the level of family income; and iii) finally, to present some conclusions and recommendations for parents, practitioners and students in way that they can shape healthy financial habits. An instrument comprised of specific and personal questions is administered to 637 students from five public and two private universities in Albania. The consistency and reliability of the survey is tested by the dimension reduction technique and Cronbach Alpha test. Data analysis is conducted based on analyse of variance. The results exhibits that Albanian university students do not have good financial attitude. Parental income is found to influence their children attitude towards money issues. Students with low parental income are discovered to show better financial attitude in comparison with other categories. This research recommends parents and other practitioners to teach proactively students about money smart.

Keywords: financial attitude, family income, Albanian university students.

1. Introduction

In recent years there has been a growing concern about student's attitude toward money management. University students make up one segment of the population that especially need to be aware of the impact of their financial decisions. Inadequate attitude toward the importance of budgeting or tracking expenses can lead in misusing money and building bad financial behavior (i .e. plentiful spending on goods and services for the purpose of impressing others) among young adults. The financial decisions made early in life create habits difficult to break which affect students' ability to become financially secure adults (Martin & Oliva, 2001). A large body of literature researches student's attitude toward personal finances and continually reports that students are risked of unreasonable financial attitude and behavior. Dilworth, Chenoweth and Engelbrecht (2000), conducted a research to explore students and their parents' attitude toward everyday finances. They identified seven major themes: necessities, security, luxuries, savings, debts, charity, and money philosophy. Students' participants were found to anticipate major purchases as homes, cars, and new furnishings. Authors suggested that financial education should play a more role to help students nearing graduation to temper their aspiration for luxurious and to learn patience in accomplishing financial goals. In another study conducted to 401 undergraduate students from a mid-sized northwestern university, Coleman explicated that almost half of the participants felt that they knew "more than most". As expected, non-business majors, were unlikely to admit that they knew "more than most" in comparison with business ones. Other studies conducted in the early 2000s (Leila and Laily, 2011; Richter and Prawitz), continued to find that students are not much confident about money matters. Danes (1994) suggested the need for parents to realize when children are ready to be involved in various financial decisions so they can take advantages of these windows of opportunity by creating

adequate financial attitude and learning experience. Hayhoe et al. discovered that if parents used money as a reward, students are more likely to borrow money. According to Jewkes (2009, the majority of children create money habits – good or bad – at home. Furthermore, studies have discovered that students who report high parental income are more prone to spending money, less interested in financial matters and see less need for precautionary saving. Parental income can be used as an indicator of a student's lifestyle, social class, and the resources and opportunities that are available to them (Robb and Pinto, 2010). These results lead to the following questions: Does students' parental income have an influence on their financial attitude? Does higher family income result in not appropriate financial attitude? The main aim of this paper is to explore whether there is any discrepancy in students' financial attitude based on their family income. The main objectives of this study are:

- Firstly, to estimate the level of students' financial attitude based on different classes of family income;
- Secondly, to investigate whether students' financial attitude is influenced by their family income;
- Finally, to draw some conclusions and recommendations in order to help students establish reasonable financial attitude.

This research raises the following hypothesis:

Students' family income influences their financial attitude.

2. Methodology

This study utilizes a questionnaire designed in two parts covering personal and financial attitude questions. The personal section requires information about: gender, age, parental income, work experience, money management source of learning, etc. The financial attitude includes one question on how safe does the student feel about money management and eleven attitude statements to capture their attitudes toward money practices. A five point Likert scale is utilized in order to measure on how the participants agree or disagree with the particular financial attitude statements. Participants are asked to select from 1, if they completely disagree with statement given to 5 whether they completely agree. The average response for the twelve statements provides an overall score for the students' financial attitude. 637 participants from five public and two private universities across Albania participated in the study. Public universities involved in this research are: University of Tirana; Agriculture University of Tirana; University "Aleksandër Moisiu", Durrës; University "Aleksandër Xhuvani", Elbasan and University "Eqrem Çabej", Gjirokastër. Private universities considered are: University "Marlin Barleti", Tiranë and "Kristal" University, branch Përmet. The response rate counts for 95% (607 of 637). Questionnaires completed less than 95% of the questions involved are considered unavailable. Data are processed in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 20). The consistency and validity of the survey are tested based on the factor analyses and the reliability analysis. In addition, the one way Welch ANOVA technique is utilized for investigating the differences in financial attitude based on students' family income. Furthermore, multiple comparisons between different groups, classified according family income classes, are examined by considering Tukey post-hoc test.

3. Data Analyzing and Findings

- ### *The Reliability of the questionnaire*

The internal consistency of the questionnaire is tested based on the value of factor loading provided by the factor analyses of each component included in the financial attitude section. The reliability of the survey is measured based on the Cronbach's Alpha index yielded by the reliability analysis. The high proportion of variance in our variables tested by Kaiser-Meyer – Olkin's **test (KMO = 0.792)** indicates a valuable factor analysis. The usefulness of factor analysis is also confirmed by the zero value (less than 0.05) of the significance level of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. Three out of thirteen components included in the factor analyses are extracted based on the Principal Component Analysis, since they loaded less than 0.4 (Table 1). The other factors loaded resulted greater then 0.4, showing a good internal consistency of the survey. Meanwhile, the Cronbach's Alpha index stands at 0.704 considering all the items that are resulted successfully from the factor analyses. A reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher is considered "acceptable" as recommended by Cavana et al., (2001).

Table 1: Factor & Reliability Analysis

	Factor Loading	
Maintaining financial records	.467	KMO = 0.792
Spending less than your income is very important	.579	
I believe I have in control my financial situation	.614	
I feel capable to manage optimally my future income.	.619	
I am certain about my money spending.	.507	
I feel credit cards are safe and risk free	.296	
I believe is very important to save money each month.	.492	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Sig. 000
I feel life insurance is an important way to protect loved ones.	.585	
I feel is very important to read and understand the contract of an apartment lease or a loan before I sign.	.612	
I like talking with my friends/colleges about money management issue.	.491	
		Cronbach's Alpha index: 0.704

Sample Characteristics

Table below illustrates information about the participants' characteristics. Based on the statistics provided in table 2, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents were males (71%), aged 18 – 22 years old. Almost half of the respondents (48.1%) have reported middle or lower middle family income (greater than 20,000 Lekë – 60,000 Lekë). 36.6% reported upper middle or high family income (greater than 60,000 – 80,000 Lekë, or greater than 80,000 Lekë), and only 10.6% displayed low parental income (0 – 20,000Lekë). Most of the respondents considered school as their primary source of money management learning, and only a third reported their family. The majority (61.6%) reported their university studies to be fully paid by their parents.

Table 2: Sample Characteristics

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	176	29%
Male	431	71%
Total	607	100%
Years of Age		
18 -22	439	72.3%
23 – 29	126	20.8%
30 – 39	37	6.1%
39 and over	4	0.7%
Missing system	1	0.1%
Total	606	99.9%
Family Income		
0 – 20,000 Lekë	64	10.6%
Greater than 20,000 – 40,000 Lekë	152	25.0%
Greater than 40,000 – 60,000 Lekë	140	23.1%
Greater than 60,000 – 80,000 Lekë	121	19.9%
Greater than 80,000 Lekë	106	16.8%
Missing system	24	4.6%
Total	607	100%

Primary Source of Money management learning		
My family	176	29.0 %
School	239	39.4 %
Discussion with friends	21	3.5 %
Media	33	5.4 %
Experience	135	22.2 %
Total	604	99.5%
University education paid by:		
Self	120	19.8 %
Parents	374	61.6 %
Mostly self	31	5.1 %
Mostly parents	44	7.2 %
50% self, 50% parents	29	4.8 %
Others	5	0.8 %
Total	603	99.3%

- **Students Financial Attitude**

In order to capture the level of financial attitude and its differences among students with different family income, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and descriptive statistics are conducted. Table 3 below provides detailed information about the mean and standard deviation according to different groups' income. Statistics demonstrates that students scores around four at the financial attitude showing not a satisfactory performance, since the upper limit is 10. The overall score of financial attitude is illustrated to be statistically significant among different groups (F = 3.069, sig. = 0.016).

Table 3: ANOVA

	Mean	Standard Deviation	
0 – 20,000 Lekë	4.07	.582	
Greater than 20,000 – 40,000 Lekë	3.95	.596	F = 3.069
Greater than 40,000 – 60,000 Lekë	4.01	.575	
Greater than 60,000 – 80,000 Lekë	4.03	.415	Sig. 0.016
Greater than 80,000 Lekë	3.95	.663	

In closer inspection of the data, it can be observed that students who have reported the lowest family income (0 – 20,000 Lekë) have yielded the highest score of financial attitude (M = 4.07), followed by students with middle or upper middle family income (M = 4.01, M = 4.03). Students, who declared lower middle parental income and those with the highest ones, are shown to perform worse in financial attitude. This statistics support the hypothesis that students' parental income influences their financial attitude.

The Tukey Post Hoc test (table 4) provides evidence about the multiple comparisons of the financial attitude scores based on the variable family income. Results reveal a statistically significant discrepancy in financial attitude scores among students with lowest family income and those of lower middle family income. The mean difference between the lowest income students and the highest one is shown to be significant at 90% level of significant. *This outcome approves the hypothesis that students' family income affects their financial attitude level.*

Table 4: Tukey Post Hoc Test

(I) Family Income	(J) Family Income	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Interval	Confidence
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0-20,000 Leke	Greater than 20,000 – 40,000 Lekë	.122*	.044	.042	.00	.24
	Greater than 40,000 – 60,000 Lekë	.068	.044	.533	-.05	.19
	Greater than 60,000 – 80,000 Lekë	.043	.045	.880	-.08	.17
	Greater than 80,000 Lekë	.124	.047	.064	.00	.25
Greater than 20,000 – 40,000 Lekë	0-20,000 leke	-.122*	.044	.042	-.24	.00
	Greater than 40,000 – 60,000 Lekë	-.054	.034	.523	-.15	.04
	Greater than 60,000 – 80,000 Lekë	-.079	.036	.175	-.18	.02
	Greater than 80,000 Lekë	.001	.038	1.000	-.10	.10
Greater than 40,000 – 60,000 Lekë	0-20,000 leke	-.068	.044	.533	-.19	.05
	Greater than 20,000 – 40,000 Lekë	.054	.034	.523	-.04	.15
	Greater than 60,000 – 80,000 Lekë	-.026	.037	.956	-.13	.07
	Greater than 80,000 Lekë	.055	.038	.601	-.05	.16
Greater than 60,000 – 80,000 Lekë	0-20,000 leke	-.043	.045	.880	-.17	.08
	Greater than 20,000 – 40,000 Lekë	.079	.036	.175	-.02	.18
	Greater than 40,000 – 60,000 Lekë	.026	.037	.956	-.07	.13
	Greater than 80,000 Lekë	.081	.040	.245	-.03	.19
Greater than 80,000 Lekë	0-20,000 leke	-.124	.047	.064	-.25	.00
	Greater than 20,000 – 40,000 Lekë	-.001	.038	1.000	-.10	.10
	Greater than 40,000 – 60,000 Lekë	-.055	.038	.601	-.16	.05
	Greater than 60,000 – 80,000 Lekë	-.081	.040	.245	-.19	.03
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.						

4. Conclusions, Discussions and Recommendations

This study exhibits the financial attitude of 607 students from multiple universities across the country. It reveals the level of financial attitude and its discrepancy among Albanian university students based on their family income. The study provides evidence that Albanian university students do not have a good attitude towards personal finance. One of the factors found to affect their attitude on personal finances is their parental income. Evidences suggest that students with low level of family income are more likely to have a better financial attitude in comparison with students with other parental income.

The outcomes of this research can be mainly explained by the inappropriate parental guidance about money management practices. Parents mostly neglect teaching children money matters everywhere. Students with higher parental income may have the attitude that money comes easily and they can buy whatever they want. The statistics of this study demonstrated that most of the students declared their university studies to be fully paid by their family. By not knowing the value of working for money and having almost financed their living and education spending, students are not fostered to prioritize, tracking expenses and following a monthly budget. On the other hand, students with low parental income may have being faced with difficulties early in life and have learn that money matters.

Training parents on how to teach children healthy financial habits will make them capable to teach and model positive financial habits in the home. It is essential to parents to educate children to set priorities and give them a personal allowance

in order to value money and their education. They can instruct their children for good or bad. Parents can teach their children that "money values", or "money is there to be spent". Finally, Proverbs 22:6 says: "Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it." Except the role of parents, institutions of higher education, banks and professionals could offer seminars to students on the importance and ways to establish a proactively financial lifestyle.

It is recommended that further quantitative research can be conducted in order to verify the other factors affecting students' financial attitude. In addition, future qualitative studies would be useful to gain insight in depth of students' financial attitude. Furthermore, other studies could be undertaken to understand the correlation between students' financial attitude and behavior. Finally, future researches can utilize the logistic regression method of study, in order to explicate students' financial attitude by considering other variables simultaneously.

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Life Satisfaction and Intercultural Tolerance Interrelations in Different Cultures

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Abstract

*Summarizing the results of different researches on intercultural interaction, we can state that people feel tension in intercultural contacts when they perceive the situation as threatening their well-being. There are also many empirical evidences that people belonging to different cultures understand well-being in different ways. This understanding depends also on social, economic and other factors. Thereby it is important to study general relationships of subjective well-being and intercultural tolerance and cultural specifics of these relationships. Objectives of the empirical study was to analyze the satisfaction with life as an important factor of cross-cultural interaction; to reveal cultural specifics of modern representations of subjective well-being, and interrelations of the styles of intercultural interaction with subjective well-being in different cultures. **Methods: Scales of: Psychological well-being (Ryff), Life Satisfaction (Neugarten, Havighurst, & Tobin), Subjective Happiness (Lyubomirsky & Lepper), General Communicative Tolerance (Boiko) and Ethnic Identity Types (Soldatova, Ryzhova), Student's T-test, Spearman's rank correlation. Sample: 330 persons** (18-55 years old) of 10 different nations and 5 religions. By the time of the survey, all the participants had lived in Russia for some (not less than 3) years, all of them lived in some biggest Russian cities.Results: It was discovered, that people's satisfaction with their lives directly relates to general and intercultural tolerance. People, more satisfied with their lives, are usually better control their negative emotions, adapt to changing situations, forgive others' mistakes. Such people admit their and others' ethnicity and more rarely exhibit extremism in inter-ethnic relations, although they often avoid contact with other ethnic groups. Cross-cultural differences in well-being were revealed among residents of modern Russian big cities. In particular, people belonging to the Jewish religion, were significantly more satisfied with their lives than all the others were. People brought up in the Orthodox culture, were the least satisfied. In many subjective well-being indicators, representatives of the Buddhist and Muslim cultures showed quite good results. Different statistically significant connections between subjective well-being and tolerance were revealed in cultural subgroups. For example, for people belonging to Jewish religion, general tolerance is associated mostly with meaningfulness of life and openness to the world; and ethnic tolerance is associated to environmental mastery and personal growth. For Buddhists meaningfulness of life positively correlates with general and ethnic tolerance, and personal growth correlates only with ethnic tolerance. Muslims showed the similar results, but besides – the correlations of both types of tolerance with ppurposefulness and overall mood tone. For Orthodox Christians, both types of tolerance is mostly related to positive relations with others and overall level of subjective well-being. Conclusions: the life satisfaction and subjective well-being are important factors of intercultural interactions. There are common and culturally specific mechanisms of these factors interaction. In psychological support of cross-cultural interaction it is important to take into consideration cultural differences in well-being understanding and its relations with general and intercultural tolerance.*

Keywords: Ethnic Identity, Ethnic Tolerance, Life satisfaction, Subjective well-being, Cross-cultural differences, Religion

1. Introduction

Globalization processes of the recent decades have made the problem of cross-cultural tolerance among the most pressing. Tolerance is seen as one of the central mechanisms of cross-cultural adaptation, that aims to ensure the person's optimal entry into new society and the optimal development and functioning of society as a whole (Novikova, Ibadova, 2009). More and more researches on this issue reject the understanding of tolerance as a passive acceptance of new rules and regulations, and increasingly spreading the view that tolerance is an active acceptance of the world diversity, active attitude towards the others based on respect and acceptance (Vinogradov, 2002). With such understanding of tolerance its essence is considered by modern researchers as a value attitude of the person to another person. The following components are allocated: the empathy for others and the recognition of the value of cultural diversity (Asmolov, 2000; Soldatova & Shaygerova, 2008), the readiness for the dialogue with others (Mirimanova, 2004), the attitude toward mutual changes during such a dialogue (Lektorsky, 1997).

I.Novikova and T. Ibadova in their empirical study showed that the tolerance as a complex concept includes various levels and, consequently, the variety of factors, among which social and social-psychological factors have the leading role. The

following features characterize the subject of tolerance – the tolerant person: it is friendly and altruistic, not selfish and aggressive, open for various forms of social interaction (Novikova, Ibadova, 2009).

Interethnic tolerance is also considered in the context of John Berry's theory of intercultural strategies. Berry understood the strategy of intercultural interaction as the link between attitudes and actual behavior (Berry, 1997). Numerous empirical studies have shown a relationship between acculturation strategies and styles of ethnic identity (Chebotareva, 2012, 2014 a,b,c; Novikova, 2011; Novikova & Novikov, 2013, Novikova & Novikov, 2015). Berry allocated the types of ethnic identity with different quality and degree of ethnic tolerance on the basis of a wide range of ethnocentrism scale, ranging from identity denial when negativity and intolerance towards one's own ethnic group are fixed, and ending national fanaticism - the apotheosis of intolerance and a higher degree of negativity towards other ethnic groups. He considered integration, wherein minority representatives harmoniously combine positive attitudes toward their own culture and dominant community. The assimilation (abandoning of the traditional cultures to strengthen ties with the dominant culture) and the separation (avoidance of the ties with larger society) are considered less positive strategies. The most destructive strategy, according Berry, is the marginalization (lack of adherence to any culture). Berry (1997) The extreme forms of ethnocentrism is associated with religious fanaticism and racism and lead to violence and aggression (Saressalo, 1977).

On the basis of Berry's theory G.U. Soldatova and S.V. Ryzhova developed the typology and technique for assessing the ethnic identity types. They allocated the following types: Ethnic nihilism – removing from one's own ethnic groups and looking for social ties not on ethnic criteria; Ethnic indifference - ethnic identity blurring , irrelevance of the ethnicity; Positive ethnic identity - optimal balance of tolerance towards one's own and other ethnic groups; Ethnic egoism - recognition of own nation's right to solve problems for the "foreign" account; Ethnic isolationism - belief in one's nation superiority and xenophobia; Ethnic bigotry (fanaticism) suggesting the willingness to go all lengths for the sake of ethnic interests, denying the other nations rights to use any resources and social privileges, recognition of the priority of ethnic rights over human rights, excuse of any sacrifice in the struggle for own nation well-being (Soldatova. & Shaygerova, 2003).

Often, as a system component, the foundations of tolerance the subjective well-being is pointed out, providing the foundation and premise of tolerant behavior of the person (Bakhareva, 2004).

Subjective well-being (SWB) has become one of the most popular subject of psychological research over the past decades (Diener et all, 1999). Currently, it is common to identify two components of subjective well-being: affective and cognitive. The affective component is considered as a hedonic balance (balance of pleasant and unpleasant affects). The cognitive component is understood as a person's evaluations of his or her life according to some standards. Such standards are primarily linked by researchers with the culture in the broadest sense of the notion.

Many researchers proved that both components of SWB are influenced by personality (Diener et all, 1999) and by culture (Diener & Suh, 1999). The studies of SWB and culture interaction showed that culture influences SWB directly and indirectly. There are a lot of evidences that people in individualistic, rich, and democratic cultures have higher levels of SWB than in collectivistic, poor, and totalitarian cultures (Diener & Suh, 1999; Veenhoven, 1993). Besides, culture moderates the relation between hedonic balance (important aspect of SWB) and life satisfaction. For example, it was demonstrated that the relation between hedonic balance and life satisfaction was significantly stronger in individualistic cultures than in collectivistic cultures (Suh et al., 1998). SWB in individualistic and collectivistic cultures is determined by the fact that individualistic cultures emphasize individuals' needs and freedom of choice, whereas collectivistic cultures emphasize others' needs, duties and reliance on one's fate (Triandis, 1995). Luo Lu proved that culture-specific modes of self-construction lead to the diverse meanings people hold for happiness and well-being in different societies. In particular, the author said that subjective well-being for the Chinese was construed around fulfilling one's obligations and maintaining homeostasis (dialectical balance). In contrast, modern Western individual-oriented view of the self was related to understanding happiness as "a prize to be fought over, and entirely one's responsibility to accomplish this ultimate goal of life" (Lu. 2008, 290).

Therefore, culture serves as a major force determining the way people conceptualize the self, understand happiness, set life-goals and select strategies of the goals achieving. Most studies have focused on the question, how subjective well-being and life satisfaction can be modeled by cultural values (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Schwartz et al,2001).

Therefor compilation of the data from different empirical studies lets us to reveal not only cultural specifics of the nature of SWB and life values interaction. The main conclusion is that the dimension of collectivism - individualism is an important

factor defining life satisfaction level and understanding of well-being in different cultures. But by now not enough studies of different cultures have been accumulated in order to be able to deduce some universal laws. Moreover, most cross-cultural studies were conducted with representatives of different countries or with emigrants and locals. We consider it is important to study how different types of cultures (nationality, religion and region) together influence the person's subjective well-being in the context of intercultural interaction.

.In one of our research it was shown that different types of cultures in conjunction influence persons and their social interaction styles. For example, that Muslims from different regions of the world have different styles of interethnic interaction (Chebotareva, 2014a). Therefor it is important to complete numerous cross-ethnic studies with the studies of other types of cross-cultural differences, including cross-religious.

In our previous studies it was discovered that there are significant cross-cultural differences in life values and subjective well-being among residents of one country (Russia), belonging to different cultures. These differences have their sources in religious attitudes and settings. People of different cultures associate their well-being and life satisfaction with different values. Generally, well-being and life satisfaction are directly related to the values, less popular in certain culture (Chebotareva, 2015). The aim of this paper is to discuss the satisfaction with life as an important factor of cross-cultural interaction; to reveal cultural specifics of modern representations of subjective well-being, and interrelations of the styles of intercultural interaction with subjective well-being at people, belonging to different religious, living in one country.

1.   **Method**
1.1.   Participants

The empirical study sample consisted of 330 persons (18-55 years old) of 10 different nations (Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian, Armenian, Georgian, Azerbaijan, Tatar, Uzbek, Tajik and Jew). Among the participants there were representatives of 5 religions: Orthodox Christians (90 persons), Catholics (44), Muslims (65), Buddhists (71), Jews (60). All the religious groups were aligned by gender and age. The respondents were not very religious, but they were brought up in the spirits of their religions. By the time of the survey all the participants had lived in Russia for some (not less than 3) years.

1.2.   Materials

Personal information form consisted of questions about gender, age, profession, country of origin, nationality, religion, period of stay in Russia.

Subjective well-being was estimated by 3 techniques "Scales of psychological well-being" *(Ryff, 1989, adapted by Shevelenkova, Fesenko).* The inventory consists of 84 statements reflecting the six areas of psychological well-being: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with other, purpose in life and self-acceptance. Indicators of different scales are combined into three integral indicator: affect balance, meaningfulness of life, openness to the world.

"Life Satisfaction Index-A" (LSI-A)*" (Neugarten*, Havighurst, & Tobin, 1961, adapted by Panina) measures the overall psychological state of the person, which is determined by the personal characteristics, the system of one's relations in various life aspects. It consists of 20 questions; the results of the responses are reduced to 5 scales characterizing different aspects of the person's life satisfaction. These include zest (as opposed to apathy), resolution and fortitude, congruence between desired and achieved goals, positive self-concept and mood tone. The persons showing high scores on the questionnaire, usually take pleasure in their daily activities, find their life meaningful, and have feeling of success in achieving major goals, positive self-images and optimism.

"Subjective Happiness Scale" (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999, adapted by Leontiev, 2000) is the express (4-item) scale, designed to assess the current psychological state of the person. It shows a subjective assessment of whether one is a happy or an unhappy person.

The tolerance was diagnosed by two techniques. The technique "Types of ethnic identity" (G.U.Soldatova, S.V.Ryzhova) allows the diagnosis of ethnic identity and its transformation in the context of the ethnic interaction. The questionnaire contains six scales that correspond to the types of ethnic identity, described above. (Soldatova & Shaygerova (Ed.), 2008).

"Diagnostics of the General Communicative Tolerance" (V.V. Bojko). The questionnaire items are grouped into nine scales: Rejection or misunderstanding of other persons' identity; Using oneself as a standard when assessing the behavior and way of thinking of other people; Categoricity or conservatism in the estimates of other people; Inability to hide or smooth over bad feelings when faced with some uncommunicative characteristics of the partners; Desire to change, reeducate the partners; Desire to fit partners for themselves, to make them "convenient"; Inability to forgive the others' mistakes, clumsiness, unintentionally caused trouble; Intolerance to physical or mental discomfort caused by the other people; Inability to adapt to the character, habits and desires of others. (Soldatova & Shaygerova (Ed.), 2008)

We used statistical techniques: descriptive statistics, Mann — Whitney U-test, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

1.3.   Procedure

The procedure of the research was approved by the Department of Social and Differential Psychology of Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (PFUR). We used snowball sampling method: first members of international research group recruited the subjects from their acquaintances working in different spheres, then these people recruited their acquaintances and so on. The surveys were conducted personally during 2-3 meetings, 30 minutes each. All the participants were informed by the researchers about the aims of the study before the measures were administered. For obtained data analysis we used statistical techniques: Mann — Whitney U-test, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

2.   Results
2.1.   Cross-cultural peculiarities of life satisfaction and subjective well-being.

The assessment of life satisfaction and subjective well-being levels of different religions representatives with all three techniques showed that the overall satisfaction with life in the whole sample is average. Among the indicators of life satisfaction resolution and fortitude and positive self-concept are most expressed, though the average for the sample of these indicators does not exceed the average values of other scales. Among the indicators of subjective well-being scales of affect balance, meaningfulness of life and openness to the world are most expressed.
The comparative analisis sais that people, belonging to Judaism, have slightly better results on all the scales of "Life Satisfaction Index" as well as on overall level of life satisfaction. Orthodox Christians showed the lowest result on overall level of life satisfaction and on scale of positive self-concept. Muslims responded the lowest level of zest for life, Catholics - the lowest level on the scale of resolution and fortitude, Buddhists showed lowest results on the scale of congruence between desired and achieved goals.

The data on the Subjective Happiness Scale show the higher level of it at Muslims and the lowest – at Orthodox Christians.

The data of Psychological Well-being Scale show that overall level of SWB again is the highest at Jews, and the lowest at Orthodox Christians. However, in separate scales we can see a bit different results: in most scales of the test, Buddhists responded the highest results, and Catholics – the lowest results. Only on the scale of the balance of affect, Catholics have best results, and Jews – the lowest one.

Pairwise comparison of indicators of life satisfaction and subjective well-being helped us to find main religious differences. So, people belonging to the Jewish religion, are significantly more satisfied with their lives than all the others. People brought up in the Orthodox Christian culture, are the least satisfied with their lives. In many subjective well-being indicators, representatives of the Buddhist and Muslim cultures show quite good results.

Comparative analysis of life satisfaction and subjective well-being among representatives of various religious groups in connection with their life values are represented in our article «Cultural Specifics of Life Values and Subjective Well – Being» (Chebotareva, 2015). It is shown that each religious group has specific structure of subjective well-being indicators and specific correlations of subjective well-being with their live values. However, in general, life satisfaction correlates with those values, which are less important for certain culture. Perhaps, persons, oriented on traditional and culturally important values are less happy than those, who are oriented for their individual ones.

2.3. Cross-cultural peculiarities of tolerance.

Table 1 presents the data on the ethnic identity styles severity in the studied groups. According to these data, the representatives of all religious groups have most strongly expressed positive ethnic identity, the second most popular style is ethnic indifference. The rest of the ethnic interaction styles in different religious groups are represented in different ways, but less than the first two styles. The positive ethnic identity is most strongly expressed at the representatives of Islam and Buddhism, and the weakest – at the Jews. The highest ethnic nihilism and ethnic indifference found at Catholics, the lowest – at the Jews and Muslims. The indexes of all three hyper-identity styles are most strongly expressed at Catholics and least expressed - at Buddhists.

Statistically significant differences in positive ethnic identity styles between the discussed groups were not identified. According to the degree of ethnic indifference Catholics significantly superior to the Orthodox, Buddhists and Muslims. According to the degree of ethnic nihilism Catholics significantly superior only to Buddhists.

Thus, along with total domination of positive ethnic identity, representatives of various religious groups are significantly different in the degree of severity of other styles of interethnic interaction. In general, Catholics more than others tend to underestimate the importance of ethnic differences, do not take into account the cultural identity in interpersonal interaction. Buddhists less than others tend to ignore their own ethnicity. Almost all indicators of hyper-identity revealed significant differences between the Buddhists and all other groups. Buddhists less than all others inclined to put the interests of their ethnic group above others.

Table 2 presents the data on the communicative tolerance of members of religious groups. In general, they confirm and clarify the results of the comparative analysis of the ethnic identity styles. The overall level of intolerance is highest at Catholics and lowest – at Buddhists. Significant differences in this parameter are revealed between Catholics on the one hand, and Buddhists and Orthodox - on the other. In the separate parameters of communicative intolerance significant differences are found between the Catholics on the one hand, and Buddhists, Muslims and Orthodox on the other hand in the indicators of rejection of others' identity, categoricity or conservatism, Inability to hide bad feelings. Moreover, Buddhists much more likely than Catholics to forgive the others their mistakes. But the Orthodox, compared with the Catholics, are more tolerant to psychological and physical discomfort. Buddhists, compared with the Orthodox and Muslims, are much easier to forgive others their mistakes and to adapt themselves to the peculiarities of other people.

There were no statistically significant differences in the communicative tolerance of Muslims with Orthodox and Jews, between Buddhists and Jews. Jews, compared to Catholics, better accept the individuality of others, and in comparison with the Orthodox, less eager to change the others.

Thus, a relatively low tolerance of Catholics is manifested primarily in their lower acceptance of individual characteristics of different people, in greater conservatism and categoricity, in lower ability to keep their negative feelings. The relatively high tolerance of Buddhists is shown in their greater ability to adapt to others and to forgive their mistakes. Judah relatively better take other people's individuality and does not seek to re-educate and change them.

2.4. Life satisfaction and tolerance interaction

We can see in the table 3, that positive ethnic identity correlates directly with the overall level and with the most life satisfaction aspects. This result support widespread idea, that any tension in interaction is connected to person's perception of their well-being, level of their needs satisfaction, threats of their life values.

We can also see that indicators of hyper – identity in interethnic interaction doesn't show significant correlations with life satisfaction. Only hypo-identity indexes correlates inversely with life satisfaction. Overall level of life satisfaction and positive self-concept negatively relate to ethnic nihilism and ethnic indifference. The result is also quite predictable. Positive attitude to oneself interrelates with positive attitudes to the others, including representatives of other cultures. Resolution and fortitude negatively relates only to ethnic nihilism.

According to the table 4, the index of subjective happiness, reflecting emotional aspect of SWB, does not show any significant correlations with the positive ethnic identity. It correlates directly with ethnic isolationism and inversely – with ethnic indifference. Therefore, people, who feel more happy, have a tendency to pay more attention to the ethnic differences and to avoid contacts with other cultures representatives.

As seen in Table 5, subjective well-being indicators show significant correlations with many styles of ethnic identity. The positive ethnic identity is directly related to positive relations with others, positive self-acceptance, with meaningfulness of life and the presence of clearly aware purposes of life.

Among the scales of subjective well-being of the greatest number of relations with the styles of ethnic identity discovered the scales of positive relations with others, self-acceptance, meaningfulness of life and openness to the world. Less associated with the styles of ethnic identity are the purpose in life, environmental mastery and personal growth.

All the revealed correlations reflect a general trend: any distortion of the positive ethnic identity toward either hypo-identity, or hyper-identity is inversely associated with different scales of subjective well-being. Ethnic indifference inversely relates with almost all scales of well-being, except the balance of affect. That is, people who are satisfied with their lives, are less inclined to ignore the ethnic features or to confront other ethnic groups. Rational and value aspects of subjective well-being are more concerned with the styles of interethnic interaction than the emotional aspect.

According to the table 6 data, life satisfaction mostly correlates negatively with such evidences of communicative intolerance as inability to hide bad feelings, inability to forgive the others' mistakes, inability to adapt to the other people. There are also positive correlations between the desire to change the partner of interaction with the scales of resolution and fortitude and positive self-concept. There is no significant correlations between subjective happiness index and communicative tolerance indicators.

As we see in the table 7, almost all the scales of communicative intolerance (except the desire to change the partner) inversely correlate with the overall SWB level. In SWB only the scale of affect balance doesn't have significant correlations with the scales of communicative intolerance. And self-acceptance has only one significant negative correlation with the person's inability to adapt to the others.

Among the SWB scales positive relations with others, environmental mastery, meaningfulness of life and openness to the world are more closely related to the communicative intolerance. Among the scales of communicative intolerance the rejection of the others' personality, inability to hide bad feelings and inability to adapt to others have more ties with SWB.

The comparative analysis of the relations of tolerance and life satisfaction in the studied subgroups revealed correlations, specific for representatives of different religions. There are no significant correlation, which present in all five groups. Only four ties are present in four groups of five. It says about grate religious diversity in this question.

For the Orthodox, the degree of their objectives achievement is directly related to positive ethnic identity. For Buddhists this life satisfaction parameter is directly related to ethno-isolationism, for the Jews - with ethno-nihilism. That is, the Orthodox, who mainly manages to achieve the goals is more likely to accept positively their own and the other's ethnicity. Buddhists in this situation are more likely to avoid intercultural contacts, extolling their own ethnic group, and the Jews more likely ignore the ethnic characteristics of people. The Orthodox ethno-nihilism is directly linked to their zest. That is, if the Jews ignore the ethnic characteristics, when they eager to achieve their goals, the Orthodox do it, when they are full of general vitality, zest for life. Ethno-nihilism at Orthodox and Muslims inversely relates to their resolution and fortitude. Representatives of these groups in the focus on achieving the goals are more likely to ignore ethnic differences. Ethnic indifference of the Orthodox and Buddhists inversely relates to their positive self-esteem. That is, people of these cultures are more positive about themselves are less likely to ignore the ethnic features of their own and of other people.

Catholics having positive self-esteem is more inclined to ethno-egotism. People belonging to the Catholic religion, having high self-esteem, tend to put the interests of their own ethnic group above others. While Orthodox Christians, Buddhists and Muslims with higher self-esteem tend to pay more attention to the ethnic peculiarities of others.

For Muslims and Jews overall positive mood background is directly related to positive ethnic identity. In addition, Muslim's mood is directly related to ethnic indifference and inversely - with their ethno-egotism. At the Jews, although the correlation has not reached the level of significance, there is an opposite trend - a positive mood inversely associates with ethno-indifference. That is, for these two religious groups positive relationship with other cultures is related to the emotional aspect of well-being. But, for Muslims the positive mood has more to do with ignoring ethnic differences, and for the Jews - with great attention to ethnicity.

The links of communicative tolerance with life satisfaction also show cultural differences. For the Orthodox and Muslims inability to hide negative emotions inversely related to the congruence between desired and achieved goals and general background mood. The Orthodox zest is directly linked to their desire to re-educate their partners in interaction. This is consistent with the above mentioned correlation of zest and the denial of ethnic differences and, apparently, determined by the general tendency to ignore individual characteristics in people with high levels of zest.
Buddhists' desire for re-education of the others has more to do with their resolution and fortitude.

The inability to forgive others their mistakes at Orthodox is inversely associated with resolution and fortitude and coherence between the stated objectives and the progress. For Muslims the last indicator of coherence is negatively related to their inability to adapt themselves to others. For the groups of the Jews and Catholics significant connections between communicative tolerance and life satisfaction were not found. For Orthodox and Muslims the scale of subjective happiness is directly related to the desire to limit the cross-cultural contacts.

The relationship between indicators of subjective well-being and styles of ethnic identity revealed three significant correlations similar in four groups of five. Ethno-nihilism is inversely related to a meaningfulness of life in all the groups, except for the Jewish. Ethnic indifference is inversely related to the environmental mastery and openness to the world in all groups, except Catholics. Common to most people, regardless of religion, are the connections of hypo-identity indicators with meaningfulness of life, openness to the world and confidence in their ability to manage it.

A positive identity is directly connected with a positive attitude to other people in groups of Orthodox, Buddhists and Jews. Ethnic indifference is inversely related to autonomy and personal growth at the Orthodox, Buddhists and Muslims. But, in addition, for Orthodox these scales of subjective well-being are directly related to ethno-isolationism. Specific to the Orthodox group is the negative links of many indicators of ethnic identity with a positive attitude to others; a greater amount of negative ties of ethno-nihilism with indicators of subjective well-being.

A distinctive feature of the Buddhist groups are the inverse relations of meaningfulness of life with all the deviations from the positive ethnic identity. The Muslim group deviations from the positive identity inversely associated with the presence of clear goals in life, self-acceptance and personal growth. Specific for Catholics correlations are the direct links of positive identity with affect balance and openness to the world. For the Jews, positive identity is directly linked to autonomy, environmental mastery and presence of clear goals in their lives.

Among the relations of subjective well-being with communicative tolerance the following cultural -specific correlations are identified. In the group of Orthodox there are large number of inverse correlations of positive attitudes towards others and the environmental mastery with intolerance indicators. In this group also the desire to re-educate their partners directly connected with the presence of clear goals in life. A distinctive feature of the Muslims is a great connection of clear life purpose with intolerance. The Jews found more inverse relations of intolerance indicators with personal growth and meaningfulness of life.

Thus, were observed the large variation in the correlations between life satisfaction and tolerance among representatives of different religions who live in one country, in similar socio-economic conditions. Identified cultural-specific correlations in many ways substantively relate to the values and traditions of the religions.

Conclusion

Along with total domination of positive ethnic identity among the representatives of various religious groups living in Russia, there are significant differences in the degree of severity of other styles of interethnic interaction. In general, Catholics more than others tend to underestimate the importance of ethnic differences, do not take into account the cultural identity in interpersonal interaction. Buddhists less than others tend to ignore their own ethnicity. Almost all indicators of hyper-identity revealed significant differences between the Buddhists and all other groups. Buddhists less than all others inclined to put the interests of their ethnic group above others.

There are also significant religious differences in overall level of life satisfaction and in satisfaction with different life aspects. In general, people belonging to the Jewish religion, are significantly more satisfied with their lives than all the others. People brought up in the Orthodox Christian culture, are the least satisfied with their lives. In many subjective well-being indicators, representatives of the Buddhist and Muslim cultures show quite good results. Life satisfaction directly related with those values, which are less important for certain culture.

Positive ethnic identity and ethnic tolerance generally correlates directly with the overall level and with the most life satisfaction aspects. Among the indicators of life satisfaction and SWB more closely relate to the communicative tolerance: positive relations with others, environmental mastery, meaningfulness of life, openness to the world, acceptance of the others' personality, abilities to control feelings and to adapt themselves to others. Any distortion of the positive ethnic identity toward either hypo-identity, or hyper-identity is inversely associated with different scales of subjective well-being. Ethnic indifference inversely relates with almost all scales of well-being, except the balance of affect. That is, people who are satisfied with their lives, are less inclined to ignore the ethnic features or to confront other ethnic groups. Rational and value aspects of subjective well-being are more concerned with the styles of interethnic interaction than the emotional aspect.

The most general religious peculiarities of ethnic tolerance are the following. Relatively low tolerance of Catholics is manifested primarily in their lower acceptance of individual characteristics of different people, in greater conservatism and categoricity, in lower ability to keep their negative feelings. The relatively high tolerance of Buddhists is shown in their greater ability to adapt to others and to forgive their mistakes. Judah relatively better take other people's individuality and does not seek to re-educate and change them.

There are cultural-specifics in correlations between life satisfaction and ethnic tolerance, which substantively relate to the values and traditions of the religions. These specifics should be considered in developing psychological programs of intercultural communication support, intercultural competence development, intercultural conflict mediation and so on. These results also will be useful in developing culturally sensitive methods of psychotherapy.

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Tables

Table 1. *Ethnic identity stiles of different religious groups*

	Orthodox Christians		Buddhists		Catholics		Muslims		Jews	
	M	St.D.	M	St.D.	M	St.D.	M	St.D.	M	St.D.
Ethnic nihilism	5,91	5,8	5,97	6,1	8,42	5,4	5,00	4,9	4,43	5,8
Ethnic indifference	10,15	4,4	9,24	4,4	13,33	4,2	9,21	4,3	9,93	5,3
Positive identity	14,59	4,9	15,35	4,8	14,83	4,7	15,44	5,7	14,54	5,0
Ethnic egoism	7,28	4,9	4,13	6,0	9,25	5,8	7,53	5,5	6,89	4,7
Ethnic isolationism	7,37	5,7	4,54	6,0	9,17	5,4	6,79	6,0	6,86	5,1
Ethnic bigotry	7,67	4,4	5,29	6,3	9,08	5,1	7,63	5,1	7,43	4,0

Table 2. *Communicative tolerance of different religious groups*

Indicators of intolerance	Orthodox Christians		Buddhists		Catholics		Muslims		Jews	
	M	St.D.	M	St.D.	M	M	St.D.	M	St.D.	M

Rejection of others' identity	6,32	3,2	5,46	3,5	9,00	3,6	5,75	4,7	5,61	3,4
Using oneself as a standard	6,63	3,7	5,73	4,9	8,17	4,5	6,26	4,8	7,00	3,9
Categoricity or conservatism	7,21	3,8	6,35	4,3	9,50	3,8	6,93	4,3	6,57	4,5
Inability to hide bad feelings	6,23	3,4	5,94	3,7	8,58	3,9	5,49	4,6	6,54	3,2
Desire to change the partners	6,28	3,6	5,76	3,7	7,17	4,1	6,47	5,0	7,90	4,2
Desire to fit partners for themselves	6,20	3,6	5,43	4,7	6,42	4,7	6,84	4,7	5,57	4,3
Inability to forgive	6,06	3,0	4,76	3,4	7,50	4,1	5,91	4,9	6,50	3,7
Intolerance to discomfort	4,86	3,9	6,38	4,8	7,25	4,1	5,53	4,6	4,82	8,1
Inability to adapt to others	5,31	3,5	3,30	3,9	5,25	4,5	5,60	4,3	4,75	3,1
Total	54,97	23,6	48,92	21,1	69,00	26,5	58,54	34,5	55,25	24,4

Table 3. Correlations of life satisfaction index and ethnic identity styles

Life satisfaction scales	Ethnic nihilism	Ethnic indifference	Positive identity	Ethnic egoism	Ethnic isolationism	Ethnic bigotry
Zest	0,05	0,06	0,07	-0,04	0,02	0,02
Resolution and fortitude	-0,24	-0,11	0,10	-0,01	0,04	0,06
Congruence between desired and achieved goals	-0,05	-0,06	0,15	0,01	0,07	0,00
Positive self-concept	-0,16	-0,24	0,16	-0,04	0,08	0,02
Mood tone	-0,07	0,00	0,13	-0,11	0,03	-0,05
Overall level	-0,12	-0,14	0,16	-0,04	0,08	0,03

Table 4. *Correlations of subjective happiness index and ethnic identity styles*

	Ethnic nihilism	Ethnic indifference	Positive identity	Ethnic egoism	Ethnic isolationism	Ethnic bigotry
Subjective Happiness	0,02	-0,14	0,08	0,07	0,14	0,00

Table 5. *Correlations of subjective well-being and ethnic identity styles*

SWB scales	Ethnic nihilism	Ethnic indifference	Positive identity	Ethnic egoism	Ethnic isolationism	Ethnic bigotry
Positive relations with other	-0,26	-0,27	0,23	-0,12	-0,07	-0,15
Autonomy	-0,03	-0,29	-0,02	-0,01	0,06	-0,01
Environmental mastery	-0,11	-0,32	0,08	-0,12	-0,01	-0,10
Personal growth	-0,05	-0,24	0,06	-0,09	0,03	-0,14
Purpose in life	-0,10	-0,21	0,17	-0,11	0,00	-0,06
Self-acceptance	-0,14	-0,17	0,13	-0,12	-0,03	-0,10
Affect balance	-0,10	-0,01	0,07	-0,07	-0,05	-0,10
Meaningfulness of life	-0,23	-0,20	0,20	-0,13	-0,06	-0,20
Openness to the world	-0,16	-0,26	0,06	-0,12	0,00	-0,07
Overall level	-0,17	-0,16	0,07	-0,09	-0,03	-0,08

Table 6. *Correlations of life satisfaction and communicative intolerance indexes*

	Rejection of others' identity	Using oneself as a standard	Categoricity or conservatism	Inability to hide bad feelings	Desire to change the partners	Desire to fit partners for themselves	Inability to forgive	Intolerance to discomfort	Inability to adapt to others	Total
Zest	-0,01	0,03	0,06	-0,01	0,01	0,03	-0,08	-0,06	-0,10	-0,03
Resolution and fortitude	-0,04	-0,01	-0,02	-0,11	0,12	0,06	-0,11	-0,05	-0,11	0,00
Congruence between desired and achieved goals	-0,01	0,02	0,02	-0,15	0,06	-0,02	-0,16	0,05	-0,19	-0,03
Positive self-concept	-0,09	-0,01	0,01	-0,10	0,13	0,15	-0,09	0,01	-0,08	-0,01
Mood tone	-0,10	-0,04	-0,04	-0,18	0,06	0,01	-0,07	-0,02	-0,14	-0,06
Overall level	-0,06	-0,01	0,01	-0,16	0,10	0,07	-0,15	-0,01	-0,18	-0,04

Table 7. *Correlations of subjective well-being and communicative intolerance indexes*

	Rejection of others' identity	Using oneself as a standard	Categoricity or conservatism	Inability to hide bad feelings	Desire to change the partners	Desire to fit partners for themselves	Inability to forgive	Intolerance to discomfort	Inability to adapt to others	Total
Positive relations with other	-0,22	-0,11	-0,08	-0,14	0,01	-0,16	-0,14	-0,12	-0,22	-0,16
Autonomy	-0,21	-0,06	-0,09	-0,16	-0,07	-0,09	-0,10	-0,09	-0,19	-0,17
Environmental mastery	-0,18	-0,12	-0,13	-0,24	-0,02	-0,07	-0,14	-0,02	-0,17	-0,16
Personal growth	-0,16	-0,05	-0,03	-0,22	0,04	-0,03	-0,13	-0,04	-0,20	-0,11
Purpose in life	-0,16	-0,05	-0,06	-0,15	-0,03	-0,03	-0,10	-0,04	-0,15	-0,10
Self-acceptance	-0,09	0,00	0,00	-0,05	0,09	0,04	-0,07	0,03	-0,15	-0,02
Affect balance	-0,05	-0,05	0,03	-0,04	-0,03	-0,10	0,00	0,01	0,02	-0,01
Meaningfulness of life	-0,20	-0,08	-0,18	-0,18	-0,09	-0,15	-0,19	-0,02	-0,17	-0,16
Openness to the world	-0,20	-0,11	-0,13	-0,12	0,00	-0,06	-0,15	-0,11	-0,19	-0,14
Overall level	-0,24	-0,14	-0,11	-0,27	-0,02	-0,12	-0,20	-0,14	-0,22	-0,24

Improvement of Quality Standards in Examination Process in Colleges of Education

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Abstract

Education is the universal catalyst for qualitative development of effective citizenship and competent workforce required in building a modern dynamic society. Purposeful instructional leadership, prudent management of resources and vibrant evaluation of students' learning outcomes as a means of quality control could raise appreciable standards toward an improvement of examination process in Colleges of Education. Being a major task in the school curriculum implementation, examination process is a basic mechanism for academic quality assurance in higher education. A comprehensive examination process largely comprises admission of qualified candidates into teacher education programme, effective teaching and learning of the subject curriculum contents, continuous assessment of learning outcomes, moderation and conduct of examinations, marking and grading of examination scripts, external moderation of examination results, computation and consideration of moderated examination results, notification and release of examination results, certification and production of transcripts, career induction and convocation of certified competent and responsible graduates for employment in the labour market. Hence, it is suggested that prompt identification of challenges and strategies for improvement of quality standards in examination process would enhance a comprehensive professional development of competent and personable teachers. Such well-informed educational experts shall use their professional expertise, ethical orientation and instructional best practices to discover and nurture a crop of gifted, talented and skilled individuals as credible future leaders in all aspects of our national life and global economy.

Keywords: Teacher education, examination process, improvement, standards, quality assurance, teachers,

Introduction

Mankind has no business with poverty, deprivation and underdevelopment when quality education is used as a potent tool to inculcate functional literacy, employable skills and vibrant attitudes for effective service delivery and wealth creation towards shared prosperity and harmony of the citizenry. It implies that our people are the critical resource base of production and development that must be wholly monitored, educated and equipped with the requisite knowledge, skills and values to enhance their well-being and excellent service to humanity (Yahaya, 1991; Odozi, 1996; Oyekan, 2012). With the great power comes the enormous responsibility to develop human capital and build resilient nations. Being a practical activity that involves making rational decisions and imparting relevant competence in learners in a knowledge-based society of the 21st Century, functional education surely requires vibrant evaluation and improvement of students' learning outcomes. Herein schools are regarded as the generative learning centres where each individual is helped to discover his/her talents, abilities and interests toward preparation for useful living and survival in the society (Oyekan, 2000). As symbols of the prosperous future champions in all aspects of human life, our children and youths in schools today deserve a functional comprehensive educational evaluation imbued with an inherent quality examination process.

Evaluation is a professional responsibility of teachers aimed at determining students' academic progress and achievement as well as the worth and effectiveness of educational programme (Kissock, 1981; Oyekan, 2000). It embraces all the quantitative and qualitative procedures of collecting, analyzing and interpreting data in order to ascertain the goodness and functionality of the school curriculum. Effective evaluation in the classroom should, therefore, embrace a combination of measuring instruments such as tests, examinations, assignments, observation techniques, projects, rating scales, interviews, field studies and practical exercises to accommodate varying attributes of learners. In the same vein, meaningful evaluation requires a suitable learning environment which supports good teaching-learning activities with durable educational facilities, standard books and cultivation of effective reading culture. Teachers who are shouldering the responsibility for assessing, improving and imparting knowledge, skills and ethics for shared prosperity of the citizenry are nation builders. Such dedicated educational professionals on critical assignment of human capacity building towards

national development constitute a beacon of enlightenment to our generation with inspiration and passion for excellence and service to humanity. They ought to be supported with all resources to uphold the credibility and acceptability of quality examination process that is guided by the basic principles of fairness, honesty, transparency, professionalism and integrity in classroom practices.

Formal tests and examinations are the common instruments of assessment of educational objectives for motivation, maintenance of publicly recognised standards (Wheeler, 1967), selection and guidance of the students (McFarland, 1973), curriculum revision and professional improvement of teachers (Oyekan, 1997). However, the students' admission, instruction and administration of examinations are often fraught with anxiety, stress and irregularities in their quest for success and accruing advantage. Examination success by secondary school students is usually viewed as a gateway to good grades, further education and entry into the world of work (Denga, 1983). The high values attached to good grades and certificates could encourage some students to engage in varied immoral acts of cheating as a means to circumvent failure and shame (Oyekan, 2000). Such unethical practices that usually surface when assessing the learning outcomes might be hinged on some inadequacies of the school, students and teachers. Cheating in contemporary Nigerian schools seems to pervade all strata of education with a veritable threat to professional development of teachers, relevance of education, employability of school graduates and the much needed morality for sustainable development, economy and polity.

Examination is a formal test that involves answering of questions to determine the acquisition of knowledge, aptitude, and proficiency of learners on the prescribed learning contents. It is preceded by effective teaching of subjects, and meaningful internalisation of basic concepts and processes by learners in the course of their education and training. Within the context of stocktaking exercise in an organisation, examination is the control element in continuing education and training of youths and adults. Perhaps examinations should be seen as an academic responsibility which may improve, save or alter the destiny and prosperity of learners. In practice, the examination process in Colleges of Education (COEs) will begin with a credible search for qualified candidates who can be admitted on merit, and end with graduation and induction of certified competent professional teachers into the teaching profession. Attainment of quality standards in the examination process in COEs requires continuing hard work, diligence, focus, determination and good character as veritable ingredients of achieving academic excellence with exemplary performance. This will enhance conduct of credible examinations and instill public confidence in the awarded certificates to the graduating professional teachers.

Hence, the objective of this paper is to identify determinants of quality examination process in Nigerian COEs. Hindering challenges and impactful prospects of improving standards of examination process would be highlighted as basis for provision of competent and responsible school graduates. Such well educated, empowered and responsive professionals, leaders and captains of industry shall be the vibrant manpower for sustainable national development. All educational stakeholders including parents, teachers and the government should mitigate the prevailing challenges confronting schools with adequate funding and learning resources in order to augment students' interests, needs and academic achievement.

Challenges of Quality Standards in Examination Process

The school is a vital component of any organised human society. It is a learning centre where children, youths and adults are nurtured and refined with processes of reasoning, feeling and doing things in a happy expectancy. As a matter of necessity, schools should provide a comprehensive education that would inculcate relevant knowledge, refine the minds of the citizens and prepare them to lead a decent life and develop a virile society. Examinations are used to appraise the progressive performance and achievement of students on organised learning contents. Derived results from organised examinations provide cogent required data and information to make relative decisions on the worth of the educational programme, employability of school graduates and their predictive nexus with productivity in future positions of responsibility.

However, the prevailing social, economic and political crises confronting the contemporary Nigerian society and education system are equally declining the quality of performance of teachers, learners and their examination process at all levels. Quality examination process in COEs is hindered severally by challenges associated with quality standards in the entire education system. Such hindrances are significantly related to issues depressing relevance of teacher education. Hence, Odozi (1996), Oyekan (1999, 2012) and Olanipekun & Aina (2014) x-rayed the indices of crisis in education, among others, to include:

1. Inadequate funding of education,
2. Insufficient competence of teachers on testing and conduct of examinations,
3. Rapid national population growth with rising enrolment and large classes,
4. Widespread frauds, indiscipline, and admission and examination malpractices,
5. Poor leadership and ineffective management of resources,
6. Dearth of professional training, induction and orientation of teachers,
7. Poor teaching with inconsistent assessment and massive learning failure,
8. Defective marking system and delayed release of examination results,
9. Irregular school calendar precipitated by students and teachers' strikes,
10. Poor language and communicative competence,
11. Inadequate instructional supervision, and
12. Upsurge in aversion towards education, training and research.

These challenges of quality standards in education are inexhaustible and integrated with respect to effective teaching, meaningful learning and examination process in COEs. It is important to note that disharmony in education sector is traceable to gross indiscipline, brazen impunity and pretentious enforcement of standards, best practices and professionalism. As barriers to meaningful learning and achievement motivation, their impact on conduct of examinations could have significant effect on the credibility of awarded certificates, and capability of the school graduates in higher education and world of work. Meaningful improvement of quality standards in examination process by committed College Management, competent teacher educators and vibrant support staff will help to mitigate emerging hindrances to effective instruction and evaluation in COEs.

Inadequate budgetary allocation of funds to education will not allow the schools to recruit, train and remunerate sufficient competent and responsible educators, administrative personnel and technical staff. Rapid national population growth with rising enrolment and large classes could result into poor teaching with inadequate functional instructional materials, inconsistent assessment practices and massive learning failure without appropriate educational guidance. This may facilitate aversion towards education, training and research by educators and student-teachers. However, the quest for good grades and certificates to secure admissions into higher educational institutions or hunt for jobs may lure the student-teachers and their accomplices into a series of indiscipline and academic dishonesty exemplified by examination malpractices, defective marking system and delayed release of incomplete examination results (Denga, 1983; Oyekan, 2000; Essien, 2014). The prevailing crisis in education that hinders effective conduct of examinations is worsened by poor leadership, ineffective management of resources and irregular school calendar precipitated by students and educators' strikes. Furthermore, dearth of well-equipped classrooms, laboratories and workshops as well as poorly stocked libraries and inadequate instructional supervision of educators with limited professional orientation would severely impede quality standards of teaching, learning, and examination process in COEs. All these identified challenges of quality standards should be rectified by prompt provision of basic determinants of quality examination process to ensure professional development of competent and responsible teachers.

Determinants of Quality Examination Process

Education is the universal catalyst for qualitative development of effective citizenship and competent workforce required in building a modern dynamic society. Well-trained and well-groomed teachers become the brainpower and conscience of any prosperous nation that is desirous of sustainable development. They will be equipped with professional artistry and scientific process of adjusting education to the changing needs of learners and development of their community. Such industrious and visionary teachers could imbibe good self-concept, honesty and commitment to teaching as a vehicle of continuous human engineering. These quality teachers who are flexible and willing to learn shall radiate exemplary academic excellence and loving-kindness to cope with the bright, slow and average students with sympathetic understanding. Hence, their purposeful instructional leadership, prudent management of resources and vibrant evaluation of students' learning outcomes as a means of quality control would raise appreciable quality standards toward an improvement of examination process in COEs.

Assessment is an integral part of any effective teaching-learning programme that should be subjected to thorough planning and design. Paradoxically, assessment is given less attention possibly because it is an activity that raises the spectre of examinations, which arouses jittery in students and teachers. Being a major task in the school curriculum implementation,

examination process is a basic mechanism for academic quality assurance in higher education. It is the duty of the College Management to identify and articulate a policy on the basic determinants of quality examination process for successful implementation of their curricular programmes. Extensive awareness and constructive dialogue on acceptable standards and best practices for conduct of examinations by staff and students under the leadership of their Heads of Department and Deans will provide the required vital inputs for policy formulation and implementation.

The basic determinants of quality examination process in COEs usually embrace all the situations associated with the provision of capable student-teachers for meaningful instruction, evaluation and certification on graduation. Notable determinants of quality examination process include management of resources, functional facilities, instructional leadership, evaluation and assessment, and healthy living of educators and student-teachers as displayed below:

1. **Management**
(i) Admission of qualified and capable student-teachers on merit,
(ii) Adequacy and prudent management of financial resources,
(iii) Grants, loans and scholarships for indigent and brilliant students.
2. **Facilities**
(i) Availability and maintenance of infrastructural facilities,
(ii) Provision of durable recreational facilities for relaxation and co-curricular activities.
3. **Instructional leadership**
(i) Purposeful instructional leadership and supervision by educators,
(ii) Ethical orientation anchored on discipline and worthy character with integrity,
(iii) Guidance counselling on personal, academic and vocational matters,
(iv) Educational tours and partnerships with industries and other institutions.
4. **Evaluation and Assessment**
(i)Vibrant evaluation and continuous assessment of students' learning outcomes,
(ii) Diagnosis and remediation of students' weaknesses for achievement motivation.
5. **Healthy living**
Quality nutrition and good lifestyles for healthy living

The above-mentioned factors which severally influence provision of functional education could impact on conduct of quality examinations, credibility of awarded certificates and employability of emerging teachers. This is why professional development of competent, responsible and vibrant teachers should start with seeking and admitting qualified candidates on merit through competitive Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME). It is a unified examination that is conducted by Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) for applicants seeking placement into COEs, Polytechnics and Universities in Nigeria. Adequate funding of COEs will ensure provision and maintenance of well-stocked classrooms, laboratories, and libraries with functional information and communication technological (ICT) devices; appointment and promotion of professionally qualified educators; sponsorship of higher education programmes and conferences; comfortable working offices, hostels and staff quarters; and payment for support services such as supplies of electricity and water. Brilliant and indigent student-teachers can be given appreciable grants, loans and scholarships to lessen their financial burden.

The National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013) stipulates that all teachers in tertiary educational institutions should be ICT-proficient, professionally trained, qualified and registered with Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN), which shall regulate teaching profession and practice. Educators who are instructional leaders should manage learning activities which enhance capacity building and creation of wealth, foster intellectual excellence and ethical leadership, and promote healthy collaboration and partnerships with industries and sister institutions (Oyekan, 2014). They would engage in teacher education curriculum implementation with exemplary principles of morality and relevant ICT infrastructure for blended learning and continuous assessment. Diagnosis and remediation of emerging students' weaknesses that often create learning difficulties with necessary guidance could upscale students' academic achievement and interest in teaching career. Both educators and student-teachers can nurture their cognition, productivity and performance with quality nutrition that comprises balanced diet, regular exercises and adequate rest.

Improvement of Standards of Examination Process

Every society has a fundamental direction, intention and justification for continuous training and education of its children and youths. Education is acknowledged as a means for transforming and empowering communities (Okwelle & Ayonmike, 2014), and a key agent of national development by developing human capacity and increasing the skilled workforce for modernization (Alam, 2008). This implies a comprehensive, diagnostic, systematic and guidance-based assessment of practical exercises and theoretical discussions of learning contents beyond the classroom situations. Effective planning and administration of examinations should be given priority attention by teacher-training institutions as a means of equipping student-teachers with the necessary instructional competence and orientation for meaningful assessment of learning experiences in their subject disciplines.

The purpose of evaluation is to provide an appropriate basis for making evidence-informed educational decisions on commitment to improve the existing subject curricula, standards of teaching and learning in classroom practices, quality examination process, and credibility of awarded certificates to school graduates. Hence, a comprehensive examination process in COEs should comprise:

- admission of qualified candidates on merit into teacher education programme,
- effective teaching and learning of the subject curriculum contents,
- continuous assessment of learning outcomes,
- moderation and conduct of examinations,
- marking and grading of examination scripts,
- external moderation of examination results,
- computation and consideration of moderated examination results,
- notification and release of examination results,
- certification and production of transcripts,
- career induction; and
- convocation of certified competent and responsible graduates for employment in the labour market.

The above-mentioned components of a quality examination process are rational guidelines to discharge our statutory duties with confidence and zeal in achieving the objectives of the school curriculum evaluation. Rationality in curriculum implementation may be viewed as the means to cultivate the intellect, useful skills and good habits in learners.

Admission of Qualified Candidates

Admission of well qualified and capable candidates through organised screening, written tests and oral interviews will constitute the preparatory foundation for the professional development of competent and responsible teachers. Good student-teachers with brilliant results in English language, Mathematics, and relevant subjects of the chosen course of study will likely have the intellectual capacity, intrinsic interest and achievement motivation to work harder and succeed in a happy expectancy. They will have no room for bad behavioural dispositions towards effective teaching, meaningful learning and continuous assessment. When admitted on merit, the prospective teachers may not have a penchant for social vices typified by cultism, drug abuse, and examination malpractices.

The preferred candidates must have strong (written and verbal) communication, coordination, persuasion and presentation skills with exceptional zeal and capacity for excellent teaching and motivation of learners. As a matter of fact, they should be computer literate with proficiency and flair for Microsoft Word, Excel, PowerPoint and Research applications, namely SPSS and Epi-info. Such student-teachers shall be ICT-compliant and examination-friendly fellows with propensity for effective study habits, greater academic achievement and inclination for teacher education. In their COEs, these potential teachers are more likely to cope with professional teacher training programmes involving formal training in educational foundation studies, teaching subjects, general studies in education, micro-teaching sessions, and experiential attachments in actual situations during teaching practice.

Effective Teaching and Learning of Subject Curriculum Contents

Progressive COEs should reposition their instructional practices and examinations to take the advantage of evolving digital world in meaningful life-enhancing classroom operations. The real emphasis on technologically-oriented instructional systems could provide a broad spectrum of learning opportunities which may facilitate excellent delivery of coherent instruction and production of more competent and proficient teachers. It is against this background that comfortable classrooms, laboratories, studios and workshops should be well equipped with laptops, setups for PowerPoint presentations, digital projectors and projector screens. However, no textbook, no paper and no visual presentation can replicate the exciting nature and firsthand experiences derivable from concrete objects, tools and materials being used globally for instructional practices in logical and coherent explanation, illustration and demonstration of practical exercises. This is why effective professional development of teachers will require a coherent Multimedia Instructional Systems Approach (MISA) that provides a broad spectrum of opportunities for educators and students to clarify basic concepts in simple and comprehensive forms with the use of instructional technology. No matter the power of technology and the intellect of educators, all may be meaningless without a benevolent display of mutual love, care and integrity in our examination process and relationships beyond the school settings.

Boosting the productivity and morale of educators, COEs need to sponsor regular attendance of learned conferences, educational training workshops and exhortative seminars on improvement of quality standards in teaching and examination process. Hence, effective teaching and learning of the subject curriculum contents would constitute an instructional chord for intellectual engagement, moral rectitude and enterprising skills acquisition for student-teachers to concentrate on their studies and prepare them for future tasks. They will not be troubled by anxiety and fear of failure in their examinations or get themselves involved in examination malpractices. At the same time, good teaching could make the student-teachers to attend classes regularly to acquire adequate subject matter, pedagogical skills and professional standards required in making productive and responsive teachers. Such a crop of competent and committed prospective teachers shall love teaching for conceptual understanding and building of human capacity. They are more likely to embrace continuous assessment as a means of appraising the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of human learning with a combination of measuring instruments.

Continuous Assessment of Learning Outcomes

The National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013) stipulates that educational activities shall be learner-centred for maximum self-development and self-fulfillment. Continuous assessment (CA) can be used for a comprehensive appraisal of the cognitive, psychomotor and affective qualities of learners towards their total development. It confers a greater responsibility upon the classroom teachers: good teaching, regular assessment, immediate feedback and appropriate guidance towards better performance of the students (Oyekan, 2000). Expectedly, CA is a systematic, diagnostic, comprehensive, cumulative and guidance-oriented activity that strengthens the intellect, morality, and ability of the students to learn, achieve and succeed beyond the school setting. To inspire much diligence and greater achievement from the student-teachers, educators should endeavour to conduct at least three tests in each course being taught for examination per semester or term. Establishment of a Continuous Assessment Committee (CAC) in Departments can facilitate the conduct of periodic tests, assignments, practical exercises, field studies and projects. It is also the duty of CAC to identify and proffer solution to emerging problems of CA, ensure maintenance of proper records of students' achievement, and render appropriate advice to the student-teachers from their CA dossiers. Herein regular educational assessment motivates the student-teachers to work harder and attain greater achievement scores, reduces examination malpractices and absenteeism, and helps in the diagnosis and remediation of students' weaknesses as teaching progresses. This makes evaluation the quality control element in professional teacher training and education of productive citizens.

In Ireland, the State Examinations Commission (2010) emphasised the essence of providing an accessible, and efficient high quality examination system ingrained with acceptable standards of transparency, fairness and accountability. For sustainable educational reforms in assessment of learning, Essien (2014) advanced an innovation option of developing assessment tools that take the diversity of the student population into account. It is expedient for educators to assess students' learning outcomes with a combination of measuring instruments, which includes tests, examinations, assignments, research projects, field studies, practical work, and class attendance to accommodate the inherent variation

of learning attributes of learners. Having taught the students well, educators should prepare good questions and/or practical exercises, comprehensive marking guides, suitable examination venues with quality facilities, and evoke extant examination rules and regulations of COEs to conduct the CA of learning outcomes in all courses. The consistent efforts of COEs and educators to improve the performance and guidance of learners could enhance the professional competence and growth of teachers. Hence, it is envisioned that CA would keep both the teacher and students on their toes, boost the sanctity of examinations, credibility of awarded certificates, and employability of competent school graduates. Effective management of CA could give the student-teachers the necessary academic insight, competence and confidence to be examined in their courses of study in a happy expectancy.

Moderation and Conduct of Examinations

All the examination questions should be moderated by seasoned and experienced senior educators from sister COEs as External Examiners, assist in ensuring quality assurance of examinations which determine the academic progress and achievement of student-teachers. It is the duty of the External Examiner, as a moderator, to check the quality of the questions and the marking guide, and ascertain their content validity with respect to covering the prescribed learning contents of the course. Edited questions and/or practical activities are packaged in sealed and signed envelopes for concerned educators to do the necessary corrections highlighted by the External Examiner. Thereafter, the Head of Department (HOD) should word-process the questions and keep them in sealed envelopes in a safe place to avoid any examination leakage.

Conduct of examinations should also involve the production and release of examination time-table, preparation of suitable examination venues including comfortable classrooms and laboratories with adequate functional facilities, and display of appropriate rules and regulations of the College towards successful examinations devoid of sharp practices. All the academic and administrative staff that would participate in the examinations should be exposed to extant rules and regulations during the coordination meetings, and promptly supplied with necessary operational materials and appropriate motivational incentives. The invigilators are implored to exercise utmost patience, fairness and creativity in ensuring that students are well spaced in well-ventilated lecture theatres and rooms with sufficient wide windows, air-conditioners, fans, lighting, tables and chairs with backrest. Attendance records of students should be taken for future reference and evidence of sitting for the examination. The examination scripts are orderly collected from students while seated to preclude rowdiness, examination malpractice and loss of scripts.

Marking and Grading of Examination Scripts

The rapid national population growth with rising enrolment and large classes should attract an adoption of digital solutions to cope with emerging challenges of assessment. It implies that large classes would require a coherent multimedia instructional systems approach (MISA) to collect, store and transmit information consisting of relevant knowledge, skills and value-orientations to learners in formal educational practice. Consequently, large classes could make use of a closed circuit television (CCTV), public address system consisting of microphones and loud speakers, computers, overhead projectors, projector screens and PowerPoint presentations for teaching as well as electronic test or computer based test (CBT) for regular assessment of learning outcomes in the first and second years of teacher education programme. It is intended to reduce the drudgery of teaching, hardships of conducting CA, and the stress of marking and processing examination results. Thereafter, third year students should be exposed to a mix of CBT, essay tests, assignments, projects and practical exercises to encourage critical thinking, problem solving, originality of ideas and comprehensive assessment of cognitive, psychomotor and affective qualities for total development of student-teachers.

Marking of essay tests and practical exercises must be done with earlier marking guide used for moderation of examination questions and practical activities. This will ensure consistent marking of the examination scripts without any bias or prejudice against any student-teacher. Efforts should be made that correct answers are carefully ticked ($\sqrt{}$) and wrong answers are dotted (.) while the given marks are written on the right-hand margin of the answer script. All marks must be carefully added while total scores earned by the student-teachers should be transcribed to the frontal page of the examination scripts. The final score with a grade in the course emanates from the correction and addition of CA and examination scores. Educators should endeavour to cross-check their marking of the scripts and addition of scores recorded on detailed mark sheets (DMS).

External Moderation of Examination Results

External moderation of the examination scripts, practical works, and research projects is done by senior educator who moderated the questions before conduct of the examinations. This further concretises the quality assurance of our examinations to enjoy public confidence in the capacity and capability of our school graduates. At this level of quality control, irregularities in marking of the examination scripts, practical works and research projects as well as the accuracy and clarity of reporting the scores on the DMS can be detected for instant correction to avoid the student being at disadvantage. Herein the final moderated scores are sent to cognate Departments of the student-teachers for computation and consideration where further checks are made for correctness of these scores by Results Vetting Committee. Approved grading system of the COEs will be adopted in the examination result computation, certification and graduation of successful student-teachers with the award of Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) on the strength of their character and learning.

Schools should constitute a School-based Management Committee (SMC) that is made up of the Dean (Chairman), Vice Dean, and Heads of Department in each of the Schools in the COEs. Hence, SMC should receive, consider and implement the moderation reports generated by External Examiners in all the courses taught and examined by educators in their Departments. The External Examiners' Reports provide a review of the performance of student-teachers in the examinations, detailed analysis of the standards of answering the questions, and the basis for imbibing the right attitude towards examination process. All the observations and recommendations on the moderated examinations with respect to their identified strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities for future improvement on quality standards in the examination process should be reviewed for implementation by the Committee.

Efforts should be made at the SMC meetings to discuss the problems in each Department, investigate factors militating against optimum performance of educators and student-teachers, and adopt effective disputes resolution mechanism as a panacea for boosting quality performance, industrial peace, and professional development of educators. Instant implementation of the remarks and highlights of the Moderation Reports could induce creative innovations in subsequent series of teaching, assessment, marking, computation, certification and orientation of educators and student-teachers. It is intended to improve the excellent process of conducting free, fair, credible and peaceful examinations that integrate quality as the basis for educational excellence, good governance and innovation in professional development of teachers.

Computation and Consideration of Moderated Examination Results

The College usually has a standing Committee of Deans (COD) which further scrutinise and authenticate the computed and considered results from the School Boards of Examiners for quality assurance. Results are given to Deans with original copies of the DMS to vet and authenticate their correctness. Identified flaws are collated and given to the HODs for full correction to ensure quality assurance and public confidence in the organised examination process. Educators are enjoined, therefore, to be mindful of their reputation and impact of their actions and/or inactions on student-teachers' achievement, competence, employability, well-being and contributions to development of their living community.

Furthermore, the Business Committee of the Academic Board carefully check all the examination results before those ones without any query are recommended to the Academic Board for approval and provisional award of the NCE certificates under the chairmanship of the College Provost. Final production of approved examination results must be secured in soft and hard copies by the College Registrar for production of academic transcripts to student-teachers seeking further education, scholarship awards, job placements and future reference by the public.

Notification and Production of Transcripts

At this junction, the HOD is empowered to release provisional examination results and display them on conspicuous notice boards and on the College website by the College Registrar. This makes the student-teachers to see and access their results, note areas of weakness and endeavour to improve in the subsequent lessons and examinations in anticipation of better results. All the approved results must be secured in soft and hard copies for safety and future reference as transcripts are issued to the NCE graduates for further studies, to the scholarship boards or employers of labour on formal request.

The critical relevance of academic transcripts to further educational improvement, professional growth and prosperous life of prospective teachers underlines the importance of ensuring quality standards in the examination process in COEs.

Optimum use of modern technology by COEs could develop an organised useful examination process; and enhance effective service delivery to educators, student-teachers, researchers, employers of labour and the general public. The use of functional computer systems, Internet resources and websites will largely boost sustainable examination process, authentic sources of information, and corporate image of the College. Hence, an enriched website should be well designed to provide useful information on the comprehensive history of the College; names, qualifications and functions of the principal officers of the College; roles and members of the College Governing Council, and Academic Board; School Boards of Studies; academic and non-academic staff; and aesthetic development of the College. Equally important are the guidelines for admission and certification; teacher education programmes; publications of relevant teacher education books and journals; payment of school fees; course registration procedures; list of Departments; checking of results; and an overview of the College examination process. The vitality and functionality of ICT-reliant COEs and student-teachers will shore up students' academic interests and achievement motivation when learning without borders, doing their course registration and accessing their examination results, and relating with cognate industries and labour market online with ease.

Career Induction and Convocation Ceremonies

All the NCE graduates are expected to undergo induction into the noble teaching profession with adequate orientation on professional standards and global best practices that will make the successful teachers creditably perform anywhere in the world. The National Policy on Education (2013) stipulates that Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) shall continue to register teachers and regulate teaching profession and practice. It implies that TRCN must perform its statutory duties of registering and inducting all successful teacher education graduates into the teaching profession, as done by other notable regulatory professional bodies like Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria, and Nigerian Medical and Dental Council of Nigeria. Such a colourful induction ceremony ought to be done in collaboration and partnership with the teacher-producing Faculties, Institutes and COEs. It is instructive for regulatory and supervisory bodies to accredit the programmes of COEs, chart a progressive road map for curriculum reforms, integrate entrepreneurial initiatives in teacher education programmes and fine-tune the examination process in consonance with global best practices. These efforts shall halt declining quality standards in the teaching, learning, examination and certification of prospective teachers in COEs.

Convocation follows induction ceremony at a chosen date for the award of certificates and prizes for outstanding performances. This articulated comprehensive examination process is refined and made credible for public confidence in the awarded certificates by adherence to the identified determinants of examination process, and the quality control mechanism instituted by COEs. The NCE graduates are expected to perform and justify the academic trust reposed in them as benevolent ambassadors of their College. Graduation is a declaration of the inherent quality standards in the examination process that produced the professional teachers as worthy commodities for education industry and sustainable development of all nations across the world.

In summary, both the excruciating challenges and efforts of improving education have a relative impact on the quality of examination process and education system. With reference to the National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013), efforts towards the improvement of quality education at all levels shall include:

a) all teachers in educational institutions shall be professionally trained with incorporation of Information Technology (IT) in all teacher-training programmes;

b) appointment and retention of academically and professionally qualified persons and heads of educational institutions;

c) only professionally qualified and registered teachers shall be allowed to practise at all levels;

d) provision of improved conditions of service and incentives to motivate teachers and make the teaching profession more attractive;

e) setting professional standards for teacher educators who train new teachers;

f) a formal process of induction for all newly-recruited teachers; and

g) provision of mandatory in-service training as an integral part of continuing teacher education for teachers in public and private schools.

Attempts to improve the collective welfare of teacher educators employed on merit and quality standards of instructional practices could ensure an inclusive quality assurance in examination process in the professional development of competent teachers in COEs. These pragmatic initiatives and regular exposure to innovations in the teaching profession shall assist in producing highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of the education system. Such academically-cultured teacher educators would imbibe professional ethics and display good qualities with practical wisdom and cautious optimism (Oyekan, 2014). The tendency is for the intelligent and hardworking teacher educators to boost their instructional productivity for creative teaching, enhance consistent and fair marking of examination scripts, and make objective and merit-based performance decisions.

Conclusion

Education is the key to sustainable development of any nation. A cream of industrious and responsible brilliant professional teachers is a formidable source of functional comprehensive education, moral rectitude and productive life of the student-teachers under their tutelage. Teacher education curriculum implementation demands a display of professional competence, morality, determination and total quality assurance from educators in their efforts to produce highly conscientious and diligent teachers. This implies that the key to quality assurance in teacher education programme is the quality examination process that refines and reposes professional competence and integrity in teachers.

Examination process is the totality of credible search for qualified candidates who can be provided with quality preparatory instruction, continuous assessment, organised examinations and graduation with induction of certified competent professionals. Standards of quality examination process must be upheld at all cost by educators under the leadership of HODs and Deans in their respective Departments and Schools. Improvement of quality standards in examination process in COEs is enhanced by effective teaching of qualified student-teachers exposed to continuous assessment and organised examinations, whose questions are moderated and answers are marked with comprehensive marking guides. Further quality control mechanism is effected at the levels of Departments, COD, and Academic Board. Emerging graduates will be able to engage in effective teaching and meaningful examination process that nurture talents, skills and habits of students in their prospective schools and workplaces.

Hence, it is suggested that government should accord education a priority attention being the key to sustainable development, economy and polity of any nation. Teachers who are the brainpower of the society must be properly trained, sponsored to in-service training and higher education programmes, and allowed to enjoy good welfare packages. Educators who engage in prompt identification of challenges and strategies for improvement of quality standards in examination process would enhance a comprehensive professional development of competent and personable teachers. Such well-informed educational experts shall use their professional expertise, ethical orientation and instructional best practices to discover and nurture a crop of gifted, talented and skilled individuals as credible manpower and future leaders in all aspects of our national life and global economy.

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Crisis Phenomena in the Republic of Croatia – as a Social, Economic and Political Process

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Abstract

Since 2008 national economies of certain countries around the world successfully confronted the global economic crisis and its consequences. They managed to do this in a greater or lesser extent or with greater or lesser effects. Stable and stronger national economies, although seriously shaken by the crisis, overcame it relatively easy due to functional social, economic and politically shaped strategies. However, Croatia, as a country whose development unwind during a long period of time, in extremely transitional environment, approached to this crisis insufficiently engaged, with no strategic focus, politically and legally inconsistent – practically irresponsible. All this led to inconsistent and discouraging relationships with potential partners and their investment derogations leaving room for a pretty pale perception of Croatian investment and business environment. Strategies for crisis management in Croatia are mostly based on theory principles, often politically inconsistent and unenforceable, even legally questionable. This has also led to discouraging investor's climate that weakened the status of Croatian business subjects within the competitive EU and even global market. In this paper authors are focusing on crisis ˝derivatives˝ within Croatian scientific and economically practical environment, to zoom in on Croatian economy in the global crisis context and to imply effects of the crisis through relevant indicators. Based on this, the aim is to define certain suggestions, recommendations and conclusions regarding stability and strengthening Croatian economy in the broader EU and global competition context. Above all, the phenomenon of the crisis in the Republic of Croatia, as a ˝controversial˝ social, economic, and even political process is a basis of entrepreneurial and moral ˝attributes˝ defined within this paper.

Keywords: economic crisis, crisis implications, crisis phenomenon, Croatia

1. Introduction

Numerous crisis through out the history effected particular economies differently, from the one regarding the monetary expansion in Great Britain during 1825 to the oil shocks during 1970s and 1980s. Each one of them represents a contraction, a downward trend in a business cycle that by its features is never the same. With every crisis, especially the last one (since 2008 until today), it was noted that business cycles are appearing more frequently, last longer and have more severe consequences for economies. Therefore, analyzing the movements of business cycles and creating a fitting business strategy and financial structures is of special interest for financial markets and companies. Preparedness of a company for downward business cycles, followed by changes in the financial sector, should be defined by a fitting business strategy (Kutnjak, Miljenović, Radović, 2014, 553).

The last, current economic crisis that started in 2008 in the real estate market and financial sector in USA resulted in a large drop in aggregate consumption all over the world, especially because of a high globalization process spread. After the collapse of public housing-credit institutions in USA it produced the biggest global economic crisis after the World War II. In human history, such big crises were usually generated due to a lack of resources, energy, natural disasters or big social inequalities. Crisis of 2008 was created by a system which, unfortunately, encouraged creation of social and environmental inequalities that are unsustainable in the short and long time period. The most important economic goal of stable economic growth was stopped and its sustainability came under serious question.

One could say that an economic crisis is one of the best examples of an unstable business environment. Following the introduction, the economics crisis, that over time defined the character of a global crisis, spread to the economy (entrepreneurship) of the EU, which was mostly implied in business activities of small and medium entrepreneurship. Small end medium enterprises (SMEs) are more than 99% of all business subjects in the EU, representing two thirds of jobs in the private sector, and more than half of added value. Above all, SMEs confront with certain, very highlighted difficulties that arise from the character of their size. SMEs have limited financial and time resources, and insufficient investments in education and development of employees. They are also very influenced on factors such as high levels of bureaucracy and late payments of wages, as a result of late payments from business partners and buyers. The newest factor that significantly destabilizes operations of SMEs is the current economic crisis that decimated SMEs in almost all EU member countries, leaving permanent consequences on manufacturing (service), capacitive and development perspectives of these business subjects. The fact is most of these will never recover from implications of crisis and a large portion of them will be forced into bankruptcy. Even though that the EU is a large unified market based on free products and services movements, as well as of production factors, it does not mean that business conditions of SMEs are ideal. Even on such market, entrepreneurs are faced with certain barriers where well known limitations stand out, and this also affects Croatian entrepreneurs. However, with those limitations, certain additional difficulties are characteristic for the Croatian market and they partially arise from the transition era. Other part of this comes from insufficiently developed system of tracking and supporting developments of such small economies (Kersan-Škabić, Banković, 2008, 58-63).

Global crisis that hit the world in 2008 moved to Croatia during 2009 and over the years left an indelible mark and unforeseeable consequences for domestic economy. The global crisis reflected to Croatian economy which in 2009 noted the biggest drop in GDP since 1993. Except of GDP drops, a great increase in unemployment rates, and the public and foreign debt started to rose year by year. Even though Croatian economy did not recorded an economic downturn during 2008, a great lag in economic activities was noted. The global crisis in Croatia left a painful mark on the economy and did not spare small and medium entrepreneurship. The number of enterprises and employees was downsized in certain sectors for more than 20%, and in many areas numerous indicators are far lower than in pre-crisis years. Trough the crisis year's small entrepreneurship was affected the most, since small and medium business entities could not bear the challenges of the crisis and extremely intensive competition provided by larger companies. In two years of crisis tens of thousands of workers were dismissed, which gave a serious blow to Croatian economy. The consequences multiplied in operations of SMEs that registered a drop in revenue up to 30% compared to pre-crisis years. With the spread of financial crisis on the real sector, in developed countries there was a reduction of final demand. Therefore, from mid-2008 there was a reduction of demand for Croatian export and exported goods. That additionally influenced previously weakened demand for final and intermediate goods, and the import of goods decreased. As was expected, the crisis strongly effected economic movements in Croatia. Finally, after 2008 a drop in GDP was noted, as well as a reduction of industrial manufacturing, a drop in export of goods, increase in unemployment, growth of public and foreign debt, and a rise of business illiquidity. Especially significant segment, or one of the most important factors in potential crisis management was money management. According to Gulin (2009:329) money management is one of the most important functions in crisis situations. Naturally, it is largely tied to the strategy of financing business activities, but it depends on realization models and strategy. In crisis situations it is impossible to completely give this strategy to the CFOs. The question of financing and money management is the responsibility of the complete management team. From the complete deriving of these and other relationships, it is possible, with certain constructive and content-adequate treated restructuring and rationalization, numerous renunciations, savings and compromise ″processes″, to influence the duration and character of the crisis, or rather the measurability and reduction of negative effects of the crisis.

2. Crisis – defining the term and type

Generally speaking, a crisis is an unforeseeable and surprising event that by its content impairs activities of an individual, organization, social groups, and even state. Big and sudden crisis cause stress with immediate participants, which is often expressed as insecurity that changes the usual behavior of people, managers, and companies. In majority, crisis is generated from these systems, by the people or the nature. It is often said that crisis caused by human actions can be predicted, but those caused by forces of nature are always hard to predict. But, numerous post-hoc analyses of crisis situations in organizations show that most managers do not recognize first signs of crisis. According to the so called ″linear model″ of behavior under pressure, every individual in a crisis or some unusual and extreme situations that completely

contrasts the ˝normal one˝, needs a certain amount of time to recognize that such unusual situation has really occurred and only then he reacts on it (Butigan et al., 2011, 9).

Crises today hit economic subjects, political and government institutions, as well as other organizations, but also in individual as a person. Some crises cause huge and irreparable damage, while some can result in better credibility (crisis as a convenience). Because of a huge importance of crisis, today in modern management a large attention is given to crisis communication. Crises have, or should always have, a strategic place in lives of business subjects.

According to some authors (Töpfer, 2006, 353) crisis can generally be defined as an occurring risk. It is already prior known or graded or not even observed and therefore it occurred suddenly. Crisis means a break, a temporary plight in every natural, social, or taught process. With regard to the implications of crisis, it is adequate to claim that a crisis is a main event with potentially negative outcome that affects an organization, their public, services, and products (Fearn-Banks, 2001, 480). It disrupts normal operations of an organization and, in worst case, threatens its survival. But, not all crisis mean complete doom. Crisis is a chance to implement changes that a company desperately needs and remove weaknesses that would not be recognized in normal working conditions (Kutnjak, Miljenović, Radović, 2014, 561). Besides the crisis, as a general term, the term ˝business crisis˝ can be inspected, and it defines an unplanned and unwanted process of limited duration and possible influence, that harms primary goals, with an ambivalent outcome (Osmanagić Bedenik, 2003, 12).

Regarding the differences and structural layers of each crisis, coverage (segmentation), implication, causality, etc. there are different interpretations, or measurements of its effects. Therefore, the financial crisis means the collapse of economy in a situation when a government can no longer finance its obligations, such as servicing debt, financing public needs, etc. (Dalić, 2008). Economic crisis, as it is often taught, does not has to be complete chaos. It always has a memorable monetary and financial exteran reflection because market transactions are always represented in monetary terms, but its content and dynamics is determined by real economic and social processes (Balentić, 2009, 102). Microeconomic effects of the current crisis mainly reflect consumption of individuals and business activities from companies. The problem of liquidity and insufficient financial funds are caused by reduced consumption and reduced access to bank funds, significantly contributing the financial crisis of a company. In such conditions finding new sources of financing is redirected from external sources to sources within the company. Financial crisis does not only require financial structure changes, but the change of the complete organization-business system and operational business policies.

On the other hand, an economic crisis is what is called a period of significant negative development in the economy. Also, an economic crisis is represented by the existence of negative development and other macroeconomic indicators (eg. price levels, unemployment, capital flows). An economic crisis can affect the economy of a single country or more of them; it can affect one economic branch around the world, the economy of a few countries or the global economy. The causes of an economic crisis differ. It can be caused by dissonance between supply and demand within a national economy, generally when demand falls below the supply level of goods, so one portion of goods remains unsold, and does not find its way to the customers. Equally, deficiency of raw materials (eg. oil price shock) can cause abstinence of customers from consuming (Galović, Kovačević, Podobnik, 2008, 115).

Even though public communication often labels signs of negative trends and slowdown of economic activities with the term crisis, economists have developed a different professional terminology that tries to signal differences of intensity from economic events (Dalić, 2008). In regard to economic movements there are three unwanted forms (Kumalić, 2011, 2):

1. **Stagnation** – a period (or a phase) in which the economy is not growing, meaning the output of the economy within a certain period holds the same level (Kumalić, 2011, 2). These are, also, short oscillations of economic activity when the economy records growth lower than realized in the previous period. (Dalić, 2008).
2. **Recession –** cycle phase in which output of the national economy is shrinking during two consecutive periods (Kumalić, 2011, 2). Global recession is felt within the global economy. Even though there is no generally accepted definition, the economists of the IMF consider a global recession as the slowdown of the growth rate of the world economy to less than 3%. In the last thirty years, three such periods have been recorded (Dalić, 2008).
3. **Depression** – occurs when reduction of national economy output lasts longer than two consecutive quarters (Kumalić, 2011, 2). Heavy recession that lasts long and includes a drop in GDP for more than 10% is called an economic recession (Dalić, 2008).

Further text analyses the presence and representation of global crisis in certain global areas, determines the intensity and causality of the crisis with an emphasis on basic economic indicators and parameters that can be used to define and determine the distinctiveness, or rather the crisis phenomenon; analyses the state of small and medium entrepreneurship in USA, EU and Republic of Croatia before the great economic crisis. It also investigates how this crisis manifested on SMEs and the employment level after 2009. Authors try to answer what are the implications of crisis in the ˝post-crisis˝ period, or rather in the period when USA is experiencing evident economic recovery, generating development, opening new enterprises, and producing new employment.

3. Implications of crisis on small and medium entrepreneurship in USA

USA is known as one of the economic powers that dictated many changes in the whole world from history of humanity until today. One of the biggest problems of numerous countries are the consequences of the global crisis of 2007, which also began in USA and affected the world economy. It is evident that US economy is moving social changes, and that is also evident in the segment of entrepreneurship, which, in the US, is significantly above the average of European countries. Financial crisis in the US was marked by the doom of the investment bank Lehman Brothers on September 15th, 2008 (Obadić, 2011, 4). The consequences of this event manifested in other parts of the world, which implied a reduction of manufacturing and employment levels. The areas in the US that mostly felt the negative consequences of the economic crisis are the financial sector and the real estate market sector, whose most business subjects were closed.

The following graph shows consequences of the crisis on US GDP, the drop in GDP after the economic crisis and a mild recovery after 2010. The graph shows growth of GDP in the years prior to the crisis and after crisis by quarters of each year. Since the 2ⁿᵈ quarter of 2007 a drop in GDP is evident, after which the drop continued in 2008, especially in the last quarter where a drop of 8,2% was recorded. Such trend continued in the first two quarters of 2009 after which there is a slight growth in the next few years, with exceptions of drops in certain quarters. A decline of GDP after 2007 up to 2009 is just one of the indicators that marked negative signs in crisis years, and the same is with the employment numbers that also represent one of the mayor problems.

Graph 1. GDP rate in USA from 2007 - 2014
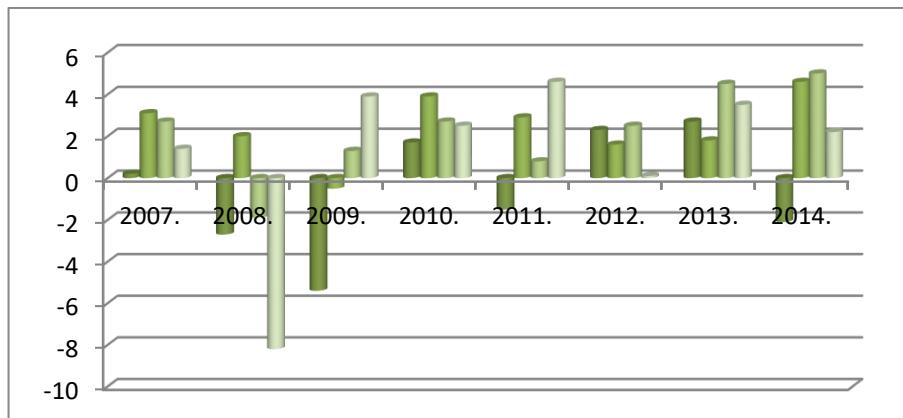
Source: Trading Economics (from: http://www.tradingeconomics.com/united- states/gdp)

The influence of crisis left consequences on small and medium entrepreneurship in the US, where a lot of enterprises closed and unemployment rose in the observed years. But, despite, small and medium entrepreneurship played a big role

in the US economy since more than 50% of all people work in SMEs. The following table shows the frequency of small and medium entrepreneurship before the big economic crisis in the US and after 2008.

Table 1. Number of companies and employed in USA

	No. of companies 2007.	No. of employees 2007.	No. of companies 2012.	No. of employees 2012.
< 20	5.410.367	21.770.236	5.130.348	20.408.789
20-99	532.391	20.922.960	494.170	19.387.249
100-499	88.586	17.173.928	83.423	16.266.855
<500	6.031.344	59.866.924	5.707.941	56.062.893
500+	18.311	60.737.341	18.219	59.875.575
TOTAL	6.049.655	120.604.265	5.726.160	115.938.468

Source: Statistics of U. S. Businesses (from: http://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2015/econ/g12-susb.pdf)

As it is evident from data in Table 1 (based on the comparison of data from 2007 and 2012) after 2007 and manifestation of causalities of the big crisis there is a decline in the number of enterprises and a decline in employment, present in all enterprises. However, small and medium enterprises still make the largest portion in the total entrepreneurship sector of the US. What is significant for US SMEs is that a large number of single employee (owner) enterprises are started every year, and the number in 2012 was over 20 million. However, not all manage to sustain, and most of them are deregistered. In spite, SMEs in USA represent incubators for innovation and employment growth after 2008. Small enterprises still play a key role in US economy. Since 1993 until 2013 SMEs have created over 65% of new jobs. It is also significant that after the great economic crisis this sector is recognized as key for increasing employment and in the period after 2009 until 2013 small enterprises produced 60% of new jobs (SBE Council). Small enterprises in the 20-499 employee category in this period have created the largest number of new jobs. In regard to a constant growth of employment and opening new enterprises it is to be expected that small enterprises will generate numerous advances and create great benefits for US economy.

4. EU member countries in the timeframe of global crisis

The economic crisis started in the US, but it swiftly spread to European Union where large problems also occurred in the banking sector resulting in financial problems for EU countries. The greatest consequences where for Greece, Spain, Ireland, Portugal, Italy as well as many other countries that had large government debt and growing unemployment. Also, there is a decline in EU member countries GDP, shown by the next graph. It can also be compared with the situation where USA recorded a growth in GDP and recovered from turmoil in which was caught between 2008 – 2009.

Graph 2. GDP rate in EU from 2007 - 2014

Source: Eurostat (from: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&pcode=tec,-00115&plugin=1)
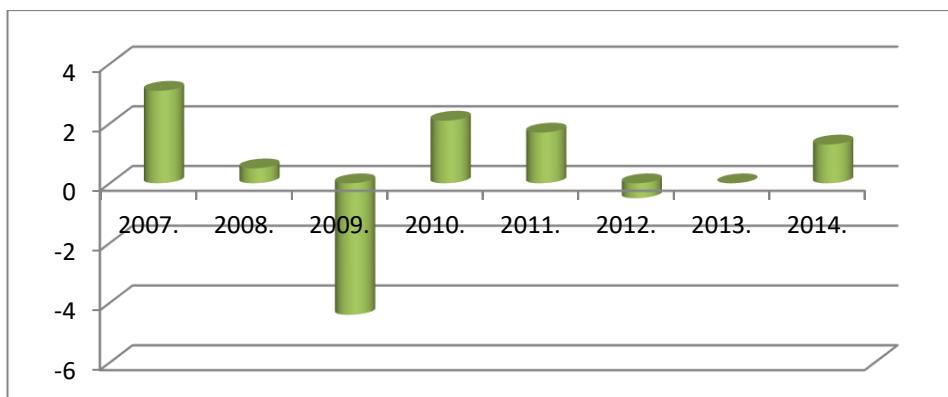
It is obvious that GDP rates of EU28 after 2007 started to drop, which cumulated in a large decline in 2009, when GDP rate fell from 3,1% in 2007 to -4,4% in 2009. After this recovery started, but it is significantly slower than in the case of USA where 3rd quartal of 2009 already saw GDP growth that continued through 2010. Recovery of US economy is far stronger and faster than in the EU, which is mostly the result of EU financial system that became too big, dependent and riskier than in the US (Benić, 2012: 849). During the crisis there is was increase in unemployment, and the consequences of crisis are still evident in some countries today. The reason is the big differences in national economies, and the developed countries reduced the consequences of crisis far more rapidly than others, such as eg. Germany that was first out of the crisis and on the way to economic recovery. Reasons for a rapid recovery of Germany in contrast to other countries were modernization of fiscal sector, encouraging investments in private sector, research and innovation, and also sustainable development. It all resulted in a rise in competitiveness on the global market and economic recovery after the crisis. Germany managed to reach its state before the crisis, and the next graph shows how it achieved GDP growth, and relations to certain EU countries in which the crisis left serious consequences for the economy.

Graph 3. GDP rates in certain countries from 2006 - 2014

Source: Eurostat (from: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&pcode=tec,-00115&plugin=1)
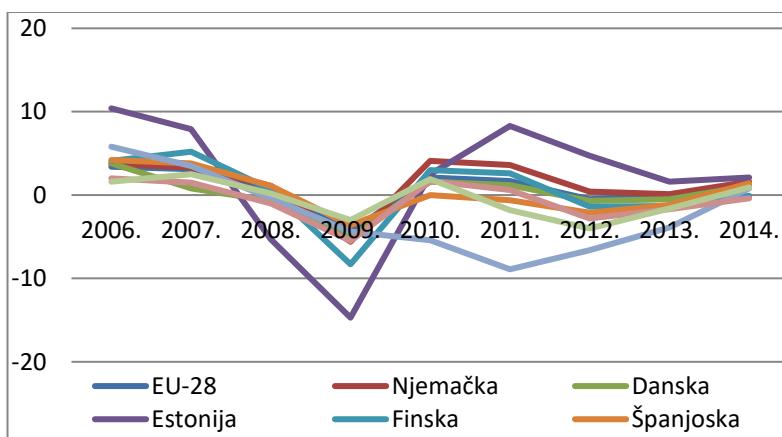
Most noticeable changes in GDP rates from 2008 where in Estonia that had pre-crisis GDP rate of 10,4% in 2006. In 2009 there is a major drop when a decline is recorded and the GDP rate was -14,7%. Also, after 2008 Greece recorded a constant decline of GDP rates, which is present up to today, there have not been any significant movements, and the country is in a major crisis. Besides Greece, Spain and Portugal, Italy also had negative GDP rates after 2008. Germany is a country that managed to swiftly encourage economic growth and overcame the crisis after 2008.

With the example of Germany the oscillations in GDP rates are also less visible after 2008, or rather in 2009 when the rate was -5,6% after which it generated growth of 4,1% in 2010. Regarding the crisis that affected EU member countries, it is factual that it also reflected on small and medium entrepreneurship. A drop in GDP rates and employment reflected on the sector of small and medium entrepreneurship, regardless of that it represents a potential for developing the national economy. During the crisis European SMEs hold their position in the economy and they still remained the outline of European economy representing over 90% of all EU companies. The following table presents the number of companies before the crisis and in the following years, as well as employment in these years.

Table 2. Number of companies and employment in SMEs 2006 - 2012

	Micro	Small	Medium	Large	Total
No. of companies					
2006.	**18.505.812**	**1.388.756**	**219.956**	**42.245**	**20.156.779**
2008	**19.143.521**	**1.357.533**	**226.573**	**43.654**	**20.771.281**
2010.	**19.198.539**	**1.378.401**	**219.252**	**43.034**	**20.839.226**
2012.	**18.783.480**	**1.349.730**	**222.628**	**43.454**	**20.399.291**
No. of employees					
2006.	**38.428.189**	**26.938.777**	**22.027.425**	**42.360.134**	**129.754.720**
2008.	**38.395.819**	**26.771.287**	**22.310.205**	**42.318.854**	**129.796.165**
2010.	**38.905.519**	**26.605.166**	**21.950.107**	**43.257.098**	**130.717.890**
2012.	**37.494.458**	**26.704.352**	**22.615.906**	**43.787.013**	**130.601.730**

Source: Eurostat; Yearly reports of Eurostat for small and medium entrepreneurship, (from: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/facts-figures-analysis/performancereview/files/supporting-documents/2013/annual-report-smes-2013_en.pdf; http://first.aster.it/pubblicazioni/dgentr_annual_report2010_100511.pdf)

Table 2 has shown the state of small and medium entrepreneurship since the financial crisis began in 2007 in USA and left post-consequences for the European Union. Since small and medium entrepreneurship represents the main promoter of economic development, the table shows that in spite there is a reduction of companies and employment, especially after 2010 where significant effects of the crisis in the European Union can be determined. It is also evident that micro companies have the main share in the total structure of EU companies through all the reviewed years, and the number of companies and employment rose until 2010. After this there was a decline in all companies, which is a visible consequence of the entrepreneurship crisis. After 2010 a rise in medium and large companies is obvious, as well as employment in such companies, in contrast to micro and small companies that in 2012 recorded deregistering of companies and a reduction of employment.

Indicators show that European Union is focused towards encouraging small and medium entrepreneurship since it represents a driving force of economic development and a possibility of greater employment, which are key issues in many countries of the EU. One of the ways of encouraging countries to develop entrepreneurship are EU funds that offer great options of financing different activities, primarily focused on encouraging innovation, sustainable growth and entrepreneurship as key components of future development within the European Union. Current economic crisis has significantly aggravated the development of small and medium companies and therefore EU has emphasized the importance of giving support and funds through different programs.

5. Challenges and temptations of global crisis in Republic of Croatia

After looking at the state before and after the great financial, or economic, crisis in USA and EU, the paper investigates implications of crisis on small and medium entrepreneurship in Republic of Croatia, or rather it defines the negative affects of crisis on its economy. Since Croatia is a relatively fresh member of the European Union (since 2013), previous indicators regard the period in which Croatia wasn't full EU member country. Therefore, the paper only analyses the economic state in the period after which other countries of the world were affected by the economic crisis, and the period when USA was overcoming the crisis. In regard to the poor economic and social state seen through current indicators, arguably Croatia still hasn't found the appropriate way of leaving the crisis and neutralizing the negative affects created back in 2008. It was obvious also after this period, which left unforeseen consequences on the aggregate Croatian economy. The following graphs shows GDP rates and unemployment rates in the period from 2006 – until today.

Graph 4. GDP rates in Republic of Croatia 2006 - 2014
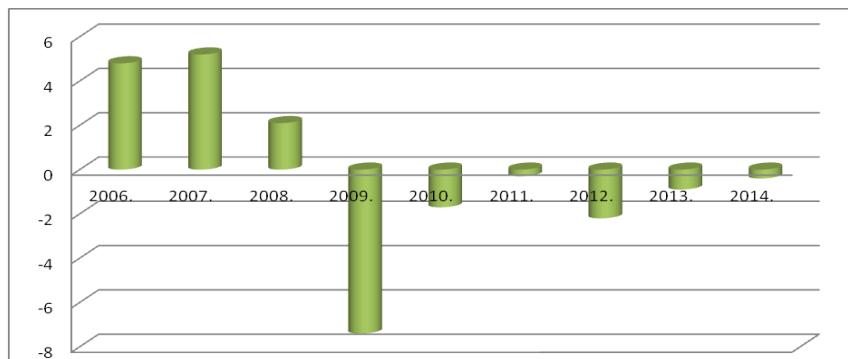
Source: Croatian Bureau of Statistics (from: http://www.dzs.hr)

As can bee seen from the graph, it is evident that after 2007 Croatian GDP rates are falling, which is a consequence of the global crisis. Croatia was severely hit by the global crisis, which is seen by rates in the following years that consistently decline, especially in 2007 when the GDP rate was negative (-7,4%). Crisis left great consequences on Croatian economy, which is especially shown by high unemployment numbers that grow each year, which is definitely not a good indicator for Croatia, which is over 8 years in a serious and very difficult economic situation.

Graph 5. Unemployment rates in Republic of Croatia 2006 - 2014
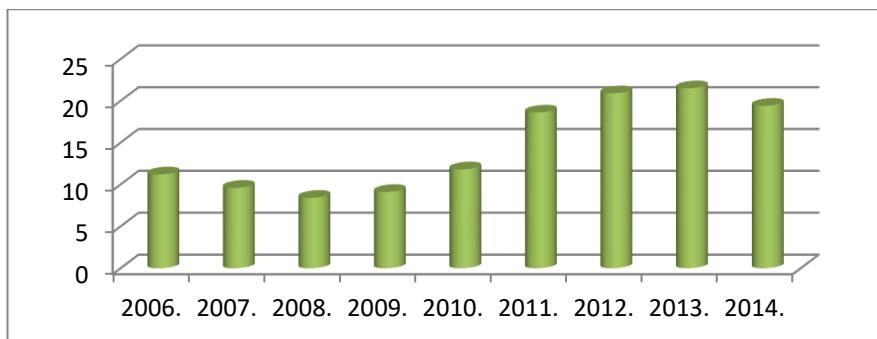
Source: Croatian Bureau of Statistics (from: http://www.dzs.hr)

As seen from the graph Croatia has high unemployment rates after 2008, which is a major problem for the country's economy. Its peek was in 2013 when the unemployment rate reached 21,5%, in contrast to 2008 when it was just 8,4%. The crisis left serious consequences since the unemployment rate in 2014 did not reduce significantly. One of the possible ways for reducing the unemployment rate and focusing the economy towards growth and development in Croatia definitely lies in the segment of small and medium entrepreneurship. It, as well as in USA and EU, represents the main driving force of the country, so Croatian entrepreneurs are being focused on creativity and innovation in their entrepreneurial endeavors in order to compete on the market and create big leaps in development, so needed for exiting the crisis. Main guidelines for managing small and medium entrepreneurship in order to enable Croatia to focus towards future development and leaving downward trends are concentrated towards encouraging and development of entrepreneurship. This leads to rise of employment, affirmation of export orientation as well as converting adjustment to the global market, increasing quality, efficiency, and competitiveness of small entrepreneurs. Such model encourages entrepreneurial enhancement of scientific activity, innovation and use of modern technology together with ˝clean˝ activities that will not damage the environment (Kresan-Škabrić, Banković, 2008: 59). The reason for encouraging and investing in the small and medium entrepreneurship sector can be seen from the fact that in spite the crisis in Croatia, it notes serious movements forward. The following table shows an increase in the number of companies in small and medium entrepreneurship over a certain period before and after the global crisis.

Table 3. Increase of small and medium enterprises in Republic of Croatia

	2001.		2007.		2010.		2013.	
	No. of companies	%	No. of companies	%	No. of companies	%	No. of companies	%
SME	56.416	99	83.057	99,4	96.386	99.5	100.875	99,7
Small	54.213		81.467		95.004		99.543	
Medium	2.203		1.590		1.379		1.332	
Large	571	1	475	0,6	375	0,5	316	0,3
TOTAL	56.987	100	83.057	100	96.758	100	101.191	100

Source: According to CEPOR, Report of small and medium enterprises in Croatia (from: http://www.cepor.hr/SME%20godisnjak_final.pdf,

 http://www.cepor.hr/SME%20godisnjak_2013.pdf)

It is evident from the table that small and medium enterprises are recording an increase in number of registered companies, especially between 2001 and 2007 when the number of 56.416 small and medium companies increased to 83.057 and they make out 99,4% of all companies in the Republic of Croatia. Big companies have only a smaller portion in the total structure, and indicators that are seen from the table after 2008 and 2009 imply that the sector of SMEs is a great potential that needs to be focused towards further development, and perfecting and developing entrepreneurial creative ideas and projects. In 2010 the number of SMEs increased to 96.386 companies that make 99,5% share in the total number of companies. In spite the hard economic situation this trend also continued in 2013 when there were over 100 thousand active small and medium entrepreneurs in Republic of Croatia. Therefore, small and medium companies have a big role in employment because they present greater possibility for generating new work places. It is important to emphasize that the sector of small and medium entrepreneurship cannot ˝pull˝ Croatia out of crisis, but systematic investments and changes in current business strategies are needed in order to achieve certain changes. In regard to that, it is crucial to invest efforts in order to enable SMEs to achieve easier access to financing their development ideas, and, besides government institutions, a great help comes from the EU through programs and supports provided by EU funds.

Since unemployment in Croatia presents a great problem for economic development and since many people decide to emigrate in order to find better business opportunities, the next graph shows the number of employed in small and medium entrepreneurship, which is growing since 2012.

Graph 6. Number of employed in SMEs in Republic of Croatia
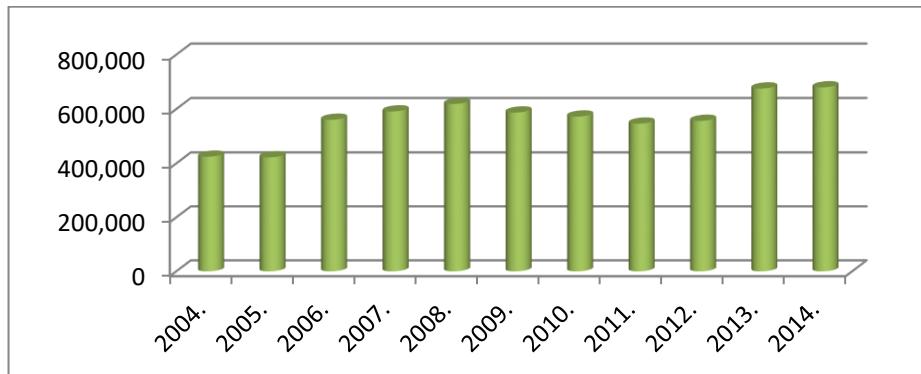
Source: European Commission, SME Performance Review (from: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/facts-figures-analysis/performance

review/files/supportingdocuments/2013/database_en.zip)

The graph shows a period from 2004 when SMEs had over 420 thousand employees. After this there was slow growth rate sustained until 2009 when there was 587.235 employed. After 2009 up to 2011 there was a minor drop in employment, as well as the number of SMEs, and the main reason were the affects of the crisis that didn't bypassed small and medium enterprises. After 2011 there was an increase in number of SMEs and the number of employees in this sector. This represented the possibility for development of activities and developing new, innovative entrepreneurial projects and programs. One of the success indicators, especially with SMEs, is their gross added value, significantly deteriorated during the crisis. Therefore, the next table (cfr. infra Table 4) shows the achieved gross added value from 2008 to 2013 in Croatian SMEs.

Besides that in 2009 a portion of companies were deregistered and the employment dropped, there was a decline in gross added value in small and medium entrepreneurship, which was especially highlighted in 2010 and 2011. Small and medium companies created gross added value of 12.740 million euros, after which there was a decline in 2010 by over a million euros and this trend continued in 2011. In 2012 gross added value of SMEs increased again while decline in large companies was evident. In 2013, gross added value declined again in all sized companies confirming that the crisis still negatively affects business of majority entrepreneurs in Croatia. The big difference (evident in the given data) is that gross added value in SMEs in 2008 was greater than 14 million euros, but until the end of 2013 was reduced to just over 11 million euros.

Table 4. Gross added value of SMEs in Republic of Croatia (in millions of €)

	2008.	2009.	2010.	2011.	2012.	2013.
Micro	4.461	4.093	3.634	3.454	3.704	3.365
Small	5.025	4.334	3.810	3.626	3.758	3.745
Medium	4.930	4.312	4.225	3.977	4.012	3.979
SME total	14.390	12.740	11.669	11.057	11.474	11.381
Large	10.635	9.509	9.326	9.326	9.128	8.849
TOTAL	25.025	22.249	20.383	20.383	20.602	20.229

Source: European Commission, SME Performance Review (from: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/facts-figures-analysis/performance review/files/supportingdocuments/2013/database_en.zip)

These indicators show that in spite of emphasizing small and medium entrepreneurship as the driver of Croatian economy development, the total state of economy has not improved comparing to pre-crisis era. Therefore, significant investments in small and medium entrepreneurship are needed in order to achieve certain movements, as for the SME sector, as well as for the entire Croatian economy. Croatia has great possibilities to achieve this, but it is important to use the potential and funds that are given, especially within the EU growth incentives. Even though the number of companies and employment have increased in small and medium entrepreneurship, this still is not enough to reduce the influence of crisis on GDP rates and employment. Recovery of the economy cannot be based solely on small and medium enterprises, it is important to focus the efforts to all sectors, and to reduce the frequency of bankruptcy and liquidations of big companies.

After analyzing the state of small and medium entrepreneurs in USA whose trouble influenced global business, it is evident that Croatia still hasn't left the hard economic state, and this is reflecting on economic activities.. Such state is not good for Croatia, since the US and leading EU countries (such as Germany) have overcome this crisis and moved towards economic recovery. It is important for Croatia to promote investments into innovations and creative ideas of entrepreneurs, since investments and new technology are the key factors of development possibilities and that entrepreneurs by starting new enterprises employ new workers, compete on the market, create new value – open new perspectives.

It will take a lot of time and effort for small entrepreneurship to recover from the blow that was given by the global crisis. Beside entrepreneurs in this the primary role will have the Croatian government and institutions that regulate monetary policy together with Croatian National Bank. To strategically achieve this task Croatian government in April 2010 started a *Plan of economic recovery* in which it emphasized goals and measures by which economic recovery should be achieved and policies crucial to move the economy on the path of sustainable growth. However, to fight the crisis harder in order to achieve a higher level of crisis management and efficiency, and in order to overcome downward trends, it is crucial to systematically measure and determine the influence of the same on the total economic activity of business subjects and the consequences of the same on the entire society.

Correspondingly, it is important to generate and set a proposal of high quality, fast conductive measures of minimizing or even overcoming certain crisis effects. Even now when the crisis end is in sight, Croatian recovery is showing weak results compared to similar nearby countries. Unfortunately, they even government measures have not yielded any concrete results.

It is evident that Croatia has to, in the shortest time possible, work on neutralizing the ˝syndrome˝ of the economic crisis and through different, most of all efficient, programs, models, and measures. They should aim at certain concessions and benefits for small and medium entrepreneurship so they became capable to normally exist in this period of economic crisis. Finally, there has to be an awareness that after Croatian EU accession in 2013, these issues of national economy will not be dealt only and solely by the European Union, but on the contrary; the fait and key to solutions are in our own ˝hands˝, where it is required to use all available initiatives, chances and financial opportunities of the European Union (Kutnjak, Radović, Miljenović, 2013, 183)

6. CONCLUSION

A crisis is a result or manifestation of certain confusing, unsettled, unpredictable events that devalues or derogates individual, partial or complete social values and causes a state of serious discomfort or complete stress. It implies the creation of damages taking enormous proportions. Intensity of such crises can manifest and it can develop from financial crisis with certain minor variants to the global economic crisis that by its character and power of eroding social values covers an economy of a single country or more of them and the economy of the entire world. Economists have developed a different professional terminology regarding the crisis that tries to signalize the differences in intensity of economic events, so they diversify stagnation, recession, and depression as three unwanted forms of crisis.

Crisis today hits economic subjects, political and government institutions, other different organizations, as well as individual persons. Because of the destructive force that is produced by the crisis, different manifestation forms, and implications of

crisis, the same has to be approached as an individual social phenomenon that produces certain interpretations in the domain of social and economic processes.

Certain countries easily fought negative implications of crisis and exited the crisis period before Republic of Croatia even entered this unfavorable period, which is still lasting today. Germany was the country that was able to exit the crisis and promote its economic development fastest. Countries such as Greece, Spain, Italy and Croatia still feel the consequences of the crisis and are recovering at a slower pace. Crisis period reflected on entrepreneurial activity so it recorded a decrease in companies' number and an increase in unemployment for this period. EU gives its member countries numerous incentives for development of small and medium entrepreneurship through EU funds and programs, which, as of 2013, can also be activated in Croatia as a full EU member. Regardless to the fact that SMEs in Republic of Croatia make more than 99,5% of all companies, this is still not argument strong enough to create any significant economic development, stop the enormous unemployment and decline in industrial manufacturing, curb the deregistration of business subjects, stop GDP decline and decline in life standards, etc., That in a certain way, identifies this issue at the level of the European Union and Republic of Croatia. But, it is doubtful that Croatian SMEs at this moment are still significantly lacking behind the economic efficiency of small entrepreneurship of other EU member countries and USA, what premiums that the anomalies of this sector have to be systematically, timely and engagingly resolved. Indisputably, the Croatian government will have to invest additional efforts to overview all evident, and those less obvious, hidden ˝Rubicon˝ in order to neutralize the negative implications of the crisis in a timely manner and on a healthy basis. This will be crucial in revival of Croatian social and economic environment.

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Open Source Corpus as a Tool for Translation Training

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Abstract

Building a sentence into Arabic is rather difficult for amateur translators. Similarly,is the case for Malay students who particularly learn how to build sentences in writing. Usage of dictionaries also is not enough to convey the translation, especially in translating phrases and sentences from the Malay language into Arabic. Students are incapable of building sentences in Arabic because of lack of exposure to the structure of Arabic sentences. This weakness is discovered by most schools and universities in their writing exercises (Rosni, 2012), Ab. Halim Mohamad (2009), Che Radiah (2009). Generally, the dictionary is very suitable to be used in the search for meaning in the words but not the meaning of the sentence. This paper proposes a method of comparing comparable text of both languages through comparable corpora of both. It can also be called as a tool for translators. In addition to using the dictionary, students are guided to understand the structure of the original Arabic sentences with the comparative method, then apply it in the form of a writing exercise. In this process, teachers, students and amateur translators need to use the computer as a tool and open access data corpus in websites as the ingredient. Translated texts or guide texts for writing exercises are based on Aker and colleagues (2012) method of selection. Text is filtered using Webcorp open corpus engine http://www.webcorp.org.uk/live/ and also through Google open database https://www.google.com. Through this method, the search for similarities between the first and the second language can be exploited. Any text that is identified as having the closest comparable will be used in the classroom. It helps students and translators to build sentences into Arabic by comparison and evaluation of the original text in the corpus. At the same time students are also able to understand and recognize indirectly the structure of the original Arabic sentences. Hopefully this method will help amateur translators and students improve their quality of translation and writing in Arabic.

Keywords: corpus, comparable, databases

Introduction

This method was introduced since the widespread use of bilingual corpus. It is not a method of translation, but it is a method for finding comparable texts between two languages. The aim was to find meaning equivalence that can be a model translation that is near to original level of language usage. Mona Baker's theory of translation is used as measurement in determining comparability between the two texts. It is expected to be used as a method of learning in class for translation courses and also as a plan and structure to a software translation tool that is complemented with Malay and Arabic corpus data. The software will display examples of comparable Malay-Arab sentences as a guide to students studying correct Arabic sentence structures.

Background

One of the problems in schools and universities that need solution is the students' weakness in mastering the Arabic language, especially in writing and translation skills. Arabic language students experienced this problem since the school years and weakness was further brought to the university level. The problem becomes more apparent when focused on the weaknesses in the building of phrases and sentences which is the main mean for effective communication as found by studies such as Rosni (2012), Ab. Halim Mohamad (2009), Che Radiah (2009), Noor Anida binti Awang, Norhayati Binti Che Hat and Nurazan binti Mohmad Rouyan (2014) and Ghazali Yusri and Ahmad Bin Salleh (2006).

Based on the studies above, among the factors that lead to this weakness is due to the fact that the students are affected by the structure of their mother tongue. Other reasons are low mastery of Arabic vocabulary, negligency and no high motivation in learning. This weakness can be seen through significant mistakes in their writing and also in their translation texts from Malay into Arabic language. The usage of dictionary is not enough help to convey the translation's meaning, because the dictionary only translate words and phrases. The example given is also limited. Even if the students were able to find the meaning of each word but they still have trouble in structuring sentences into Arabic.

This method is as a proposal to the development of a software which displays example sentences in both languages. The texts selected are appropriate to the needs of their essay. Students only need to search the sentences needed on the topic of their essay by keyword root word or phrase. Based on the limited ability of the dictionary, thus this process is intended to help students get to know and understand the Arabic sentence structure more easily through studying and comparing with the sentences they construct.

Objectives

This paper aims to introduce the method of comparing text meaning through comparable corpora of two languages, Malay and Arabic . The results are expected to be used as a tool in teaching and learning translation classes and as the basis for the construction of Malay - Arabic dictionary of sentences .

Research Significance

Through this method, it can be used to search for comparabilities in texts and sentences between the first language and the second. Each text identified as having immediate comparability will be used as teaching and learning tool in the classroom. It helps students to Arabic translators in structuring new sentences into Arabic by comparing and evaluating the original texts in the corpus. At the same time students are able to understand and recognize indirectly the structure of the original Arabic sentences. This method is expected to help the amateur translators and students to improve their translation and writing in Arabic. Among the advantages of this method, it offers greater data links rather than using manual methods and is expected to form the basis for constructing a data software with a collection of selected Malay and Arabic texts, placed at par.

Literature Review

According to Zanettin (1998), Rusli and Norhafizah (2001), and Kruger (2004), there are two types of corpus that can be used as study tools to replace the dictionaries. First, known as parallel corpus (parrallel corpora), a corpus which compares the original text with the translated text. The second, known as comparable bilingual corpus (comparable corpora), the corpus that compares the text in two different languages, but share the same topic. For example, some topics or newspaper headlines of the world reporting an important event in multiple languages (Li Shao and Tou Hwee Ng, 2004).

According to Rusli Abdul Ghani and Nurhafizah Mohamed Husin (2001), the DBP has made an effort to build a database of phrases in Malay whether idiomatic or not based on actual use of the phrases in their translation texts. This database includes common phrases and regular expressions in the source language (English) with its equivalent in the target language (Malay). Phrases and regular expression with its matches, are all derived from parallel and comparable corpora.

In Europe, comparable corpus studies began in the 1990s. Many studies concerning corpus were carried out. Comparable corpus as has been described is an unparallel bilingual texts but related and deliver a lot of overlap data in the web such as news in various languages released by news agencies such as CNN and BBC. Among the studies that utilize comparable corpus are studies by Munteano and Marcu (2005) and Munteano (2006).

Various techniques have been introduced by researchers such as Rapp (1995), have made the assumption that comparable words that can be translated appear in the same context, even in unrelated text. Rapp took 100 words and their translations representing the context as vector of similar incident (co-occurrence vector). The result is the matrix of the same events become more common when the composition of words in the matrix is the same in both languages.

Aker et. al (2012) in collaboration with Google has shown a simple technique to collect comparable corpus from the web. This is because the techniques introduced by the researchers before, such as Rapp (1999), Monteanu and Marcu (2002), Resnik (1999), Huang et.al. (2010), Talvensaari (2008), and others were time-consuming and requires substantial resources. The objective of his research is to reduce the amount of time and resources. Previously, researchers have to go through three steps to gather and build a comparable corpus, namely:

First: by downloading the document from the list of titles of the two languages. The process of downloading the document takes a long time and have to go through many obstacles.

Second: is the process of matching with comparable data and the third is to extract them. However, with the proposed technique, the first and second steps become easy. This study used English, Greek and Germany corpus. The methodology is by making a search of news articles through webs and RSS feeds without having to download the entire document. Topics headlines that are beneficial to the study from various categories of the selected languages are taken and at the same time, the time and date of the newscast, URL articles and cluster URL Google News are all recorded. From the topic search and URL cluster, a total of 30 articles with headlines are collected and downloaded forming monolingual Google News search. This process is performed in a specified time period, ie within a period of one week so that only the latest news are taken.

Third, is to divide the title into several entities in the source language and named after people, places or organizations. It is then translated via Google translate to the target language. The next phase is the process of aligning the document to compare the titles of the articles from the collected corpora. If it is comparable, then the actual article is being downloaded to obtain the equivalent corpus.

According to Aker et. al (2012), to measure the equivalence of corpus, two titles were tested with various heuristic techniques. The best 'heuristic' technique is TS (similar title), HS (time difference), and TLD (title-length difference), when used in combination TS-HS-TLD. It was then assessed according to 'Kendall's rank order' and also through human judgment based on Braschler's comparison (1998), ie five categories: same story, related story, same aspect, similar terms or unrelated. The hypothesis is that when the two articles contain the same story.

Some of the findings resulting from this comparison showed that parallel and comparable corpus can be used to build a database of phrases. However, due to the small size of the corpus leads only to few findings. From parallel corpus, some examples of phrases and expressions have been quoted, while from the comparable corpus only terms are available with no results of idiomatic phrase. Comparable phrases from different texts (and different translator) gives an indication that there is a consensus that assures that it is the most suitable match. In case of only having one phrase source with multi-matching, researchers can make their own choices based on compatibility.

Methodology

This study will collect comparable data in Malay and Arabic. Data search and collection is through open corpus online using Webcorp search engine corpus http://www.webcorp.org.uk/live/ and Google https://www.google.com database. The scope of this study is focused on general materials which are appropriate to the writing skills course beginning from level two of primary schools, all levels of secondary schools and Arabic writing skills courses in local university.

The selected topics are topics that dominate the debate of every major world newspaper which will open up a wider debate, as explained by Maia (2003), thus triggering the stages of new language usages and arising many terms related to this topic.

Data samples taken for this method is from sports genre under the topic of the World Cup Championship. This topic was chosen because of the importance of these topics covering the headlines, front and back pages of the newspapers. The probability score to achieve comparable text is greater. Topics for important matches especially the final always received wide coverage as it relates to the world's biggest hit in sports favoured by many.

Related data, evaluated by Aker's 'heuristic' technique (2012) is TS (title similarity), HS (time difference), and TLD (title-length difference) when used in combination TS-HS-TLD and Braschler and Schäuble (1998) category which is same story, related story and same aspect. Each category is then measured of its strong comparability of three levels, as recommended by Guidere (2002) i.e. strong, medium and weak comparability.

Figure 1 shows an overview of the whole methodology of the study:
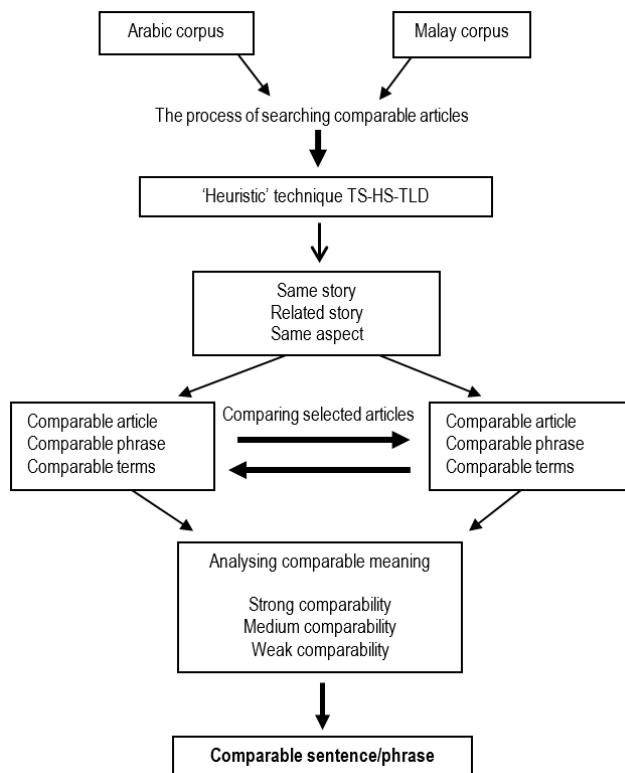
Figure 1

RESEARCH METHOD

More specific title in the 2010 World Cup Championship event have been selected for large probability of comparative findings between the texts.

Examples of topics are:

1. The 2010 World Cup Final

2. Matches between world big teams or well-known teams .

3. Final World Cup 2010

Search method in Webcorp search engine and Google is almost the same. But Google has the advantage of making easier option at the beginning of the search. Google engine offers the 'Any Country' and 'Any time' keys so that the search can be limited to time and place.

Advantage of Webcorp is that it has a filter engine 'Word Filter'. It is able to filter out the requested words and remove unnecessary words by placing minos symbol (-) before the word. Filter of time given for six to seven days until results come out.

Based on first time general search for the three general topics as mentioned above. More specific headlines were made keywords for searching comparable texts. The topics are extracted from the general title as follows:

1. General Title: The Final World Cup 2010

   Specific topic: *The 2010 World Cup Final between the Netherlands and Spain*

2. General Title: Match between big team or leading team.

   Specific topic: *Round 16 Match of the 2010 World Cup Championship (German vs England).*

3. General Title: The Final World Cup 2010

   Specific topic: *The Final World Cup 2014 between Argentina and Germany*

Results

Table 1 below provides an example of the analysis and the conclusion of a number of comparable text taken from the first title of the 2010 World Cup Final match between Netherlands and Spain after rejecting the difference of phrase and word's levels in both texts. The following result can be concluded as comparable sentences.

Table 1

Arabic Data	Malay Data
DS1 بعدما كسر مصيدة التسلل(AA1-1) ضرب مصيدة التسلل الذي(AA1-3) DS2 اثر عرضية متقنة من فابريغاس(AA1-1) عقب نشاط مثمر من فابريغاس(AA1-2) زميله فابريجاس من قاتلة بينية تمريرة تلقى(AA1-4) ومرر فابريجاس كرة هدف المجد لانيستا أمام المرمى (AA1-4) الهولندي DS3 عندما هز انييستا الشباك الهولندية (AA1-1) ان يسدد الكرة في الزاوية اليمنى للمرمى الهولندي (AA1-1)	(MA1-1) Beliau yang tidak berada dalam posisi 'offside' (MA1-1) hasil daripada umpanan Cesc Fabregas. (MA1-2) mendapat lambungan bola ke dalam kotak penalty (MA1-4) bola dihantar Cesc Fabregas (MA1-7) mengutip hantaran pemain gantian Cesc Fabregas (MA1-2) merembat bola tersebut pada minit ke-116. (MA1-4) Iniesta menyempurnakan bola dihantar Cesc Fabregas untuk menewaskan penjaga gol Maarten Stekelenburg (MA1-7) merembat bola melepasi penjaga gol Maarten Stekelenburg.

عندما أسكن إنييستا الكرة في شباك هولندا (AA1-2) وسدد كرة قوية في مرمى الحارس الهولندي في الدقيقة 116 (AA1-3) هولندا شباك في وسددها (AA1-4) ليسددا بيمناه في المرمى الهولندي (AA1-5) لم يتوانى الأخير في تسديدها في الشباك في الوقت القاتل مع (AA1-6) الدقيقة 116 في إنييستا أندريس اللاعب عبر الثمين الفوز هدف وسجل (AA1-7) الدقيقة 116.	(MA1-3) Kemenangan ini mengurniakan gelaran Piala Dunia pertama buat Sepanyol. (MA1-5) SEPANYOL muncul Juara Piala Dunia pertama di bumi Afrika
DS4 وكان هذا الهدف كافيا لمنح بلاده المجد (AA1-1). ليتوج المنتخب الإسباني بطلا للعالم للمرة الأولى في تاريخه. (AA1-2) احرز المنتخب الاسباني كأس العالم في كرة القدم للمرة (AA1-8) الاولى في تاريخه	(MA1-3) Tatkala kedua-dua pasukan dilihat bakal berdepan penentuan penalti selepas tanpa jaringan dalam permainan 90 minit dalam perlawanan **(**MA2-1)Sepanyol bagaimanapun terlebih dahulu berpeluang.
DS5 أي قبل نحو أربع دقائق من الاحتكام إلى ضربات الترجيح (AA1-3) اي قبل دقائق قليلة من انتهاء الوقت الاضافي الذي يسبق (AA1-8) اللجوء الى ضربات الجزاء الترجيحية.	(MA2-1)…sepakan sudut dihadiahkan kepada Sepanyol diambil oleh Xavi.
DS6 وجاءت أول فرصة في اللقاء لصالح المنتخب الأسباني (AA2-1) وحصلوا على فرصة لافتتاح التسجيل (AA2-2) وكاد المدافع سيرجيو راموس أن يفتتح باب التسجيل في (AA2-3) الدقيقة الثالثة	(MA2-1)…menerusi tandukan Ramos (MA2-2)…yang kemudiannya ditanduk oleh Sergio Ramos.
DS7 اثر ضربة حرة لعبها تشافي هيرنانديز في الدقيقة الخامسة (AA2-1) وقابلها سيرخيو راموس. عندما انبرى تشافي لكرة حرة من الجهة اليمنى وصلت الى (AA2-2) سيرجيو راموس. المتخصص تشافي الذي نفذها بدقة على رأس راموس (AA2-3)	(MA2-1) …menguji Maarten Stekelenburg menerusi tandukan Ramos namun sempat ditepis oleh penjaga gol itu pada minit ke-5
DS8 وقابلها سيرخيو راموس بضربة رأس قوية (AA2-1) وصلت الى سيرجيو راموس الذي سددها من مسافة قريبة (AA2-2) بضربة رأسية. (AA2-3) نفذها بدقة على رأس راموس ليحولها برأسة قوية… (AA2-4)	(MA3-1) Dirk Kuyt, pada minit ke-7 berjaya melepaskan satu sepakan kencang dari jarak 25 meter. (MA3-2) Mujur cubaan jauh Dirk Kuyt…
DS9 ولكن الحارس الهولندي مارتن ستيكلنبرج تصدى لها ببراعة (AA2-1) فائقة ثم شتتها الدفاع قبل جيرارد بيكيه المتحفز. …صدها الحارس ستيكلنبورغ (AA2-3) أنقذها الحارس الهولندي مارتن ببراعة. (AA2-4)	
DS10 محاولاته الهجومية بتسديدة قوية أطلقها ديرك كاوت من (AA3-1) مسافة بعيدة في الدقيقة الثامنة. وسدد كاوت كرة ضعيفة كان لها كاسياس (AA3-2) ورد الهولنديون بتسديدة بعيدة لديرك كاوت (AA3-2)	

The results of the comparison of the text in all comparable data (DS) as above. The number one and two data (DS1 and DS2) may be summarized as follows:

DS1

Arabic	Comparability	Malay
بعدما كسر مصيدة التسلل1-AA( ) ضرب مصيدة التسلل الذي(3-AA1)	Medium comparability (MC) Both data share the same meaning, that is-not offside position. The difference is in the use of term and sentence structure.	(MA1-1) Beliau yang tidak berada dalam posisi 'offside'

Text level in comparable data 1 (DS1), are all medium-class of comparability (MC). Textual level means the same thing that it is not in an 'offside' position.

DS2

Arabic	Comparability	Malay
اثر عرضية متقنة من (1-AA1) فابريغاس	Strong Comparability (SC) Additional adjectives in AA1-1 *Mutqinah* does not affect the purpose of delivering the meaning	(MA1-1) hasil daripada umpanan Cesc Fabregas.
عقب نشاط مثمر من (2-AA1) فابريغاس	Medium comparability (MC) Although Fabregas name is mentioned in AA1-2 but not in 1-2 it still means the passing of ball from Fabregas.	(MA1-2) mendapat lambungan bola ke dalam kotak penalty
من قاتلة بينية تمريرة تلقى(4-AA1) زميله فابريجاس	Medium comparability (MC) The difference is in AA1-4 as there is an adjective *Qatilah* which means deadly passing while in MA 1-4 is not mentioned	(MA1-4) bola dihantar Cesc Fabregas

Text level in comparable data 2 (DS2). Data AA1-1 has strong comparability (SC). AA1-2 data and AA1-4 medium comparability (MC). The overall data means the same thing that is ball passing done by Fabregas.

Conclusion

This methodology is expected to produce a result of analysis that can be used as proof of for searching comparable meaning by using comparable corpus. In addition it can also be used as a specific method for learning aided by corpus using a specially designed software online in the hope of helping to develop a method of translation in teaching and learning translation and as translation tools.

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Careers, Identities and Professionalization. a Study on Doctors about Their Social Representations Related to the Labor Market Today and its Foreseeable Future

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Abstract

This study is in line with the analyses of university and working career in their interaction in relation with conditioning factors. It comprises two central issues: the issue of identity bound to the issue of professionalization within the domain of training and employment. Nowadays, professionalization of the individuals, inside a troubled occupational world, demands the implementation of mechanisms favoring the development of both the individuals and the institution in which they work. All this has an impact at the local, regional and even national levels. Three levels of analysis interplay from a sui generis perspective: macro-meso-micro-macro (Aparicio, 2005; 2007a; 2007b, 2013a, 2014, 2015 b, d – See the Three- Dimensional Spiral of Sense Theory). The aim was to be aware of the doctors' representations regarding the value of such degree under the present "degree devaluation", and its impact on the professional future as well as on the core issues of the labor market which need urgent measures with a view to a belter interaction between the two systems. The methodology used was quanti-qualitative (semi-structured questionnaires, interviews, and hierarchical evocations). The population consisted of doctors (2005-2012) from the National University of Cuyo, in Argentina. The results helped us understand the nucleus of such representations and the peripheral aspects by career and institution, thus revealing professional and disciplinary identities. The professional identities show the situated needs in terms of professionalization within the different contexts and, particularly, within the labor market.

Keywords: Careers, Identities, Professionalization, Social Representations, Labor Market

1. Brief Framework: What is the future for PhDs?

This research work is part of the issue of Professionalization, (Lang, 1999; Bourdoncle 1993) associated to the issue of professional, personal, institutional and social identity (See. Part I. Introduction; Aparicio, 2015, in press; 2014b).

This is part of a set of continuous works concerning professional performance of different populations (university graduates, drop-outs, students who take longer to complete their studies, teachers, etc.), covering 20 years of existence of different courses of study at Universidad Nacional de Cuyo (UNCuyo, Argentina).

We have worked on two core issues: identity related to professionalization in the field of formation, and professional insertion.

Professionalization has been source of long debate since the 80s (Lang, 1999). On the one hand, the effects of "overcrowding" in higher education (Bourdoncle & Demailly, 1998) has emphasized the need to consolidate certain competences and sets of knowledge essential for professional practice and its corollary, social recognition of professional groups (Bourdoncle, 1993). The professionalization of individuals (training on an existing field) or of the activities (construction and/or redefinition of new profiles of an existing profession) demands the implementation of new mechanisms. On the other hand, as regards this research, the conditions of professional practice in the working world have changed, and professional insertion as well as duration and promotion represent a complex problem with a variety of variables.

Briefly: the quick changes within the professional world demand innovative transformations in training institutions and consolidation of new competences valued by the market. All that could influence on professional and institutional identity updating.

There are many institutional efforts which have not always been accepted. In the specific field of training, the new professionals encounter various difficulties, in addition to lack of recognition. Some authors even speak of de-professionalization of those graduates on this field, and they are left behind into a process of "proletarianization" (Ozga & Lawn, 1981). There exist other problems: "semi-professional" status in a broad sense (Etzioni, 1969), the devaluation of the graduate's image in the field of education (training) along with an ever growing weakening (burnout) (Tardiff & Lessard 1999; Maroy 2006; Aparicio, 2006a, 2006 b, 2007 a, 2007 b, 2009 a, 2009 b, 2009 c, 2013 a).

In general, considering the existing literature, it can be said that there is a certain tension between the area of work and the area of training, as well as between the expectations at the moment of vocational choice and the actual experience in the professional environment; also, between the "ideal" situation expected by the PhD students and the real one of the PhD graduates; between the representation of the doctors and their world experience. Is there an identity crisis as regards the deep changes in the labor market and as regards expectations? (Goffman, 1963). Is there certain overprescription in the institutions to respond to the changes in the labor market along with underprescription in the means used to such response, as it is usually said? Within this framework, the links between the personal training experience and the professional life become a source of concern in the field of training and, especially, in the studies related to humanities and social sciences.

Besides, this issue involving institutional and even disciplinary identities, as well as the identity reconstruction processes, is accompanied, as it has just been said, by actual insertion conditions, duration and professional mobility; all of them will have an impact on professional performances (Dubar 1991, 2000 a, b and c).

This research develops along two lines: actual insertion (here, effect/variable-dependent)and the conditions (core variables, sociocultural, psychosocial and institutional) associated to professional performance, which favor or prevent achievement within labor organizations (here, independent/intermediate variables): Expectations, Internality, Engagement, Social Representations on the value of education in society and related factors, such as power relationships, stereotypes, prioritized values in each micro-system, frustrations, possibilities of professional success, etc.

These two lines represent the two poles in our theoretical model, which include, at least, the four variable types already mentioned. These variables, according to our sui generis systemic approach, interact within a "self-sustained" movement (feedback) (Aparicio, 2005a, 2012a, 2014c). Analysis shows, on the one hand, the gap between the training provided by educational institutions and that demanded by the market (disarticulation between the education and productive systems). On the other hand, the differentiated conditions of the individuals received by each institution (self- and institutional selection processes): variables which have an influence on the professional achievement levels, as far as the results of our studies are concerned. These studies not only add inputs and outputs but also, and fundamentally, human processes that appear on the base of the figures of the systems, accounting not only for the factors have a significant impact on achievement, but also for the "underlying" reasons that make the figures in the national and, system meaningful and, more broadly, in the international framework. It is actually an integrating and holistic approach that helps analyze the mechanisms and/or factors anticipating achievement at the psycho individual level, and at the same time going through the meso-institutional/organizational level (university, labor market). This achievement, in this study, reminds us of the experience in the labor market of doctors in the framework of degree devaluation (Aparicio, 2005 a, 2007 a and b, Boudon, 1973; Lévy-Garboua, 1976, 1977; Dupray, 2005; Dupray & Moullet, 2004; Calmand & Haller, 2008; Giret, 2003; Giret, Moullet, & Thomas, 2003; Mansuy, 2004; Olivier et al., 2008).We should also add, on the one hand, the market demands new competences and, therefore, new mechanisms from the institutions, as well as the effort of the individuals to support the changes. On the other, this leads to identity transformations and the implementation of identity strategies (Gofmann, 1963) to deal with the difficulties posed by the new contexts and, related to that, there appears the need for professional recognition. This problem does not seem to be different for those who reached the highest academic level (Dubar 1991, 2000 a, b and c).

The original approach joins explanation and comprehension; quantitative and qualitative methodology aiming at explaining and reveal conditions of achievement. As strategies, the macro-meso-micro-macro dimensions are gathered: processes and results; transversal and quasi-longitudinal (personal experiences or life, ...); diachronically and synchronically (Aparicio,2005a, 2007a and b, 2012a).

Several research works done for 30 years have led to the development of the theory, which Dr. Aparicio has called The Three Dimensional Spiral of "Sense" Theory.(2015 a, 2015 b; 2015 In press)

2. Material and Methods

The quantitative-qualitative method was applied. This study refers only to the qualitative method.

Participants: Consisting of doctors in education at Universidad Nacional de Cuyo (National University of Cuyo)(2005-2009) and doctors in social sciences; this study is still in progress),Two research laboratories took part in this work: the Laboratorio de Investigaciones en Educación (Education Research Laboratory - Conicet/UNCuyo, Argentina) and Social Psychology Laboratory - Conicet, UNCuyo). It is expected to find different profiles according to the work/professional disciplinary areas in which they are situated together with the differences of the respective contexts with their strengths and weaknesses.

The samples of the groups included were significant, and also allow for a quantitative treatment of the data.

2.1. Materials

Quantitative and qualitative techniques were applied. We also used the "hierarchical evocation" and the lexicometric analysis techniques. The latter allowed to show which representations are part of the "nucleus" of a doctoral training in each of the groups, and which are their most evident differences and the ways they experience their professional practice according to their expectations.

2.2. Core questions in the researchwork

How and where are the doctors in education positioned within the market? Which professional structures are they inserted in? Which are the aspects defining their actual insertion on terms of positioning achievement – objective/subjective – within the hierarchical scale? What are their expectations regarding their PhD training? Do they regard PhD education as a progress route? Which valued are prioritized? Are they in search for stability, reality or the economic benefits associated to the PhD degree? How do they see their future? How do they see their role? Which are, in their own perspective, the factors prioritized by the market nowadays? Have they experienced any discrepancy between the training they received and the market requirements or not? Does hope or pessimism prevail? Do these doctors share specific "identities" or "interests"? Hoe similar or different are these?

3. Results

They were presented in two sections: quantitative (descriptive plan, correlational and explanatory) and qualitative. As we could observe, differences are noticed between the groups. In fact, there appear PhD training and its impact on labor positioning, professional promotion and mobility known by the individuals, extra-curricular development experiences which contributed to labor insertion and continuity, correspondence (or lack of it) with professional expectations, the gaps between the dream world at the moment of entering a PhD training and actual everyday world, the difficulties at obtaining recognition due to the "plafond" effect, more and more evident in a controversial working world, in which education does not go parallel to the macro social and economic context development. We can also observe an ever changing world which has an impact on identities, thus disrupting individuals and organizations. Therefore, we come across individuals who are fulfilled by their profession, but many others want a change and are even considering quitting and going into a more income-producing career. The level of satisfaction varies with the individuals but also with the careers, as it was already hypothesized. In the end, it all depends on the interplay between personal competences, institutional/organizational conditions, and the possibilities offered by the macro social context in relation with the different disciplinary areas (for example, for those graduated in education, the PhD degree represents a bonus in the labor market). Scrutinizing the shared representations is, thus, a way of going deeper into this issue, as we go beyond statistics and apart from linear analyses. There is no linear professional career. The three levels of Dr. Aparicio's theory (Aparicio 2007 a and b, 2015 a and b, 2015 in press) interplay in every case, and make an impact on the possibilities of fulfillment along with organizational growth.

At the theoretical level, this research allowed: a) to, produce knowledge regarding differences and similarities presented by the doctors recently incorporated into the professional world; b) to test the heuristic value of some explanatory and comprehensive methods; c) to go deeper, from an interdisciplinary perspective, into the higher education/occupational world relationship, as well as into the professional world transformations and their impact on the level of identity. In fact, we discovered more fulfilled "identities"; others which are blocked, and others in search for transformation.

At the applied level, those responsible for the educational and working areas have empirical elements to dispose of which may lead to improve the areas of the system where the breach is wider.

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Female Authors under the Mask of a Male Pseudonym - Some Approaches to Revealing Authors' Gender

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Abstract

A patriarchal society has very clear and rigid norms. Its frame does not allow one to move out of it, and a mode of behaviour which attempts any change is severely punished. This kind of society has strict written and unwritten rules, and it seems that the second kind are more harmful and painful for the individual than the first. In 19th century, European society was strongly patriarchal, and a phenomenon which confirms this is the fact that many female writers published their works under a male pseudonym. A patriarchal system attempts to prevent women from any artistic and scientific form and expression, as they are labelled as less intellectually able or talented, but by choosing a male pseudonym they found a way to reach their goal. An author writes about what he knows, what surrounds him and/or what he notices, feels and thinks. Considering that a patriarchal society system is highly defined, female and male points of view, their angles of reflection and aims are obviously different. In novels, choice of character and situation and the description of such, can easily reveal an author's gender. These approaches will be illustrated by analysing the work of Vincenza Speraz, who lived in North Italy between the 19th and 20th centuries, and published her works under the pseudonym Bruno Sperani.

Key words: pseudonym, female writers, analysis, an author's gender, literature

Introduction

The city of Milan between the 19th and 20th centuries was a national cultural centre, even if bounded by the rules of European patriarchal society (Duby, Perrot, 2009). This period is described as one marked by a progressive bourgeoisie, a culture opening itself to positivism, socialism and emancipation (Zancan, 1998). It was presumed necessary that women have a part in cultural and social life, and some female writers and journalists had their share of popularity through writing about the conditions of women at the time – difficult employment, hard physical work, subordination in society and family, prostitution, rape (Ciopponi, 2006). It seems that the impact intended was not so successful because some of them, as Vicenza Speraz, alias Bruno Sperani, choose to write and publish under a male pseudonym (Ciopponi, 2006).

The primary reason is that patriarchal censorship applied to supposed female values and qualities denied *a priori*. It was Sperani's desire to publish her works without the scissors of censorship, to have as large an impact on the public as possible and to transform a mute scream into an authoritative voice. This ambiguity begins before the act of writing itself: by choosing to give a voice to what is untold by using a writing style typical of male writers. A reversed image and the procedure of counterpoint provide the necessary distance from the primary issue, as they reveal an entire horrific reality and the necessary absence of emotions in relational evaluation. Yet the choice of theme and description, the directions of analysis of the arguments on display cannot conceal the author's gender.[1] The writing style of the time in which Sperani was active was descriptive; it does not avoid detail and offers ample introspection, which make it easier to explain the approaches which reveals the author's gender. Sperani's novel *Macchia d'oro* (*The Gold Stain*) is the one selected for analysis, first published in a periodical as a popular serial[2] and in 1901 as an integrated novel: it was then to be received in silence and consigned to oblivion due to its inconvenient and inappropriate ideas.

Due to the argument presented in this paper, reporting and quoting relevant parts of the plot was unavoidable.

1. **Choice and description of character**

The writing style of Sperani has all the characteristics of her time, but it is necessary to take into consideration that she was also a journalist and translated Zola and Andersen which were definitely an influence on her (Fonda, 2000). The main characters form a triangle: Corrado, the husband, Elena, his wife and Luciano, friend to Corrado and Elena's lover. Two secondary characters compliment these relations: Giulia as Elena's best and only friend, and Stella, the daughter Elena had with Luciano. The relation of forces between the characters is typical for the time but the way in which they are depicted offers the key to understanding the author's gender. Elena is the focal point, and the descriptions of other protagonists are offered exclusively though a female perception.

Corrado's character is represented as a typical male force, led by the needs social rules allow. He had lost his money gambling, did not marry Elena out of love but for the money she has, accepted his friend's daughter into the home only because Luciano provided money for her, and is set to continue gambling. "Corrado Montese apparteneva a quella categoria di uomini che disprezzano in fondo tutte le donne, accordando una sorta di rispetto alle rigide perché le giudicano insensibili e quindi impeccabili" (Sperani, 1900b, p. 300). "Corrado Montese belonged to that category of men who in the end despise all women, having a sort of respect for those who are rigid, as they can be judged as insensible and therefore impeccable". He is also unfaithful to his wife as his society allows male infidelity. The description of his "female politics" reveals the author's gender, because it offers a female point of view collocated under a male's name. Sperani wrote (Sperani, 1900b, p. 300):

> Modello di figlia, mi ha sposato per obbedienza; e modello di donna nella famiglia; ma incapace di amare, incapace di dare l'ebbrezza della passione a un uomo di sentimento. Trascurava la moglie, la tradiva con donne indegne, senza il più piccolo rimorso, stimandosi nel proprio diritto e al sicuro d'ogni rappresaglia.

> A model daughter, she married me for obedience; and she is a model woman in the family; but unable to love, unable to provide the thrill of passion to an emotional man. He neglected his wife, he cheated on her with ignoble women, without a single regret, congratulating himself on his right and secure from any revenge.

Luciano, Corrado's friend and Elena's lover, is a rich and famous opera singer, in love with the fame and luxury he can afford, and tender enough with Elena to make their relationship seem like love. In crucial moments he reveals a sense of the practical, but the author here condemns his acts as egoistic. He combines the utilitarian and profitable in all: gives his natural daughter Stella to Corrado and the money for her upbringing yet conceals the fact that Elena is her natural mother as he fears how knowledge of this might affect his career. While absent for several months, he sends letters and money, but when he discovers the misery his daughter lives in, he takes her away without regret. This kind of character is represented from a very concrete point of view, who, as revealed by a female pen, is judged as insensible and egoistic; the letters he sent during the period of absence are further evidence: "Qualche altra parola affettuosa e di rimpianto era sparsa, qua e là nella lettera, come una elemosina, in mezzo all'espansione grandiose dell'egoismo soddisfatto" (Sperani, 1900b, p.304). "Some tender word and some of regret were scattered here and there in the letter, as charity, in the midst of a great expanse of satisfied egoism".

The author's attention is primarily concentrated on the female protagonist Elena. Through descriptions and by presenting the actions of these characters it is very easy to decipher author's gender. The descriptions of the states of mind and introspection of the female protagonist are particularly helpful. The descriptions of subordination and submission are clearly written by a person who had the occasion to experience them in society. Elena had "una bellezza regolare, casta e semivelata" (Sperani, 1900a, p. 241)/"a regular beauty, pure and half veiled". She was a petty bourgeois whose intimate drama no one could ever imagine or discover. The author discovers her gender through a very significant description of Elena's clothes and the way the protagonist senses them, revealing a professional intelligence here as Sperani was also a fashion journalist. At the time clothes were a sign of social rank, and this was highly defined. Due to her husband's "illness" (a gambling addiction) the family is poor, but thanks to the money Luciano sends for their daughter, and an extra but significant amount for clothes both for the child and Elena, the protagonist lived a constant imbalance between what she knew she was, what she could be and what she had to be due to the promise the two men in her life had made. At a certain moment she ceases wearing the clothes which were representative of a rank higher than her own, and begins to dress like a poor petty bourgeois, which is what she feels and knows herself to be. The social factor is not so relevant in this particular case as the psychological function manifested in this change of clothes signifies hypocrisy first the silent rebellion of the protagonist later. Her insignificant role in the family and her subordination, combined with an absence of understanding, is

underlined at the moment she realises that her husband did not understand a thing when she when she began to exclusively wear the clothes appropriate to their financial situation.

Another argument which reveals the author's gender is the choice of the secondary character Giulia, the best and only friend the main protagonist has. The author intentionally inserts an opposite female character, but keeps an open communication between the two. If Elena thought she had real love with Luciano, and if there was only the slightest possibility he would marry her, Giulia suffered for her unfaithful husband, but then became disillusioned. Giulia had the courage to ask for a divorce but became a widow before the legal procedure was complete, on the other hand, Elena never even imagined a similar solution. Giulia decided to never get marry again, and lived in good conditions with her daughter by her own means. On the other hand, Elena dreamed to be the wife of her lover (Sperani, 1900b).

These two images of two different female types reveal the author's "insider" eye of a wider set of psychological and social problems. One character has the intelligence to understand social realities and to find a tolerable solution between personal desires and legal and social boundaries. This is a character who obtained what she wanted through communication and willpower without scandal. All these aspects portray a survivor and a sober mind. The other character displays an impossibility to act, constant and suffered subordination, and, from a certain point of view, the humiliation of not being considered a person. The inability to pronounce, to speak, not even to fight for herself and her position in her family, shows a powerless character: a loser who lost herself. A balance between written and non written social rules, on one side, and the expectations of family, which can or cannot be fulfilled, on the other, was a constant challenge for women in a patriarchal society (Porciani, 2006; Ciopponi, 2006). Through these two characters it is possible to presume that it was more difficult for the women of that time to win and change the expectations that a patriarchal society had for them, than to change written and unwritten laws.

2. **Choices and description of situations**

The main situation and its description are represented by the forces around Stella, the natural daughter. The male characters acts in the harmony of friendship and personal and mutual benefits. Elena, on the other hand, who also benefits from this situation, annihilates herself in a self-destructive and masochistic manner. Yet it is through the description of Elena's feelings and introspective thoughts that the author's gender reveals itself. Elena's first reaction, which was a clear sign of the beginning of her self-destruction, occured when she faced the gap between the luxury her lover lived in and the misery her family lived in, underlined by the fact that her husband kept losing important amounts of money Luciano regularly sent for the maintenance of his daughter. She left the transfer of shame the situation brought, because "… la vergogna di suo marito ricadeva irimediabilmente sopra di lei"/"…the shame of her husband irremediably fell on her" (Sperani, 1900c, p.68). The social subordination the protagonist experiences, and her personal incapacity to speak out her thoughts and feelings, grows by automatically assuming the failures of others.

Elena's fall and psychological breakdown are portrayed through her thoughts on men, love and motherhood, or, better yet, fatherhood. The beginning of her downward spiral was her sudden realisation that what she thought was real love was in fact a misunderstanding which lasted far too long, which completely changed the view she had on a significant part of her life. At this moment she becomes aware of the total absence of her feelings for these two men. Sperani uses this protagonist's introspection for the presentation of her personal-female and revolutionary thoughts about society and about the patriarchal system in general. The author's ideas that reveal her gender can be read in two important passages the protagonist's mode of reasoning is made evident.

The first considers the relationship between women and work. A hundred years ago the idea that many women be allowed to work was a mere dream, as well as the possibility and the choice not to depend on anyone but on herself without "fathers and masters", or as Elena felt and stated "owners" (Porciani, 2006). The lack of work possibilities at the time was directly connected with the dominant patriarchal view on women, as less or not at all talented and less or not at all intelligent (Filippini, Scattigno, 2007). A restrictive ambient, as the one cited here, had, as a collateral effect, very limited learning options and school careers for women, which directly restrained professional possibilities and choices (Porciani, 2006).

> … essere sola con i suoi figlioli: lavorare per mantenerli e educarli a modo suo senza intervento d'altre volontà (…) chiamarli col suo casato (Sperani, 1900d, p.159).

… being alone with her children: work to maintain and to educate them, in her way without the intervention of another's will (…) name them with her family name.

Si vedeva in un paese nuovo, in una bella casa, affaccendata a preparare il lavoro alle abili operaie, mentre i suoi figli facevano i conti, riscuotevano i pagamenti, e Stella imparava a lavorare alla scuola (Sperani, 1900d, p.160).

She saw herself in a new country, in a nice house, busy while preparing work for skilful working women, while her sons keep accounts, cash in payments, and Stella learns a profession at school.

The second issue that reveals the author's personal and direct participation in this argument, as well as her gender, is represented by the question of fatherhood. Elena's internal monologue reaches a crescendo in which her reasoning is brought to an extreme conclusion – that fatherhood must be abolished. The rational drama of this female protagonist ends in an irrational and fatal conclusion. The logical function of reasoning is exact in that it follows facts collateral to the effects of a patriarchal society and family system, but the author underlines a typical female emotional reaction to a determined situation. The very beginning of this polemic on fatherhood begins with thoughts on self-sufficiency, money and work, immediately including men as an integral part of the problem. Elena's wish was: "…non vedere mai più quei due uomini e togliere i suoi figlioli alla potestà paterna, fonte di ogni male per essi e per lei" (Sperani, 1900d, p.160) "…not to see those two men ever again and to take away her children from paternal authority, the cause of all misfortune for them and for her". This reasoning shows the anger of a subordinated being, of someone who never felt allowed to be a person, treated as a being of self-sufficient integrity, a being with reason, talent and emotions. Fatherhood in this example is offered as an artificial social convention, not as a part of a natural human course. The fact that the protagonist never felt as a person, makes it a logical course of thinking in which she transfers this personal perception to her children. It seems inevitable that, in this very case, fatherhood is nothing much or less than a restrictive and irrational cage, which brings misery to the rest of the family. The author's thoughts expressed through Elena directly elaborate the relation between motherhood and fatherhood, and the emotional force that arises from these lines shows the author's personal involvement in this question. "I figli sono della madre: sono miei, miei: io ho sofferto per essi: io ho rischiato la mia vita: io sola. Che centrano quei due egoisti?" (Sperani, 1900d, p.160-161) "The children are their mother's: they are mine, mine: I suffered for them: I put my life at risk: only me. What do those two egoists have to do with this?" It is clear from these sentences that the author knows what she is writing about from personal experience. The biological element in this issue proves that the gender of the author can only be female. Sperani herself, at a young age, was forced into marriage and left her children with her husband in Piran, in order to have a life of her own and not be treated as a thing or property. This novel is a sort of autobiography, and this is the reason why, in those the pages in which Elena reasons on herself as a non person and on motherhood, it is clear that behind the male pseudonym there must be a female writer. These pages answer the question why Sperani left her three children and husband. Certain situations in the novel are clearly fictional, but the main course of thought is personal and derives from personal experience. Sperani had no other choice if she wanted to be self-sufficient and to have and take responsibility for her own choices. To survive this existential situation Sperani had to leave her children, and fight her entire life to have the freedom to be master of herself alone. On the other hand, the protagonist of her novel is weak, not even able to pronounce her elementary thoughts and feelings, as many women of the time suffered submission in silence. Female rebellion against the conventions of the time were paid at an inhuman price, and the autobiographical lines of this novel are a proof and an open denunciation of the injustices of a patriarchal society.

The trigger for Elena's breakdown and her significant monologue is represented by the solution Luciano found for their daughter, when he finds out that Stella lives in misery and takes her away with him. As always, even in this situation no one asked Elena for her opinion. It is for this reason that Sperani includes in Elena's discourse the question of law. The two men

… vogliono essere padroni di miei figli?! E la legge riconosce il loro diritto? (…) Dovrebbero vietare a tutti gli uomini indistintamente di riconoscere per loro propri figli delle donne. … i figli sono delle loro madri e che i padri non dovrebbero avere alcun diritto su loro. (…) Sanno forse quando sono padri se le donne non glielo dicono? (…) Una legge giusta sarebbe quella che abolisce la paternità. (…) Essi vogliono la minore responsabilità possibile con la maggiore autorità (Sperani, 1900d, p. 160-161).

… they want to be masters of my children? And the law recognises their right? (…) They should indiscriminately prohibit all men to recognise a woman's children as their own. … the children are their mother's and a father should not have any right to them. (…) do they know if they are fathers if a woman does not tell them so? (…) A

right law should be one which abolishes paternity. (…) They want less possible responsibility with the more authority.

Sperani explicitly exposes way her views on patriarchal society and law in this passage as rigid and unnatural institutions. The most important thing she mentions is a woman's word on who the father is, but at the time it was the only source of a presumed paternity. This problematic shows the weakness of the patriarchal system, because as the only solutions here were the written and unwritten rules created by to keep women under control.[3] On the other hand the question is: why do women let them to do so, but this can be an argument for another paper.

While Elena was sorting Stella's luggage, and after she saying her goodbye, the fact remains that Stella will never know who her mother was: a paralyzed protagonist. Luciano thought how this woman cold, but Elena's emotional crescendo brought no storm to clear this situation; it brought the implosion of a protagonist who will die in silence. The cause of death will be: Paralisi cerebrale. Ne muoiono tanti, a tutte le età. Sono esseri deboli, o creature dissanguate dai patimenti; basta una piccola scossa a troncare il filo della loro vita" (Sperani, 1900d, p.176) "Cerebral paralysis. Many die of this, at all ages. They are weak beings, or bleed to death by suffering; a little commotion is enough to cut the string of their life". Sperani's protagonist, unlike the author, is weak and this kind of writing procedure is typical for the time. Yet as partially biographical, in this context, the death of the protagonist represents the death of a part of Sperani when she left her children from her first marriage, despite the fact that she was to live life she had always aspired to.

The title of novel *The Gold Stain* is the quintessence of the main problems which marked the female condition in the society of that time. The author wrote from personal experience and was able to identify what was key to this problem. The adjective "gold" has an obvious and direct reference to finance and the material conditions of women a hundred years ago. As financially dependent and unable to choose, their life and eventual rebellion demanded sacrifices. Yet, on the other hand, they were not responsible for this: apparently and only in appearance, they only had to enjoy their condition. The "stain" is the effect which the one-way written and unwritten law had on women. It is not the case that Sperani described her female hero as a person who never had any sense for pecuniary matters, but had to act and to live within boundaries of patriarchal law, unable to change her condition.

Conclusion

To decipher the gender of an author hidden behind a pseudonym is possible by using a few methodological approaches which assist such an analysis. Firstly, it is necessary to take into consideration the time and space of a literary work. In the example presented in this paper the cited co-ordinates are Italy between the 19th and 20th centuries. This means southern Europe and a patriarchal society undergoing significant historical changes such as the first ideas of socialism, the rise of the working class and the tangible beginning of the women's battle to obtain equality in cultural, social, legal aspects as well as those of labour; in other words, in all fields that important to a civilisation. The next step is to consider the writing style of this chronological moment and geographical location. In the example presented in this paper, the writing style provided us with rich descriptions and psychological introspection, which allows a clear approach in uncovering the author's gender. A further analysis of the protagonists, how they are depicted and the choices of situations as well, can undoubtedly reveal who is hiding behind a pseudonym. In our example the author chooses a triangle – two men and a woman, and puts the female protagonist at the centre. Through detailed descriptions of the female character, a personal and tangible participation is clearly present, which puts light on the fact that the author can only be a woman. The detailed descriptions of situations and of the interior monologue of the female protagonist, which discuss motherhood, fatherhood, laws, financial conditions and female reality leaves little doubt as to the author's gender. Through this analysis it is possible to individuate this personal experience by arguing the questions and problems offered here, as they are highly emphasised, making them unavoidable.

Every author writes about personal experience through personal perception, and due to the direct emotional and intellectual participation in an issue, it is unavoidable for him or her to reveal his or her true nature and his or her position in society and/or family. No matter the mask of a pseudonym, *if we called a rose by any other name, it would smell just as sweet*.

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Endnotes

1. 1 In 19th century the Austrian writer Leopold von Sacher-Masoch published some of his works under a female pseudonym. In *The Divorced Women,* for example, he identifies himself with the protagonist who lives in humiliation and a state of inferiority. The author experienced pleasure in this state of submission and this is the reason why Richard von Krafft-Ebing introduced the term "masochism" for this kind of defined behaviour.

2.   2 The negative side of a popular serial was that it was not considered as high or serious literature. But at the other side it was an occasion especially for women writers, who could publish their works and reach a large public of readers.

3.   3 At the time, women's rights were comparable to those of children. In the case of divorce, the (ex) husband had the right to decide on a child's destiny – if he wanted, no matter the reason –civil law gave him the option of keeping the children. A great many (ex) husbands turned these legal possibilities and options to their own advantage. An example is the case of Frieda von Richthofen, who had to leave her three children after her divorce when she chose D.H. Lawrence as her partner.

Appendix

Beatrice Speraz alias Bruno Sperani

The author was born in Solin (Croatia) on 24ᵗʰ July 1843, but some sources give the 1839 as the year of her birth. Due to croatisation and italianisation sources disagree as to her real name. Her full name appeared as Vincenza Pleti Rosic Pare-Sperac, also called Beatrice or Bice, and later her surname appeared adapted to the Italian orthographical system as Speraz. Other sources give the Croatian variant Vice Šperac. Her father Marino Pare Speraz was Croatian and had modest origins, and her mother Elena Alessandri was Italian and belonged to the old aristocracy of Piran (Slovenia). These two different worlds deeply marked Beatrice. Her mother fell ill, and as she never got used to life in Solin, after her husband died she decided to return to Piran with her daughter. Beatrice, orphaned at an early age stayed in Piran with her family, and passed her time reading and writing. Her first literary attempts are unavailable because she destroyed everything she wrote at the time. Forced into marriage at the age of eighteen to Giuseppe Vatta, a teacher and poet much older than she, they had three children – Domenico (Dino) (1858), Maria (1860) and Elena (1862). In 1864 she abandoned her husband and children and went to Trieste where she met Giuseppe Levi, a member of an old local family, but they never made their union formal. In Bologna, in 1865, the couple had their first child – Giuseppina (she had some popularity as an author of children's literature under the pseudonym Ginevra Speraz or Ginevra Pilo, and died in Buenos Aires in 1936). There were to be more children: Noemi, Gilda and Clotilde. Levi died in 1875 and Beatrice earned a living from writing. In 1876 she began collaboration with the journal *Perseveranza*, where she published her first novel as a popular serial. At the beginning of her carrier as a writer she signed her works under different pseudonyms such as Livia or Donna Isabella, then she definitively opting for Bruno Sperani. She collaborated with different journals like *La Nazione* (Firenze), *Gazzetta Piemontese* (Torino), *Caffaro* (Genova), *Bersagliere* (Roma), *Capitan Fracassa*. She translated *Only a fiddler* by H.C. Andersen (Treves, 1879) and edited translations from German for the publisher. In 1879 her first novel – *Cesare* was published, which already appeared in the journal *Il pungolo* as a popular serial, under the title *Da morte a vita* (*From Death to Life*), and in 1893 the novel was published under a different title *Anime avvelenate. Avvocato Malpieri* (*Poisoned souls. Avvocato Malpieri*), and was translated into French. It is with this novel that Sperani's popularity began. In 1876 she moved to Milan and wrote about socialism, immigrants, and working class protests. In 1885 she met the painter Vespasiano Bignami (Cremona, 1841 – Milano, 1929), a writer, poet and professor at the Academy of Arts. Despite their passion, and the fact that her husband Vatta passed away in 1889, the two married in 1914. After several years marked by illness, Speraz died on the 2ⁿᵈ December 1923. Some sources cite the 4ᵗʰ of Decembar 1923 as the date of her death.

(Balić – Nižić, 2005; Grubišić, 2009; The Feminist Encyclopedia of Italian Literature, 1997; Arslan, Romani, 2006; Panizza, Wood, 2000; Wood, 1995; http://www.letteraturadimenticata.it/biblsign%20SZ.htm)

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Discussion on Religious Practice in Counseling: a Preliminary Survey

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Abstract

Religious practice is essential in every faith. This practice reflects the strength of conviction and adherence to one's professed faith. Studies in the West have shown the necessity to discuss religious issues in counseling and this method is accepted for implementation in counseling sessions with clients as religion and life are inseparable. The purpose of this present research is to identify the appropriate type of religious practice to be discussed in counseling sessions with clients. Its aim is also to study the appropriate level to apply the related religious practice issue in the counseling process and to analyse the problems arising in implementing such discussions. The research methodology used is survey method using questionnaire. Selection for research uses the convenience sampling (N=50) method. Research results are analysed by statistical description. Findings show that there is a need to discuss religious practice in counseling. Among the types of religious practice appropriate to be discussed are supplication (doa), reciting al-Quran, prayers (solah) and sending prayers and salutations (salawat) upon the Prophet Muhammad (pbuh). This research finds that there are problems in discussion of religious practice with clients in counseling such as uncooperative client, counselor feels client is uncomfortable, disinterested client, client is not ready and counselor thinks religious practice is a sensitive matter.

Keywords: religious practice, counseling, necessity, problem, cooperation

Introduction

Before studying the aspect of religious practice discussed in counseling sessions between the counselor and client, it is first necessary to generally discuss the application of religious or spiritual element in counseling. In the early developmental phase of counseling, the application of religious values in counseling was considered a violation of counseling ethics. However, it was found later that many human life issues were settled through religious solutions, thus there emerged efforts to apply religious or spiritual element in counseling. There are many grounds given on the importance of applying religious or spiritual element in counseling. Corey (2003) found that religion and spirituality are often part of the client's problem, but can also be part of the client's solution. Spiritual and religious values can play a major part in human life, spiritual values should be viewed as a potential resource in therapy rather than as something to be ignored.

In the same regard, Benjamin & Lobby (1998) also explained the importance of applying religious or spiritual aspect in counseling for the reason that many clients believe that the religious or spiritual aspect is integrally connected to personal growth. Souza (2002) as well as Horfman & Walach (2011) stated that the application of the religious or spiritual aspect coincides with the importance of diversity in counseling and it is essential that a counselor understands the spiritual aspect as an aspect of client diversity. Day (2010) explained, "A body of recent research has noted some positive impact of spirituality on well-being. Across a broad array of cultural settings and populations, religion and spirituality have often been found to be contributing factors to life satisfaction, sense of personal efficacy, successful coping, and self-esteem."

Another reason for the importance of religious or spiritual application in counseling is that it may have therapeutic value in the extent that incorporation helps counselors to support clients in connecting to others, moving outside of themselves, and contributing to the common good (Blando, 2006). In addition, the application of religious element in counseling is also important for clients who voluntarily wish to discuss the religious aspect during counseling. Rose, Westefeld, and Ansley (2001) surveyed 74 individuals who were receiving counseling and found that 55% of them wanted to discuss religious or spiritual issues because they believed religion and spirituality were essential for healing and growth (27%), were personally important (22%), were central to human personality, behavior, and worldview (15%), and were relevant to problems (5%). Some of the respondents felt their preference would change throughout different contexts, indicated by 22% of respondents reporting that their preference in discussing religion and/or spirituality was dependent on other factors such as relevance

to problems (10%), only if it was a spiritual issue, but not religious (8%), or depending on the qualities of the counselor (5%). Belaire and Young (2000) studied the influences of spirituality on counselor selection and found that while client spirituality may have less influence over counselor selection, counselor ability to effectively implement religion and spirituality into counseling has an effect on client preference of counselors. Post and Wade (2014) found in their study that the majority of clients indicated that religious concerns are an appropriate topic for group counseling and reported a preference to discuss religious and spiritual concerns with their group. All the findings clearly show that Western scholars recognise the importance of applying religious or spiritual discussion in counseling sessions.

Previous studies have also examined the religious or spiritual aspect and counseling. For example, a study by Cornish et al. (2012) found that spiritual interventions were very appropriate to be applied in counseling. In addition, a study by Burke et.al (1999) also proved that there were studies conducted on religion and counseling. Survey data of the general population, counselors and counselor educators indicate that spiritual and religious issues are therapeutically relevant, ethically appropriate and potentially significant topics in counseling and counselor education. This finding is found to be in line with studies by Smith (2006) as well as by Horfman & Walach (2011) which found that the majority of respondents concur on the importance of discussing the spiritual aspect with clients in counseling sessions. The majority of clients who were receiving counseling with elements of religiosity included indicated that it had been very helpful in making progress toward goals (73.5%), while 16.3% reported the integration of religiosity had been moderately helpful, and 10.2% indicating it was neither helpful nor unhelpful. No respondents reported that the integration of religiosity in counseling was unhelpful (Tiffany 2011). This kind of research was also conducted in Malaysia such as studies by Mohd Syukri (2010), Nadiah (2009), Salasiah (2010), Salasiah et al. (2012) and Nurul Ain (2006). These studies discussed more of techniques or methods used and the importance of applying the religious aspect in the counseling process.

The above discussion explains that studies which directly focus on specific religious practice in counseling are yet to be done. Hence, this study is for the purpose of determining whether discussion of religious practice is being applied by the counselor in counseling sessions. If affirmative, then what types of religious practice are appropriate for counseling sessions with clients? Which level is appropriate for applying issues relating to religious practice in counseling? And, what are the problems faced in applying the element of religious practice in counseling?

Religious practice or *ibadah* (worship) is an important matter in the life of a Muslim consistent with the purpose of human creation on this earth as stated in al-Quran that Allah SWT created the *jin* (genies and spirits) and mankind in order that they praise and worship Him (al-Zariyat 51:56). *Ibadah* (worship) is one of the main components in Islamic teachings other than *aqidah* (faith) and *akhlaq* (moral character). It symbolizes the devotion of a slave for his Creator. It has a wide meaning. Religious practice in Islam is understood as all aspects which cover the meaning submission to the commands and avoiding all the prohibitions of Allah SWT (al-Ghazali, 1994). According to al-Qaradawi (1993) religious practice connotes complete devotion, submission, obedience and humility to Allah SWT by compliance with His rules and commandments as established in al-Quran and Hadith of His Messenger (pbuh). Religious practice directly connects a slave with his Creator and returns him to the original purpose of creation, that is, to worship Allah SWT (al-Ghazali, 2000). Religious practie in Islam is divided into two, general and specific. General religious practice encompasses every action done to achieve God's pleasure such as virtuous conduct, respect for parents and so on. It also means a slave's intentional action in compliance with Allah's will. Specific religious practice means certain practices which a slave is obliged to do as training to prove his proper compliance of the five tenets of Islam, which are: declaration of faith, prayers, *zakah* (alms), fasting and *hajj*. It also encompasses commonly known religious obligations such as charity, *umrah* and *tilawah* al-Quran (al-Bayanuni 1984; al-Qaradawi 1993; Mulhim 2004; Salasiah & Noor Shakirah (2014)

Diagram 1: Islamic Religious Practice
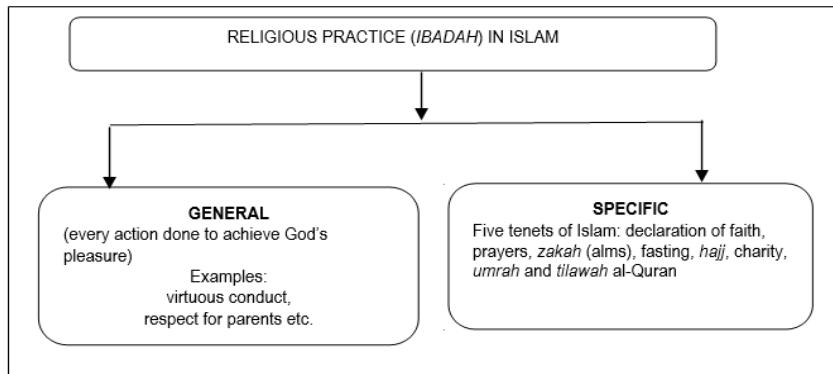
There is strong justification for religious practice to be discussed in counseling sessions as the aim of counseling is to assist the client to achieve peace of mind and successfully overcome or manage problems in life. Islamic religious practice commanded by Allah SWT to be implemented by the Muslim Ummah has the potential to affect man's life, for example, the practice of remembrance *(zikir)* of Allah may bring peace and tranquility (al-Ra'd: 28), prayers *(solah)* has been found to deter man from doing evil (al-Ankabut: 45), and supplication *(doa)* may bring the self closer to Allah SWT (al-Baqarah:186). According to Abdullah as-Sirri (1996), comprehensive religious parctice enables one's personal capacity to develop into a great individual in dual roles as a slave of Allah SWT and his vicegerent on earth. Mohd Sabri, Syed Najmuddin & Ab.Halim (2009) were of the opinon that religious practice such as *zikir, doa* and recitation of al-Quran may contribute to raising individual self-awareness.The above views are parallel with the views of Western scholars such as Hathaway & Pargament (1991) who stated that religious resources identified as commonly used in times of stress include prayer, solitary activities, faith in God, and guidance from clergy, which are representative of the spiritual, cognitive, behavioural, and social aspects of faith.

Research Objective

Thus, realizing the importance of applying the element of religious or spiritual practice in counseling, this present research is done to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify the types of religious practice appropriate for discussion with clients in counseling sessions;

2. To study the appropriate level to apply issues related to religious practice in the counseling process;

3. To analyse the problems faced in discussing religious practice with clients.

Research Methodology

This research is designed as a survey study. The date collection instrument used is questionnaire. 50 respondents comprising of registered counselors have been selected as research sample. Respondents are also counseling practitioners in the Klang Valley of Malaysia. This location is selected as Kuala Lumpur, the capital city of Malaysia is situated there and Klang Valley is also in the rapidly developing state of Selangor. Klang Valley is also the destination of many individuals who migrate from other states in Malaysia including Sabah, Sarawak, Kelantan, Trengganu, Perak, Penang, Kedah, Malacca, Negri Sembilan, Johore and Pahang. Selection of respondents is through convenience sampling due to difficulty in gaining respondents' cooperation if simple random sampling was done. A pilot study was done to verify reliabilty of research instrument. Data obtained was analysed using SPSS to obtain alpha cronbach value. Overall alpha cronbach value obtained for variables is 0.972. As it exceeds 0.6, this research instrument has high consistency and

reliability. Data from questionnaires are analysed using SPSS and presented in the form of percentage, frequency and mean.

Research Results and Discussion

This research is done to identify the types of Islamic religious practice appropriate to be applied in counseling sessions. Findings show that many among respondents (88% agree and strongly agree) to apply religious practice to clients: *fard solah* (obligatory prayers) (mean=4.26), *doa* (supplication) (mean=4.24) followed by reciting of al-Quran (mean=4.12) and *salawat* (sending blessings and salutations upon the Prophet pbuh) (mean=4.08). The type of religious practice least applied is *hajj* (pilgrimage) (mean=3.12). The reason for this is that it is only discussed in certain cases such as when client is financially stable, seriously intends to *tawbah* (repent) and wishes to find peace of mind through *ibadah* (worship) to Allah SWT.

Table: Types of religious Practice applied in Counseling

Types of religious practice	Never	Once in a while	Sometimes	Usually	Always	Mean
I apply fard solah (obligatory prayers) to the client.	1 (2.0%)	1 (2.0%)	4 (8.0%)	22 (44.0%)	22 (44.0%)	4.26
I apply sawm (fasting) to the client.	2 (4.0%)	3 (6.0%)	14 (28.0%)	21 (42.0%)	10 (20.0%)	3.68
I apply hajj (pilgimage) to the client.	4 (8.0%)	8 (16.0%)	20 (40.0%)	14 (28.0%)	4 (8.0%)	3.12
I apply sunnah awwabin solah (prayers of the oft-repentant, before and after fard solah) to the client.	4 (8.0%)	6 (12.0%)	22 (44.0%)	14 (28.0%)	4 (8.0%)	3.16
I apply sunnah tawbah solah (repentance) to the client.	2 (4.0%)	1 (2.0%)	12 (24.0%)	20 (40.0%)	15 (30.0%)	3.90
I apply sunnah hajah solah (intent/need) to the client.	2 (4.0%)	1 (2.0%)	7 (14.0%)	28 (56.0%)	12 (24.0%)	3.94
I apply sunnah tahajjud solah (night prayer after sleep) to the client.	2 (4.0%)	1 (2.0%)	13 (26.0%)	23 (46.0%)	10 (20.0%)	3.78
I apply zikr (remembrance of Allah) to the client.	2 (4.0%)	2 (4.0%)	6 (12.0%)	27 (54.0%)	13 (26.0%)	3.94
I apply doa (supplication) to the client.	2 (4.0%)	1 (2.0%)	3 (6.0%)	21 (42.0%)	23 (46.0%)	4.24
I apply tilawah (reciting) al-Quran to the client.	1 (2.0%)	1 (2.0%)	5 (10.0%)	27 (54.0%)	16 (32.0%)	4.12
I apply salawat (sending blessings and salutations upon the Prophet Muhammad pbuh) to the client.	1 (2.0%)	1 (2.0%)	7 (14.0%)	25 (50.0%)	16 (32.0%)	4.08

Source: Questionnaire UKM 2010

Research findings show that other than religious practice such as *fard solah* (mean=4.26), *doa* (mean=4.24), reciting al-Quran (mean=4.12), *salawat* to the Prophet (pbuh) (mean=4.08) and performing *hajj* (mean=3.12), counselors also apply religious practice such as *zikr* (mean=3.94), *sunnah hajah solah* (mean=3.94), *sunnah tawbah solah* (mean=3.90), *sunnah tahajjud solah* (mean=3.78), fasting (min=3.68) and *sunnah awwabin solah*, before and after *fard solah* (mean=3.16).

These findings explain that counselors apply religious practice which covers basic Islamic practice to their clients. *Fard solah* is the most frequently applied in counseling sessions by counselors because it is a pillar of Islam and the first matter which will be brought to account on the Day of Judgement. *Sunnah hajah solah*, the leading *sunnah* prayer, is the next most frequently discussed in counseling sessions. This is appropriate with the fact that clients come fo counseling services in distress over the challenges of life's trials and tribulations. Hence, they need to perform *sunnah hajah solah* so that Allah may show them the way out of their difficulty as stated by Allah SWT in surah al-Talaq (65:2) which means whoever bears *taqwa* (fears and keeps his duty to Allah SWT), Allah will show him the way out (of every difficulty). Al-Ghazali 's view (2000) is consistent with this verse when he suggested that Muslims should perform *sunnah hajah solah* in times of difficulty and pray for goodness in this worldly life and the hereafter.

Findings on religious practice such as *solah* (prayers) and *doa* (supplication) are discussed in counseling sessions in line with findings of a study by Saenz & Waldo (2013) that many clients found prayer to be helpful and important in counseling. It was also found that clients who wanted their counselor to pray with them in session had higher self- reported levels of spirituality and religious commitment. Clients who preferred to have their counselor encourage out-of-session prayer had mid-range levels of spirituality and religious commitment. Clients who preferred not to have prayer mentioned during their counseling session had lower levels of spirituality and religious commitment.

In addition, this research finds that *zikr* (remembrance of Allah) scored the 5th highest mean (mean=3.94) among the types of religious practice frequently applied by counselors. This is so because counselors believe that clients who undergo counseling sessions are anxious and miserable and need *zikr* to calm down and attain peace of mind as stated in al-Quran that the hearts of believers will feel tranquil and peaceful in *zikrullah* (remembrance of Allah) (al-Ra'd 13:28). This finding is consistent with that by Nursaidatul Fasiha (2011) who studied the perception of students towards *zikr* as a human psychological therapy and found the majority of respondents responded well to *zikr* as the best therapy for attaining peace of mind.

This research is conducted to study the most appropriate level to apply the issue of religious practice in the counseling process. Research results find that respondents apply the aspect of religious practice at the end and follow-up level (mean=4.20), followed by the strategy selection and action plan level (mean=4.16). 88% of research respondents agree and strongly agree to discuss client's religious practice at the end and follow-up level because at this level clients are already beginning to function effectively, are independent and responsible (Ea Ah Meng, 2003). In addition, research respondents apply the issue of religious practice in counseling at the follow-up level because this is the final level in the counseling process. At this level, counselors get feedback from clients on the techniques and action plan implemented including the plan for religious practice (Maznah Baba & Zainal Madon, 2003).

Table 2: Level for Application of Religious Practice in Counseling Process

Level for Application of *Ibadah* (worship)	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean
I apply *ibadah* aspect in counseling session at building rapport level	5 (10.0%)	10 (20.0%)	10 (20.0%)	17 (34.0%)	8 (16.0%)	3.26
I apply *ibadah* aspect in counseling session at problem exploring level	3 (9.0%)	9 (18.0%)	9 (18.0%)	21 (42.0%)	8 (16.0%)	3.44
I apply *ibadah* aspect in counseling session at level of strategy selection and action plan	1 (2.0%)	1 (2.0%)	6 (12.0%)	23 (46.0%)	19 (38.0%)	4.16
I apply *ibadah* aspect in counseling session at the end and follow-up level.	1 (2.0%)	2 (4.0%)	3 (9.0%)	24 (48.0%)	20 (40.0%)	4.20

Source: Questionnaire UKM 2010

84% of research respondents agree and strongly agree on applying the element of religious practice at the level of strategy selection and action plan. The reason is that at this level the clients are able to list the options and strategies to be implemented, assess the options, and counselors encourage clients to implement their options (Maznah Baba & Zainal Madon, 2003). According to researchers, this level is more suitable for applying religious practice because counselors suggest religious practice appropriate for the client's case and encourage the client to implement it. In the following counseling session, the counselor may assess implementation of the religious practice and study its effect on the client's life.

Research results also find that counselors apply the element of religious practice at the level of exploring the problem (mean=3.44). At this level, counselors use all their skills to explore client's issue (Sapora et al. 2002). After exploring, counselors will identify the source of the problem and match the problem with the appropriate type of religious practice for discussion as an alternative solution. Some counselors also apply religious practice at the level of building rapport even though this scored the lowest mean (mean=3.26) as at this level it is not so suitable to apply religious practice. In other words, it is too early to discuss religious practice when there is no rapport yet between counselor and client. In short, counselors need to use their wisdom to select the best level to discuss the issue of religious practice with their clients in

the counseling process. Briefly, this finding explains that research respondents apply the element of religious practice at all levels in the counseling process. This also reflects that applying the element of religious practice is important and is accepted practice in counseling.

Further, another objective of this research is to analyse the problems encountered by respondents in applying religious practice in counseling. Research results find that there are five matters which cause difficulty to respondents in applying religious practice. These are: 'I feel client is not giving cooperation to discuss religious practice '(mean=3.32), 'I feel that client is not comfortable discussing religious practice in counseling session '(mean=3.16), ' I feel that client is disinterested to discuss religious practice in counseling session.'' (mean= 3.12), ' I feel that the client is not ready to discuss religious practice in counseling session' (mean=3.08), and 'My opinion is that the issue of religious practice is a sensitive matter ' (mean=3.00).

Briefly, this research finds that clients are not willing to cooperate, feel uncomfortable, are disinterested, are not ready and counselors consider the issue of religious practice as a sensitive matter not appropriate for discussion in counseling sessions. This finding is in line with a study by Rose, Westefeld, and Ansley (2001), which found that comparatively, a minority of clients (18%) reported that they preferred not to discuss such topics in individual therapy for various reasons such as not being personally religious or spiritual and preferring to discuss these matters with a religious leader. Research on 74 individuals who were receiving counseling found that eighteen percent reported not wanting to discuss religious or spiritual issues because religious or spiritual issues are not currently important or relevant to problems (11%), they prefer to discuss religious issues with the clergy (4%), or they are unsure of their own beliefs (3%).

Table 3: Problems encountered in applying the religious practice aspect in counseling sessions

Problems faced while applying the religious practice aspect	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean
I feel that client feels uncomfortable to discuss religious practice in counseling session.	0 (0.0%)	14 (28.0%)	16 (32.0%)	18 (36.0%)	2 (4.0%)	3.16
I feel client is not ready to discuss religious practice in counseling session.	1 (2.0%)	18 (36.0%)	15 (30.0%)	16 (32.0%)	0 (0.0%)	3.08
I feel that client is disinterested to discuss religious practice in counseling session.	1 (2.0%)	20 (40.0%)	14 (28.0%)	14 (28.0%)	1 (2.0%)	3.12
I feel that client is not willing to cooperate to discuss religious practice.	2 (4.0%)	24 (48.0%)	13 (26.0%)	10 (20.0%)	1 (2.0%)	3.32
My opinion is that religious practice is a sensitive issue.	5 (10.0%)	17 (34.0%)	7 (14.0%)	15 (30.0%)	6 (12.0%)	3.00

Source : Questionnaire UKM 2010.

Research results are also in line with findings by Brian (2010) which show that religion and spirituality should not only be of interest to therapists because the majority of clients prefer to discuss these topics when appropriate, but also because religion and spirituality are often the source of distress. In addition, these findings are also parallel to a study by Belaire and Young (2000) which found that clients who did not want a counselor who would address spirituality often claimed that they wanted counseling to be a time to address changing patterns, setting goals, and personal growth, and that religious or spiritual issues could be handled on their own time.

Other than clients feeling uncomfortable, are not ready, not cooperating and counselors consider religious practice a sensitive matter not suitable for discussion in counseling session, a study by Keating & Fretz (1990) also found anxiety among clients when the issue of religious practice is brought up in counseling because of the possibility of counselor's negative reaction towards their beliefs. Clients not only fear that psychotherapists will respond negatively to their religious beliefs. Many clients who prefer not to discuss spiritual and religious issues in the counseling office identify fear as a factor limiting their ability to openly discuss religious and spiritual issues. Some clients are concerned about how therapists may respond to their beliefs, likely affecting client willingness to discuss spiritual issues (Rose et al., 2001). Further, the lack of emphasis by counselors to discuss the issue of religious or spiritual practice in counseling also cause clients to be less

interested to discuss it. Because of this current lack of addressing religion and spirituality by counselors, clients were less willing and less likely to find it appropriate to discuss religion and spirituality in counseling sessions (Richards & Bergin, 1997; Morrison et al. 2009).

Research results state that religious practice or *ibadah* (worship) is being discussed iin counseling by counselors who are research respondents. Religious practice discussed is basic Islamic practice including general and specific *ibadah*. This practice is suitable to be applied at all levels in the counseling process although the most frequently implemented by counselors is the end and follow-up level. Counselors report that they face some problems in implementing discussion of religious practice in counseling their clients. Research findings are summarised in the following diagram:

Diagram 2: Discussion of Religious Practice in Counseling
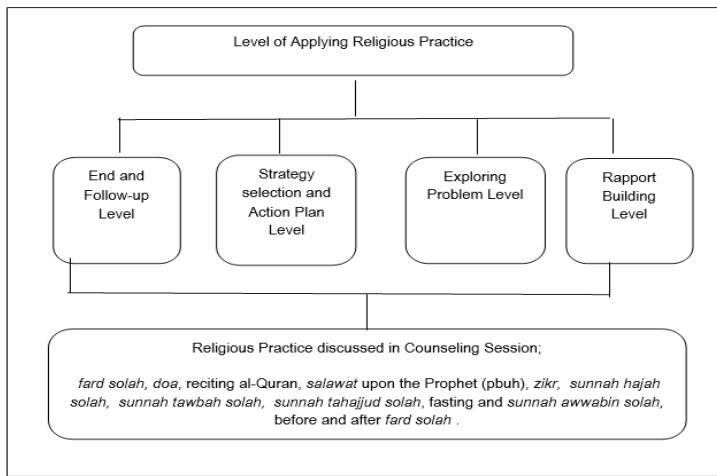
CONCLUSION

Applying the element of religious practice in counseling has already been done by counselors in this research. Among the types of religious practice frequently discussed in counseling sessions are obligatory prayers *(fard solah),* supplication *(doa),* reciting al-Quran, sending blessings and salutations *(salawat)* upon the Prophet (pbuh), remembrance *(zikr),* prayers of need/intent *(sunnah hajah solah*), prayers of repentance *(sunnah tawbah solah),* night prayers *(sunnah tahajjud solah),* fasting (sawm) and prayers of the oft-repentant *(sunnah al-awwabin solah)* before and after obligatory prayers. In addition, this research also finds that the related issue of client's religious practice is discussed in counseling sessions at all levels in the counseling process, including at the end and follow-up level, strategy selection and action plan level, exploration of problem level and building rapport level. Both findings explain that applying the related issue of religious practice is already being implemented by registered counselors in the Klang Valley, Malaysia. Further, this research finds that problems faced in applying the religious element in counseling are that clients are uncooperative, feel uncomfortable, are disinterested, are not ready and counselors think that the issue of religious practice is too sensitive a matter to be discussed in counseling sessions. Nevertheless, these problems do not at all hinder counselors from applying the aspect of religious practice in counseling to help clients overcome or manage problems faced in order to achieve well-being in life.

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Self-Esteem and Loneliness as Predicting Factors of Arab Children Achievement İn Kuala Lumpur

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Abstract

Taking into consideration the fact that self-esteem and loneliness have an even more important role to play in students' learning, this study seeks to examine the correlation of these two factors with children academic performance. The study involved 499 (grade 4 to grade 9) Arab children studying at Arab schools in Kuala Lumpur-Malaysia. Data were collected via two questionnaires (one for loneliness and the other for self-esteem). The correlational data analysis yielded a negative correlation between loneliness and academic achievement while there is a positive correlation between self-esteem and achievement. Results also suggested that there is no correlation between students' gender, age, and academic achievement. Furthermore, the results revealed that self-esteem is a good predictor of achievement while loneliness and gender are not good predictors. The findings of the present study are discussed in relation to the relevant literature, taking into consideration the impact of children mental health on their academic achievement. Finally, recommendations for further research are presented.

Keywords: Self-esteem, loneliness, childhood, academic performance, achievement.

Introduction

Academic achievement is an important indicator of whether the education in a country is successful or not. Many variables may have an influence on a student's ability to achieve academically. Those factors include non-cognitive factors (such as, mental health, family circumstances, background, previous academic performances, study skills, and many more) and cognitive factors (such as IQ and standardized test scores, which have traditionally been associated with academic achievement). Many researchers asserted the importance of examining the non-cognitive factors related to academic performance (Coetzee, 2011) . As a result, a lot of attention has been given to the children mental health as one of the most influential factors on their academic achievement.

Studies have shown that there is a relationship between social support and both mental and physical health (Tassin, 1999). As children transition from middle level to high school, their self-concept gradually grows. Increasing freedom allows adolescents greater opportunities to participate in activities in which they are competent, and increased perspective taking abilities enable them to garner more support from others by behaving in more socially acceptable ways (Manning, 2007).

Previous research has tied the quality of children's social relationships to their academic achievement, the quality of peer relations has been associated both with students' academic orientations and with their school performance (Flook, Repetti, & Ullman, 2005). Lu & Zhou (2013) find poorer achievement and greater loneliness among migrant children who are isolated in migrant schools. Collectively, research indicates that loneliness is often associated with behavioral and mental health problems (Perlman & Peplau, 1984). The absence of loneliness and social isolation is seen as an important factor for good quality of life (Barrett & Mosca, 2013). Further evidence linking loneliness with social problems, loneliness was associated with poor grades, expulsion from school, running away from home, and engaging in delinquent (Perlman & Peplau, 1984).

Theoretical Background

Loneliness is a complex emotion resulting from deficiencies in fulfilling intimate or social needs (Tassin, 1999). It is an important aspect of psychological distress in childhood and adolescence (Lu & Zhou, 2013). Asher, Hymel, & Renshaw (1984) found that more than 10% of children from third through sixth grade reported feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction. Perlman & Peplau (1984) defined loneliness as an unpleasant experience that occurs when a person's network of social relationships is significantly deficient in either quality or quantity. This definition shares three points of agreement with the way most other scholars view loneliness.

1. loneliness results from a deficiency in a person's social relationships.
2. loneliness is a subjective experience; it is not synonymous with objective social isolation. People can be alone with out being lonely, or lonely in a crowd.
3. the experience of loneliness is aversive, unpleasant and distressing.

One of the few theories of loneliness that has been developed to explain loneliness is that of Weiss (Tassin, 1999). Robert S. Weiss (1973) described loneliness as "a chronic distress without redeeming features" (Weiss, 1973, p.15) and he further distinguished between social loneliness (e.g., lack of social integration), and emotional loneliness (e.g., absence of a reliable attachment figure). This theoretical perspective, also called the "social needs" approach. A second conceptual approach to loneliness has focused on social skill deficits and personality traits that impair the formation and maintenance of social relationships (Cacioppo & Hawkley, 2015).

Many social scientists have speculated about the various forms that loneliness can take. Three underlying dimensions have been identified in these discussions of the different types of loneliness. These dimensions have to do with the positive or negative nature, the source, and the duration of loneliness (Perlman & Peplau, 1984).

1. Positivity-negativity. We can distinguish between existential loneliness and loneliness anxiety. Existential loneliness is an inevitable part of the human experience, involving periods of self-confrontation and providing an avenue for self-growth. Existential loneliness can lead to positive experiences of "triumphant creation." In contrast, loneliness anxiety is a negative experience that results from a "basic alienation between person and another".
2. Social versus emotional loneliness. Based on the social deficiency perspactive, Weiss (1973) distinguished emotional loneliness (the absence of a personal, intimate relationship or attachment) from social loneliness (a lack of social "connectedness" or sense of community). He believes that emotional loneliness is the more acutely painful form of isolation; social loneliness is experienced as a mixture of feeling rejected or unacceptable, together with a sense of boredom.
3. Chronicity. The duration of loneliness over time is an important dimension. Young (1982) distinguished among three types of loneliness. Transient or everyday loneliness includes brief and occasional lonely moods. Situational or transitional loneliness involves people who had satisfying relationships until some specific change occurred, such as divorce, bereavement or moving to a new town. Situational loneliness can be a severely distressing experience. While chronic loneliness occurring when a person has lacked satisfactory social relations for a period of two or more years.

Many factors can contribute to the experience of loneliness. Perlman & Peplau (1984) distinguished between:

1. predisposing factors which make people vulnerable to loneliness. Those factors can include characteristics of the person (e.g., self-esteem, shyness, lack of social skills), characteristics of the situation (e.g., competitive interaction, social isolation), and general cultural values (e.g., individualism).related to the characteristics of the person.
2. Precipitating events that trigger the onset of loneliness. They are factors such as the break- up of a love relationship or moving to a new community which change a person's social life in some significant way.

Since loneliness is the result of dissatisfaction with a perception of social relationships, and it varies with the type of social relationship being considered, it was hypothesized that altering which level of self a person is focusing on would also alter their reports of how they are experiencing loneliness (Tassin, 1999).

James (1896/1958) was one of the first writers to use the term self-esteem, which he described as a self-feeling that "in this world depends entirely on what we back ourselves to be and do"(Pajares & Schunk, 2002). Self-esteem continues to be one of the most commonly researched concepts in social psychology (Tassin, 1999).

Self-concept and self-esteem are among the most widely discussed but misunderstood constructs in education. Early theorists defined and used self-concept in general terms as global perceptions of self- worth, or self-esteem (Pajares & Schunk, 2002). Although the terms self-concept and self-esteem are often used interchangeably, they represent different but related constructs. This self-concept is seen in more general terms (Campbell, 1967), it refers to a student's perceptions of competence or adequacy in academic and nonacademic (e.g., social, behavioral, and athletic) domains and is best represented by a profile of self-perceptions across domains. Self-esteem is a student's overall evaluation of him- or herself, including feelings of general happiness and satis- faction (Manning, 2007)

Theories of self-esteem have been based on one of two fundamentally different assumptions about the essential nature of self-esteem. Traditionally, intrapersonal the- orists have conceptualized self-esteem as a person's private self-evaluation. Humanistic approaches that dominated thinking about self-esteem in the middle of the 20th century likewise viewed self-esteem as a personal evaluation of one?s goodness or worth (MacDonald, Saltzman, & Leary, 2003).

Issues of self-esteem are likely to arise in middle and late childhood, children become more aware about managing and controlling their emotions to meet social standards. A greater sense of social awareness arises because of the wide increase of significant others, as well as some internalisation of the perceived values and norms of society could lead to those issues. At his stage, statements of self- image will include emotionality, interpersonal references, as well as trait labels (Alpay, 2000) and is so necessary as to be the prime motivator of all behavior (Campbell, 1967).

Promoting high self-esteem is important because it relates to academic and life success (Manning, 2007). Research indicates that persons who maintain positive self-concepts with higher self-esteem tend to report more positive affective states, greater wellness, more life satisfaction and fewer depressive symptoms which in turn affect their performance in school (Yaacob, Juhari, Talib, & Uba, 2009) (Campbell, 1967).

Self-concept is frequently positively correlated with academic performance, but it appears to be a consequence rather than a cause of high achievement. This suggests that increasing students' academic skills is a more effective means to boost their self-concept than vice versa (Manning, 2007).

From middle to late childhood, loneliness appears to be an indicator of internalizing emotional problems and negative self-perceptions such as anxiety, shyness, depression, or low self-esteem (Bonetti, 2009). The available evidence suggests that loneliness is associated with poor mental health, loneliness was associated with indices of poor personality integration (Perlman & Peplau, 1984). Barrett & Mosca (2013) found that social isolation is a significant feature of the lives of return migrants. In a study conducted by Shouqair on a sample of 290 pupils from second grade of middle school in Egypt and Saudi Arabia, the results showed a positive relationship between self-esteem and mutual social relations and a negative relationship between the scores of members of the two samples in appreciation of self-esteem and loneliness (Shouqair, 1993).

Salomon and Strobrl examined loneliness, social support, and help-seeking behavior in children, ages 9 to 13. Participating were 330 fourth to sixth graders from middle and low income families from the Montreal, Canada region, who completed two questionnaires measuring feelings of loneliness and social dissatisfaction and help-seeking. Independent variables were sex, school performance, and socioeconomic status (SES). The results indicated that children with lower school performance were significantly more lonely than children with higher school performance, and more particularly expressed feelings of rejection and isolation. Sex and SES had no effect on the loneliness score (Salomon, A.; Strobel, 1996)

Similary, Noramn (2003) examined the identification and perception of 170 middle school children in the seventh grade in a public school in Tennessee to determine the extent and direction of the relationships among children's loneliness scores, The results indicated that there is no statistically significant relationship between students' loneliness scores and school performance (Norman, 2003).

In Malaysia, Yaacob, Juhari, Talib, & Uba (2009) examined the degree of relationships between loneliness, stress and self-esteem with depression among adolescents. The findings of the study showed that loneliness, stress and self-esteem have moderate significant relationships with depression and stress emerged as the strongest predictor of adolescent depression.

From the educational literature, it is clear the relationship between student achievement, loneliness and self-esteem. There is general agreement amongst researchers that students who are underachieving at school are also likely to have low self-esteem, and that improvements in self-esteem will lead to improvements in achievement (Alpay, 2000). A low self-esteem may be exhibited through several operations by the child such as avoidance, compensation, low motivation, and resistance (Alpay, 2000), this could also leads to loneliness as low self-esteem is a one of the most powerful predictors of loneliness (Mahon, Yarcheski, Yarcheski, Cannella, & Hanks, 2006; Harward, 1989).

Statement of the problem

The deformation of the self-concept can lead to loneliness (Hamza, 2003). Low self-esteem has been shown to relate to concurrent and later feelings of loneliness in adolescence (Vanhalst, Luyckx, Scholte, Engels, & Goossens, 2013). The assumption that children's self-beliefs are inextricably tied to their thinking and functioning seems so sound (Pajares & Schunk, 2002). A path analysis supported the model; a lack of peer acceptance in the classroom in 4th grade predicted lower academic self-concept and more internalizing symptoms the following year, which in turn, predicted lower academic performance in 6th grade (Flook et al., 2005). Vanhalst et al., 2013 investigated the direction of effects between loneliness and self-esteem in two independent longitudinal studies, and the underlying role of social acceptance was investigated. Results indicated that self-esteem and loneliness influenced one another in a reciprocal manner. Furthermore, the dominant path from self-esteem to loneliness was partially mediated by perceived--but not actual--social acceptance (Vanhalst et al., 2013).

Therefore, the major purpose of this study is to test the relationship between Arab children's self-esteem, loneliness and their achievement Arabic schools in Malaysia. It also invisigate if self-esteem and loneliness are predicting factors of arab children achievement.

For more specification, the study aims at answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of self-esteem and loneliness among Arab children's in Arabic schools in Malaysia?
2. How well does the Arab childrens' self-esteem and loneliness predict their achievement?
3. What is the role of some dependent variables (age and gender) on predicting Arab childrens' achievement?

Research Method

Research design

This research is a descriptive in nature; its key purpose is a description of the state of affairs, as it exists at present. Surveys are concerned with describing, recording, analyzing and interpreting conditions that either exist or existed (Kothari, 2004). According to this research methodology, the researcher achieved the objectives of the study by using suitable methods for data collection such as, a questionnaire to identify the level of self-esteem and loneliness among Arab children's in Arabic schools in Malaysia.

The Sample

The sample in this study was randomly selected from four Arab schools in Kuala Lumpur city: which resulted in 499 students (age average 12.13 years) in the middle stage. Table (1) illustrates the research sample in terms of gender and age. The students' sample consisted of 499 students in Arab schools in Kuala Lumpur. The male students formed 46.9% of the sample while the female students formed about 53.1%. Concerning the students' age, the majority of the sample (68.7%) aged 11-14 years, 19.2% aged 9-10 years and 12% are 15-17 years old.

Materials

In order to test the children level of loneliness and self-esteem, the researchers adapted two instruments; revised version of the self-report UCLA (University of California, Los Angeles) Loneliness Scale developed by Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona (1980), and Index of Self-esteem (ISE) A 25-item questionnaire developed by Hudson (1982).

The adapted UCLA-R Loneliness Scale comprises 20 items that presented statements about children's feeling of Loneliness. The items are 3 Likert scale (usually, sometimes, never). The scale divided into three sub-scale: social relationship (6 items), rejection (9 items) and loss of mutual intimacy (5 items). Cronbach's alpha, the measure of reliability, was calculated for the scales and subscales; " social relationship " had an alpha of 0.71, "rejection" had an alpha of 0.76, and " loss of mutual intimacy " had alphas of 0.706. The overall scale had an alpha of 0.75. All scales and subscales were greater than 0.7, which is considered "acceptable" for exploratory research.

This study utilized the Index of Self-Esteem (ISE) (Hudson, 1982). This 25-item index is intended to measure the amount, intensity, and/or significance of a problem an individual has with self-esteem. The items are rated on a Likert scale from 1-3 (usually, sometimes, never). 3 itemes has been deleted according to the results of validity and reliability test. The researchers test the reliability using Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient. The results of Cronbach's Alpha for the 22 itemes scale indicate that the overall scale had an alpha of 0.85. This means that the instrument has a good reliability and can be used to measure the pre-service teachers' perceptions towards mlearning.

Results

The main aim of this study is to measure the relationship between Arab children's self-esteem, loneliness and their achievement Arabic schools in Malaysia. It also invisigate if self-esteem and loneliness are predicting factors of arab children achievement. Therefore, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to predict children's achievement in from the predictor variables.

The two questionaires asked children to report their feeling of loneliness and self-esteem. table (2) includes the means and standard deviations about Arab children's feeling of loneliness and their self-esteem.

The results in table 2 show that Arab children have a moderate level of loneliness with 54.3% (M = 1.63, SD = 0.4). Regarding the loneliness scale subcategories, the highest percent 59.5% is for "loss of mutual intimacy" (M = 1.785, SD = 0.552), while the lowest percent 52.2% is for "rejection from the others" (M = 1.567, SD = 0.467). the "social relationship" get 54.9% (M = 1.646, SD = 0.469). Such results support the results that the Arab children have a moderate level of loneliness.

On the other hand, the results in table 2 show Arab children have high level of self-esteem with 78.8% (M = 2.365, SD = 0.381).

Full model entry was employed to regress all predictor variables onto the dependent variable simultaneously. A standard multiple regression analysis was employed to predict achievement. Table 3 displays the correlations between the variables.

Each variable has a significant correlation with each other variable. Achievement was positively correlated with self-esteem, and negatively correlated with loneliness.on the other hand, self-esttem is negatively correlated with loneliness . To get more information about the goodness of fit of a model, the results about R Square is presented in Table 4.

In this case the R^2 of 0.138 indicates that 13.7% of the variation in achievement is explained by the regression variables. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.131 indicates that a little percent of the variability in achievement could be predicted by self-esteem, loneliness, gender and age.

For more information about the model, Table 5 shows the regression ANOVA, which tests for a linear relationship between the variables.

The results in the ANOVA Table ($F_{(4, 494)}$ = 19.728, p < .001) indicate that the value of F is significant beyond the 0.01 level. The full model R^2 was significantly greater than zero, R^2 = 13.8%.

On the second step all of the predictors were entered simultaneously, resulting the "Coefficients", that provides the estimates of the regression coefficients (table 6).

Analysis of regression coefficients (Table 6) indicated that Arab children achievement could be predicted by self-esteem (Beta = 0.285, p < .01). this result is aligend with the results in table 4 that the variables predicted significantly 13.8% of the variance in achievement. The other three variables; loneliness (Beta = -0.089, n.s.), gender (Beta = 0.039, n.s.), and age (Beta = -0.054, n.s.) were not a significant predictor of acievement for arab children. The overall model fit was R^2 = 0.138. Thus, the higher a children's self-esteem, the greater children's achievement.

DISCUSSION

children's mental health could be one of the crucial factors for their achievement. As a result, it is important to test the relationship between children achievement and some of the non academic factors related to children's mental heath. The present study employed a multiple regression analysis to determine if the children's level of self-esteem, loneliness, gender and age could be predictors of their achievement. The results indicate that a linear combination of the predictor variables is able to account for a significant amount of variance in a children's achievement.

The findings further indicate that the self-esteem predict a significant amount of variance in children's achievement. Contrary to this, children's feeling of loneliness, age and gender did not individually; predict a significant amount of variance in children's achievement.

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Table 1. The Sample

Age	Gender				Row Totals	
	male		female			
9-10	38	16.2%	58	21.9%	96	19.2%
11-14	154	65.8%	189	71.3%	343	68.7%
15-17	42	17.9%	18	6.8%	60	12.0%
All	234	46.9%	265	53.1%	499	

Table 2. Basic Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	% of Mean	Std. Deviation	level
social	1.646	54.9%	0.469	Moderate
rejection	1.567	52.2%	0.467	Moderate
loss of mutual intimacy	1.785	59.5%	0.552	Moderate
Loneliness	1.630	54.3%	0.400	Moderate
Self-esteem	2.365	78.8%	0.381	high

Table 3. Correlations Between Predictor Variables

	achievement	loneliness	self-esteem
achievement	1	-.290**	.359**
loneliness	-.290**	1	-.681**
self-esteem	.359**	-.681**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.371a	.138	.131	13.4089

a. Predictors: (Constant), self-esteem, age , gender , loneliness

Table 5. The regression ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	14188.464	4	3547.116	19.728	.000
Residual	88820.610	494	179.799		
Total	103009.074	498			

Table 6. Regression output (Regression Coefficients)

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	60.380	9.072		6.656	.000
gender	1.122	1.254	.039	.894	.372
age	-.446	.351	-.054	-1.271	.204
loneliness	-3.186	2.066	-.089	-1.542	.124
self-esteem	10.759	2.211	.285	4.866	.000

Income Inequality Tolerance and Preferences for Redistribution in Turkey

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Abstract

In this paper, the extent to which redistribution is desired by the Turkish and its determinants are estimated. For this purpose, the 2009 Social Inequality Module of the International Social Survey Programme is used. Finding the attitudinal differences between urban and rural region residents, and understanding whether these can be attributed to educational differences is additionally aimed. The estimations indicate that pro-redistribution preferences are shaped by distributive justice considerations captured by the question on just payment at work. Having no or low educational qualification, living in urban regions and small cities also play an important role. Being in the lowest income categories is also associated with higher demand for redistribution. The attitudinal difference between rural and urban residents cannot be attributed to differences in the educational levels, differences in cultural values and/or income levels seem to play an important role. This study's finding that women are more tolerant of income inequality than men is the opposite of the previous finding based on the 2011 WVS data, and of the more usual finding in other studies. Hard work has a non- significant effect in the present study although it was one of the determinants of pro-redistribution preferences previously. The impact of income is similar to previous analysis' finding. However, mixed results were found in the previous analysis relative to the effect of living in a specific region. The effects are more homogeneous with ISSPA data, as all of the regions with significant coefficients have relatively reduced support for redistribution than Istanbul.

Keywords Preferences for Redistribution, Turkey, International Social Survey Programme

1. INTRODUCTION

Cross-country analyses of the determinants of people's preferences for redistribution highlight primarily the importance of socio-economic factors comprising current income, occupational status, prospect for upward mobility, along with personal history and endowments such as education, social status, risk aversion, subjective social class, race and marriage status. Beliefs in the fairness of the allocation mechanism, perceived moral worth of the poor, individual autonomy, left-right political orientation, active union membership, cultural factors and place of residence are other mostly accepted determining factors in empirical research.

The highly cited Meltzer and Richard model (1981) implies that the median voter will vote for redistributive politics in countries where income inequality is high, that is where median income is lower than mean income and there are net gains from redistribution. Along with the analyses confirming this hypothesis and supremacy of economic factors (Corneo and Grüner, 2002; Alesina, Di Tella and MacCulloch, 2004; Alesina and Giuliano, 2009; Guillaud, 2011; Neher, 2012), controversial evidence is also found by certain studies. When a great number of welfare recipents are a racial minority (Luttmer, 2001; Alesina and La Ferrara, 2001, 2005), when the poor expect an upward social mobility which may in turn depend on education and institutional context (Piketty, 1995; Bénabou and Ok, 2001; Alesina, Di Tella and MacCulloch, 2004; Alesina and La Ferrara, 2005; Corneo and Grüner, 2002; Alesina and Giuliano, 2009; Guillaud, 2013). The limitations of the Meltzer and Richard hypothesis and derived *homo oeconomicus* effect (Corneo and Grüner 2002), are also pointed to in some analyses that focused on developing countries (Haggard, Kaufman and Long, 2013; Im, 2014). The study by Haggard et al. draws attention to the heterogeneity among the poor and to the limited or dampening effects of inequality on demands for redistribution. The study by Im reveals that limited educational opportunities in rural areas of China lead to increased authoritarianism and social dominance orientation among the poor which in turn lead to higher tolerance of inequality by people of lower socioeconomic status. This finding shows the complexity of the mechanisms of attitude formation as less educated individuals are found pro-redistribution in most cross-country or single-country studies (Verme, 2007; Neher, 2012; Gaeta, 2012; Haggard et al., 2013).

The model based on income and the distribution of income is extended by the introduction and significant results of other variables. Risk aversion is found to have a positive impact on preferences for redistribution, as more risk averse individuals are also more inequality averse and pro-redistribution (Ferrer-i-Carbonell and Ramos, 2010; Gaeta, 2012; Guillaud, 2013). Belonging to a lower social class than the middle also makes individuals inequality averse and pro-redistribution (Macunovich, 2011 ; Neher 2012 Guillaud 2013). Perception of unfairness of the allocation mechanism in society drive to favor more redistribution, other things equal (Fong, 2001 ; Piketty, 1999 ; Alesina and Angeletos, 2005 ; Corneo and Grüner, 2002 ; Cojocaru, 2011). Perceived moral worth of the poor and individual autonomy are two other variables (Neher, 2012) that may also be related to the belief in hard work for success and to the beliefs about mobility. Left-right political orientation affects also redistribution preferences although the reverse causality problem may occur (Kaltenthaler *et al.* 2008 ; Verme, 2007). Cultural factors, and welfare regime habits are shown to affect redistribution preferences as evidenced respectively in the specific contexts of the immigrants in the USA and in reunified Germany (Alesina and Giuliano, 2009 ; Luttmer and Singhal, 2011). With mixed evidence, demographic variables such as gender, age, marital and employment status, active union membership, religious orientation, and size of the city of residence are also found to shape preferences for redistribution.

Previous research for Turkey based on World Values Survey data supports the assumption that economic self-interest shapes individual preferences for redistribution (Karayel, 2015). The present study is based on data from International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) and aims to find the attitudinal differences between urban and rural region residents, and to understand whether these can be attributed to educational differences. The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the methodology, data and variables. Section 3 presents the results of the empirical analysis, and the last section concludes.

2. METHODOLOGY, DATA AND VARIABLES

The econometric analysis draws on the fourth Social Inequality module of ISSP (2009) and uses a standard logit model. Turkish people's income inequality tolerance and preferences for redistribution are measured through the answer given to a five-steps scale question that asks repondents whether it is the responsibility of the government to reduce the differences in income between people with high incomes and those with low incomes. Answers are scaled as: 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Neither agree nor disagree; 4 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly disagree. This five-steps scale variable has been transformed to a binary response variable in which individuals holding strong redistributionist views are distinguished from all other responses (neutral and opposition views) by equalizing values of 1 and 2 to 1, and values from 3 to 5 to 0. This variable is labeled REDISTRIBUTION and used as the dependent variable capturing both inequality tolerance (or aversion) and preferences for redistribution. This question refers explicitly to government action for reducing income inequality, but it can be argued that inequality cannot be reduced by charitable action alone if people are averse to inequality.

Turkish respondents are between 18-87 years of age. Explanatory variables are selected among the available data with no or limited number of missing observations. Although some relevant variables that were not available in WVS data are available in the ISSP data, some of them could not be used, given the number of missing values and problem with data. One of them is the variable measuring subjective social mobility. Subjective social status variable indicating top bottom self placement on a scale is the other. Left-right political orientation variable is available in both WVS and ISSP data, but could not be used in the present estimations due to the high number of unrevealed preferences. Employment status and subjective social status variables also posed problems.

However, variables relative to size of the city of residence and to the type of the community (urban/rural) available for Turkey only in the ISSP data could be used, and most of the relevant variables are included. Explanatory variables used in the estimation are presented below with variable labels. Coefficients are interpreted relative to the reference category. Descriptive statistics of the variables are displayed in Table 1.

The variable measuring opinions about the importance of hard work for success (HWORK) has originally five categories. Answers ranging from the first to the third category, respectively "essential", "very important" and "fairly important" are assigned the value 1 and labeled "important". Answers in the fourth and fifth categories, respectively "not very important" and "not important at all" are assigned the value 0 and labeled "not important", this category being the reference.

Another variable of interest is just pay (JUSTPAY) that asks respondents whether they would say they earn much less or much more than deserved. The original six categories of answers are recoded in four dummies where the first two

categories are assigned the value 2 and labeled "less than deserved", the third category is assigned the value 1 and labeled "what is deserved", the fourth and fifth categories are assigned the value 0 and labeled "more than deserved", and finally, the sixth category composed of respondents who never worked is assigned the value 3. The category with the lowest value, that is "more than deserved" is the reference.

Demographic variables are sex, age and marital status. Sex variable takes the values :"1 = Male ; 2 = Female". "Male" is the reference category. The age variable is grouped in six categories as follows (AGE6CATEGORIES): 1 = 18-30; 2 = 31-40; 3 = 41-50; 4= 51-60; 5 = 61-70; 6= 71-87. The first category is the reference. Marital status is indicated by two dummies: 1. Married; 0. Not married (reference category). Widowed, divorced, separated and single individuals are all included in the "not married" category. This variable is labeled MARRIED.

The variable DEGREE shows highest educational level attained. The original six categories are recoded in four as follows: 1 = No formal qualification (reference category); 2 = Lower qualification that comprises lowest and above lowest formal qualifications; 3 = Higher qualification that comprises higher and above higher secondary levels; 4 = University degree.

The variable UNION recoded in two dummies, takes the value 1 for trade union members and the value 0 for individuals who were once member or never member (reference category).

Declared family income in Turkish Liras (TRY) of respondents are categorized in six groups: 1 = 0-999; 2 = 1000-1999; 3 = 2000-3999; 4 = 4000-5999; 5 = 6000-8999; 6 = 9000-15600. This variable is labeled as INCOMEF and the first category is the reference.

Attendance of religious services is indicated by the variable ATTEND which is recoded in five categories. The first category includes those who attend from five times a day up to five times a week. The second category ranges from once a week to three or two times a month (reference category). The third category ranges from once a month to several times a year. The fourth category ranges from once a year to less frequently than once a year, and finally, the fifth category includes those who never attend.

REGION is indicated by one of the following regions : 1. Istanbul; 2. Aegean; 3. Mediterranean; 4. Southeast Anatolia; 5. Western Anatolia; 6. Eastern Anatolia; 7. Western Black Sea; 8. Central Anatolia; 9. Central East Anatolia; 10. Eastern Black Sea; 11. Western Marmara; 12. North Eastern Anatolia. Istanbul is the reference.

Type of community variable, RURALURB, originally grouped in five categories is recoded in two dummies where residents in big cities, suburbs, town or small cities are assigned the value 0 and residents living in country villlages and rural areas are assigned the value 1. Finally, size of community variable, SIZE, indicates the population of the province where the interview took place. Turkey's provinces are grouped in five categories according to their population : 1. More than 2 million habitants; 2. Between 1 and 2 million habitants; 3. Between 500000 and 1 million; 4. Between 250000 and 500000 habitants; 5. Less than 250000 habitants. The reference category is the first one.

3. RESULTS

Results are displayed in two models and as odds ratios in Table 2. Odds ratios are exponentiated coefficients; they correspond to negative coefficients when they are less than 1 and to positive coefficients when they are greater than 1. For each categorical variable, they are interpreted relative to the reference category.

The first model (M1) excludes the educational level of respondents indicated by DEGREE. Educational level is introduced in the second model (M2 or complete model). Both models show that the feeling of being paid unjustly at work is associated positively and strongly with pro-redistribution attitudes compared to people who feel to be paid more than what is deserved. People who never worked support similarly more redistribution relative to the reference category. In the second model, those who think to be paid what is deserved show also more support for redistribution.

In both models, women are more tolerant of income inequality than men, considering that the less-than-1 odds ratio for female in the second model is significant and that in the first model is close to 10 percent significance level. This result is the opposite of the previous study's finding based on the 2011 WVS data, and of the more usual finding in other studies. When education is included, the decreased odds ratio suggests that the attitudinal difference between female and male is

not attributable to educational level differences. A positive association is found only for the 41-50 years age category and pro-redistribution preferences relative to the youngest age category. Being married has no significant effect on attitudes.

The complete model (M2) indicates that the support for redistiribution is reduced with increasing educational levels, a result similar to that of most empirical findings. The complete model also indicates that the second lowest income category is more likely to support redistribution compared with the lowest. Coefficients are non-significant for higher income categories.

The odds ratio for people who never attend religious services is significant in the first model and close to 10 percent significance level in the complete model. This suggests that people who never attend religious services are highly tolerant of inequality and oppose to redistribution relative to the reference category.

All of the regions with significant coefficients have relatively more tolerance for inequality and reduced support for redistribution than Istanbul. When education is included, the coefficient of North Eastern Anatolia increases, the difference between North Eastern Anatolia and Istanbul is attenuated even if North Eastern Anatolia residents oppose more to redistribution than Istanbul residents. This suggests that the difference is partly attributable to educational level.

It is also interesting to note that rural residents do not support redistribution compared with urban residents. In the second model where education is included, rural residents oppose to redistribution by the government even more, similar to the case of female respondents : the attitudinal difference between rural and urban residents cannot be attributed to differences in the educational levels, differences in cultural values and/or income levels are likely to play an important role.

Finally, for all region sizes indicated by the number of inhabitants, the association is positive. As the size gets smaller, pro-redistribution preferences increase, excluding the non-significant coefficient for the size between 500000 and 1 million habitants.

4.   CONCLUSION

The present analysis aims to find the determining factors of individual support for redistribution in Turkey based on the data from the 2009 ISSP Social inequality Module.

The estimations indicate that pro-redistribution preferences are shaped by distributive justice considerations captured by the question on just payment at work. Having no or low educational qualification, and living in urban regions and small cities also play an important role. Being in the lowest income categories is also associated with higher demand for redistribution. The attitudinal difference between rural and urban residents cannot be attributed to differences in the educational levels, differences in cultural values and/or income levels seem to play an important role.

Variables included in the present estimations that are comparable to those of the analysis based on WVS data are gender, hard work, being dissatisfied with the financial situation of the household (used as a proxy for income), being a union member, and region.

This study's finding that women are more tolerant of income inequality than men is the opposite of the previous finding based on the 2011 WVS data, and of the more usual finding in other studies. Hard work has a non- significant effect in the present study although it was one of the determinants of pro-redistribution preferences previously. The impact of income is similar to the previous finding. Being a union member's effect is non-significant in both studies. However, mixed results were found in the previous analysis relative to the effect of living in a specific region. The effects are more homogeneous with ISSPA data, as all of the regions with significant coefficients have relatively reduced support for redistribution than Istanbul. The difference between North Eastern Anatolia and Istanbul residents seems to be partly attributable to educational level.

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Table 1: Descriptive statistics of variables

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Variable	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
REDISTRIBUTION	1527				
1. Responsibility of the Gov. to reduce income differences		0.923	0.267	0	1
0. Indifferent or disagree					
HARDWORK	1557				
1. Important		0.960	0.196	0	1
0. Not important					
JUSTPAY	1532				
0. More than deserved					
1. What is deserved		0.159	0.365	0	1
2. Less than deserved		0.435	0.496	0	1
3. Never worked		0.398	0.490	0	1
SEX	1569				
1. Male					
2. Female		0.527	0.499	0	1
AGE6CATEGORIES	1563				
1. 18-30					
2. 31-40		0.232	0.422	0	1
3. 41-50		0.180	0.385	0	1
4. 51-60		0.150	0.358	0	1
5. 61-70		0.091	0.287	0	1
6. 71-87		0.042	0.201	0	1
MARRIED	1568				
1. Married		0.726	0.446	0	1
0. Not married					
DEGREE	1552				
1. No qualification					
2. Lower qualification		0.564	0.496	0	1
3. Higher qualification		0.225	0.418	0	1
4. University degree		0.083	0.275	0	1
UNION	1553				
1. Member		0.031	0.173	0	1
0. Not member					
INCOMEF	1272				
1. 0-999					
2. 1000-1999		0.301	0.459	0	1
3. 2000-3999		0.133	0.340	0	1
4. 4000-5999		0.020	0.142	0	1
5. 6000-8999		0.011	0.104	0	1
6. 9000-15600		0.007	0.084	0	1

ATTEND	1533			
1.5 times/day up to 5/week				
2. Once/week to 3 or 2/month	0.252	0.434	0	1
3.Once/month to several/year	0.134	0.340	0	1
4.Once/year to lesser	0.020	0.139	0	1
5.Never	0.067	0.250	0	1
SIZE	1569			
1. More than 2 million				
2. Betw. 1 and 2 million	0.243	0.429	0	1
3. Betw. 500000 and 1 million	0.208	0.406	0	1
4. Betw. 250000 and 500000	0.134	0.341	0	1
5. Less than 250000	0.031	0.174	0	1
RURALURB	1569			
1. Rural	0.357	0.479	0	1
0. City				
REGION	1569			
Istanbul				
Aegean	0.147	0.354	0	1
Mediterranean	0.102	0.303	0	1
Southeast Anatolia	0.085	0.280	0	1
Western Anatolia	0.115	0.320	0	1
Eastern Anatolia	0.118	0.323	0	1
Western Black Sea	0.072	0.259	0	1
Central Anatolia	0.072	0.259	0	1
Central East Anatolia	0.036	0.186	0	1
Eastern Black Sea	0.021	0.144	0	1
Western Marmara	0.050	0.217	0	1
North Eastern Anatolia	0.040	0.195	0	1

Source : ISSP - Social inequality (2009)

Table 2 : Logit estimation results reporting odds ratios

DEP. VAR.: INCOMEEQUALITY	(M1) Odds Ratio (Std. Error)	(M2) Odds Ratio (Std. Error)
HARDWORK		
Important	1.301 (0.858)	1.238 (0.826)
JUSTPAY		
1. What is deserved	3.357 (2.841)	4.101 (3.476)
2. Less than deserved	15.894*** (13.675)	19.506*** (16.784)
3. Never worked	11.728*** (10.273)	13.130*** (11.451)
SEX		
2. Female	0.583 (0.205)	0.509* (0.181)
AGE6CATEGORIES		
2. 31-40	1.345 (0.475)	1.198 (0.434)
3. 41-50	2.690** (1.222)	2.340* (1.097)
4. 51-60	1.326 (0.526)	0.963 (0.406)
5. 61-70	1.784 (0.875)	1.256 (0.655)
6. 71-87	0.935 (0.578)	0.577 (0.386)
MARRIED		
Married	0.945 (0.284)	0.799 (0.253)
DEGREE		
2. Lower qualification		0.827 (0.377)
3. Higher qualification		0.404* (0.222)
4. University degree		0.335* (0.221)
INCOMEF		
2. 1000-1999	1.350 (0.413)	1.692* (0.544)
3. 2000-3999	1.480 (0.649)	1.815 (0.817)
4. 4000-5999	0.807 (0.582)	1.022 (0.760)
5. 6000-8999	2.462 (2.675)	2.800 (3.067)
6. 9000-15600	0.475 (0.463)	0.680 (0.682)
UNION		
Member	2.407 (2.089)	2.869 (2.490)

	(M1)	(M2)
ATTEND		
1.5 times/day up to 5/week	0.883 (0.308)	0.968 (0.338)
3. Once/month to several/year	1.496 (0.711)	1.798 (0.876)
4. Once/year to lesser	1.825 (2.027)	1.721 (1.907)
5. Never	0.433* (0.219)	0.479 (.241)
REGION		
Aegean	1.880 (1.403)	1.775 (1.328)
Mediterranean	0.075*** (0.051)	0.070*** (0.049)
Southeast Anatolia	0.213** (0.165)	0.183** (0.147)
Western Anatolia	0.247*** (0.124)	0.255*** (0.130)
Eastern Anatolia	0.349 (0.228)	0.420 (0.288)
Western Black Sea	0.113*** (0.085)	0.104*** (0.081)
Central Anatolia	0.152** (0.124)	0.150** (0.124)
Central East Anatolia	0.257 (0.266)	0.208 (0.222)
Eastern Black Sea	0.352 (0.365)	0.293 (0.309)
Western Marmara	0.611 (0.757)	0.616 (0.779)
North Eastern Anatolia	0.077*** (0.069)	0.762*** (0.069)
SIZE		
2. Betw. 1 and 2 million	2.933** (1.612)	2.898* (1.630)
3. Betw. 500000 and 1 million	1.814 (1.063)	2.123 (1.302)
4. Betw. 250000 and 500000	4.879** (3.175)	4.722** (3.144)
5. Less than 250000	5.054* (4.586)	5.267* (4.772)
RURALURB		
1.Rural	0.510*** (0.140)	0.461*** (.132)

Note: *, **, *** mean significantly different from zero at the 0.10, 0.05, 0.01 significance level.

A Simple Model about Regional Economic Cooperation – A Multidisciplinary Approach

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Abstract

In this study had been investigated regional cooperation Middle East countries. This study includes, literature revive, historical background, comparison research and submitted to simple model. In this model dependent variables is economic and social development, independent variables are, population, education, culture, fiscal capital etc. Regional cooperation, which are includes social, economic and cultural are based for development. Middle East countries should be revised some economic and social cooperation in the world. These matters are important for countries. In responses to global competition their market (EU, Asia, China, North Africa) have started diversifying into new markets and production. Contrary to other economic cooperation MENA countries are differ from social and economic condition. My hypothesis is important this matter.For example, from port of Liverpool to port of Lagos distance between is 4576 mile. Time is 19.1 days. Nigeria gained independent from UK 1960, after that coined south and north. From port of Le Havre to port of Continuo distance between is 4290 mile .Time is 17.9 days. Benin gained independent from France at 1960.Many years had been some difficulties for trade two countries. Therefore regional cooperation is important .In fact, two countries Commerce City distance between is 85 mile.In this work a theoretical study and a model proposal are prepared about the information of an economic – social and political cooperation among 14 Middle- East countries and about the birth of the idea of a new cooperation (unity) while entering 21'st. century.The cooperation like EU, AET and NAFTA, BRİC-S, LAFTA, NAFTA, EEC, MERCESUR, SHANGAY-5, has brought some facilities to the economic life. It is impossible for a country today to live survive a closed economy to other countries in our globalize world.We would argue that the defining issue of economic geography is the need to explain concentrations of population and of economic activity: the distinction between manufacturing belt and farm belt, the existence of cities, the role of industry clusters. (Fujita, 1999, p. 4)Generally we talk about measuring development, in order to decision for future. So we can choose a series of indicators in different social fields, mainly economics, to describe how a particular society has progressed over the time. There are other phrases that have become important in the public debate trying to explain what development really means to a society. Among these we have: Well-being, Welfare state, Developed countries, Reducing poverty, Solution unemployment, Quality of Life, Human development, Social development etc. Classical sectors are chanced today. Today society called "Knowledge society". Productive for work needs to quality education. Shortly, innovation policies criteria, globalization, WtrO rules, Wipo rule, Pisa scores requires new studies this field. Basically social and economic development has been result. I will explain reason and cause effect those reasons.Job creation is the first priorities in the MENA region. This model will be contributed to solution of unemployment. A free trade agreement (FTA) is a preferential arrangement among countries in which tariff rates among them are reduced to zero. However, different members of the arrangement may set external tariff for non- members at different rates (Krueger, 1997, p. 7) There are kind of agreement for example. Bilateral investment agreement, free trade agreement, regional investment agreement. I will try to my models similar to European Union.In sum up, according to Bell "Society can be viewed as three separate parts that, when integrated, create a harmonious relationship within society. The three parts: polity, market economy (techno-economic), and culture (human tradition) (Bell, 1976, p. 14) in addition to regional trade has impact of multiple effect some fields.

Key words: Regional Cooperation, MENA, Social Development, Unemployment, Social Structure, Basic needs.

INTRODUCTION

In this work a theoretical study and a model proposal are prepared about the information of an economic – social and political cooperation among 14 Middle East countries and about the birth of the idea of a new cooperation (unity) while entering 21st century.

Regional economic integration has many names, shapes and forms, for example EU, NAFTA, ASEAN, SAFTA are differing from another. Regional cooperation are differ forms. Regional cooperation, number of country, rule of trade law, and rule of custom law, social structure, and economic structure etc. summarized that variable for my hypothesis

GAFTA is still in a nascent stage. The unemployment rates in Tunisia and Oman are about 14 per cent, among the highest in the world (UNDP 2010) Like most MENA countries, Tunisia exhibits the highest rates of labor force increase over the last three decades, making 40 per cent. Unemployment rates for young age groups a major concern (Drine, 2012, p. 10).

In 2010, the major exporters of commercial services were the European Union, the United States, Japan, China and India, which together represented around two-thirds of the world exports (WTO, 2011). The share of developing countries remained low, although the performance of some countries was significantly improved in many directions. For instance, in some Middle East and North Africa (MENA) countries, trade in services, rather than trade in goods, appears as the core of their development strategies. Countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) have heavily invested in services to reduce their dependence on oil and further diversify their economy and exports. The Emirates of Dubai promoted tourism, which now contributes more than oil to the Emirates' GDP, as well as exports in information and communication technology, and media. Non-GCC countries are also performing well. For example, Morocco is becoming an important off-shoring center for high-tech enterprises.

Besides, the service sector has been an important source of value added growth and job creation in MENA countries during the latter half of the 2000s, irrespective of whether the country was an oil exporter or importer (from World Bank, 2011)(Sedighi, 2013, p. 11).

The corporations like EU, Nafta, Lafta; Asean, and EEC have brought some facilities to the economic life. It is impossible for a country today to live a closed to other countries in our globalize world.

In the world diminished by the technological developments, it is required for countries to cooperate among them and use the limited sources in an efficient way. In our age where some productions are determined with the photographs taken by means of satellites cooperation is inevitable for countries to have a word in the markets of the world.

Some factors like the change-taking place in the social and economic structures of nations due to some significant events. International competition, the change in the volume of world trade, the development and expansion of communication technology may cause the birth of economic and cultural corporation (unity) between nations and countries.

Another way outside Capitalism and Socialism is an opportunity for the third countries of the world. When the total labor power is more than the total employment or the total capital is more than the total investment, the use of money for the sources out of the country can lead to negative consequences.

If unity been this factor would be available.

The Middle-East countries are obliged to form a new model and to develop it because the gap between them and the developed countries is large. Through this model the poverty can be reduced in this area where raw materials, capital, labor power, supply and demand are abundant.

The fact that some countries like Japan have a word on the stage of trade and policy in the world stems from their economic power.

Some scientists of politics generally explain the concept "national interest" "as the interest of a country and vital things for its independence, life style, land unity and the economic welfare of the leaders of a government or in a wider sense, of a nation." (Lincoln Padelford, 1954, p. 309), (Ölçün G.A., 1958, p. 181).

MENA is experiencing a 'youth bulge' with more than 30% of the population currently between the ages of 15 and 29, and youth unemployment averages hovering around 25%. Women in the region still lag far behind their international counterparts, with fewer than 20% of adult women in paid employment. Up to 90% of government jobs in some GCC countries are held by nationals, with a staggering 10% of GDP being spent on the annual government wage bill and IMF and World Bank reports have stated that there is a significant 'skills mismatch' in MENA countries, with education systems not meeting the requirements of the market (The Economist, 2015)(The Economist (Dubai Edition), 2015).

Middle East and Mena region's important is well-being, reduce poverty, and future of Middle East. Over one hundred years this region has conflict, political and economic disaster. This model can be improve and contribute this regions. My approach is holistic and interdisciplinary view. "Neighbors makes zero problem" this motto was suggested, Turkey s neighbor countries. This means is called by win win policy.

The Arab world stretches from Morocco across Northern Africa to the Persian Gulf. The Arab world is more or less equal to the area known as the Middle East and North Africa (MENA). Although this means that is includes Somalia, Djibouti, and the Comoros Islands which are part of the Arab world. It can also be defined as those countries where Arabic is the dominant language. 22 Arab countries-areas, Algeria, Bahrain, the Comoros Islands, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Mauritania, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen. Iran and Turkey are not Arab countries.

Russia will become a founding member in the China-led $50 billion Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank (AIIB) on April 14, according to the State Council of the People's Republic of China. At least 44 countries have applied for membership in the AIIB with the rights of founding countries. AIIB as a founding United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland and Luxembourg. China's Ministry of Finance welcomed Kyrgyzstan's application to join AIIB on Tuesday. The country is expected to become a bank member on April 9.Sweden will also apply to join the bank, the country's finance minister said Monday.

Padelford and Lincoln examine the international relations limiting them to five matters: of these, the important three are shown below:

National interests of countries are similar on another

Although the interests are not exactly similar, they can be reconciled reciprocally.

The interests of two or more states may be opposite each other in some certain conditions even though they are not opposite each other completely (Ölçün, 1958, p. 181).

The approaches like these also support the idea of corporations.

After this integration of the Ottoman State, some main clashes in the Middle East influenced the region. Among these we can mention 1956 Suez Disagreements, 1958 Iraqi Revolution, the disembarkation of USA marines to Lebanon, the landing English soldiers to Jordan, the Iraq-Iran war.

If the permanent treaties like EU had been carried out and obeyed in this region, the clashes and conflicts would have been reduced to their least level and a rapid progress realized. USA succeeded in this foreign policy due to Monroe doctrine. The first beginning of the Baghdad Pact in the region is the Turk-Iraq mutual cooperation agreement between Turkey and Iraq on 24 February 1955.

England joined this pact on 5 April 1955, Pakistan on 23 September 1955 and Iran on 3 November 1955. The validity of the treaties, which are not being supported socially, economically and culturally, is being reduced.

1.Theoretical Background

Free trade and an unimpeded movement of factors are the first best policy in a world which does not have any distortions, but this is only a hypothetical scenario. The real situation is full of market imperfections that may be corrected and/ or exploited by the employment of an economic policy (intervention). The rationales for international economic integration exist. When one distortion (e.g. a universal tariff of a country) is replaced by another (e.g. the common external tariff of a customs union) the net effect may be obscure. Theory about regional economic integration (an introverted economic strategy, to a degree) is the analysis of second best situations. It is, therefore, not surprising that general theoretical principle may not be found. What matters, however, are not solely the predictions of theory, but rather what happens in real life (Miroslow N., Jovanovic, 1982, p. 352).

While Middle East and Northern African (MENA) countries differ in terms of resource endowments and economic evolution, they share common history and cultural heritage. The MENA region has managed to maintain a unique geopolitical significance throughout its history. Situated at the junction point of three continents, the region was a thriving centre of trade. Control over main commercial networks helped to establish MENA as the world's leading economic power from the seventh to the thirteenth centuries. Compared to the rest of the world, including Europe, the region was very prosperous: according to Table 1, GDP per capita in the MENA region in the 10th century was the highest of the five country groups (Drine, 2012, p. 1).

The gains that international economic integration provides can be summarized as follows;

Integration extends, improves and secures the markets for a country's goods and services against abrupt changes in the trade policy of partners in the future. Hence, integration can be seen as an insurance policy' against sudden and unilateral economic actions by partners in the deal.

Creation of new technologies, goods and services.

Integration reduces the cost of a national import- substitution policy.

International action limits, to an extent, the possibility for unnecessary public intervention in the economy because it extends the scope of economic policy across several countries.

Wider and secure markets increase investment opportunities for both domestic firms and TNCs. Expectations may be established with an increased degree of security. Trade creation and trade diversion. Creation of the potential for monetary stability. Improvement in bargaining positions with external partners. Terms of trade effects and gains to exporters provide benefits from preferential trading agreements that are not available from unilateral trade liberalization policies. Stimulation of economic growth.

Given the above motives for regional integration, it is not necessary to resort exclusively to non-economic reasons for economic integration. However, there are still many unanswered and emerging questions regarding international economic integration (Miroslow N., Jovanovic, 1982, p. 355).

"Large and developed countries depend a lesser degree on external relations than do small countries. In theory, these countries may have a diversified economic structure, which allows for an autarchic economic policy, while such a policy for small countries in a situation with economies of scale and other externalities does not have an economic rationale. If some production takes place, the consequences include short production runs, high prices and lower standard of living (Miroslow N., Jovanovic, 1982, p. 355).

Most residents of industrialized nations have at some time been strata by the vast gap in wealth separating them from those who reside in the poor countries of the world. Whether they travel to those countries or visit them vicariously through television and film, the gap is probably the single most vivid impression the poor countries themselves, Two questions concern most social scientists that conduct research in the Third Word, where they experience the gaps firsthand. First, what causes the gaps? Second, are they narrowing or widening? (Mitchall A., Seligsun-John, T. Passe-Smith, 1993 p. 18).

There is another gap separating rich from poor. Many developing nations are experiencing a growing gap between their own rich and poor citizens. Poor people, who live in poor countries, therefore, are falling further behind not only the world's rich but also their more affluent countrymen Moreover; precisely the opposite phenomenon has taken place within the richer countries, where the gap between rich and poor has narrowed. The world's poor, therefore, find themselves in double jeopardy. The consequences of these widening gaps can be witnessed day. The industrialized countries have responded with foreign aid programs that, by all accounts, can only hope to make a small dent in the problem (Mitchall A. Seligsun, 1993, p. 4).

The enormity and persistence of the Per capita income gap between rich and poor countries is the subject of this selection by David Marawetz. Using data gathered by the Word Bank, Marawetz shows that there are two gaps, the relative and the absolute. Although some areas of the world (China, East Asia, and the Middle East) have narrowed the relative gap in the 1950- 1975 period, others have seen it widen. For the developing countries as a whole, Per capita income equaled only 7.6 percent of the Per capita income of the industrialized nations (Dava Moravets, 1993, p. 9).

During the 1975- 1990 period, which captures much of the impact of the first oil shock, the second oil shock, the extended world recession, and the global debt crisis, the world growth rate dropped below 1 percent. All three-income groups suffered during this period, and the relative fortunes of the income groups began to change. It could be that middle - income counties have the highest potential for growth when global economic expansion is taking place but are not as able as the rich countries to protect themselves when economically difficult times arise (John T. Passe-Smith, 1993, p. 17).

Trade policy has become increasingly important within the international, regional, and national policy-making spheres. It expanded beyond mere tariffs' policies and exchange of goods to have immense effects on macro and micro economic policies, as well as social and cultural realities. Many countries have argued that the principles of national treatment are

not possible when considering investment and that there is no reciprocity in the services provision given that the service providers in developed countries are huge versus very small units existent in developing countries sectoral implication (The Arab Region And Trade Liberalization Policies , 2012, p. 31).

"In the past fifty years, various leaders of the Middle East have tried to make the newly independent states work. On the whole, they have not done very well in forging viable economies or in providing a modicum of social justice for their populations. To do better as the 21 st century approaches, they will need to improve the governance of their societies, which entail some measure of democratization and accountability. As the century draws to a close, one should reflect on what a remarkable era the Middle East has been passing through. Just a century ago, the Ottoman Empire was still intact and was struggling to find a constitutional formula to keep is increasingly assertive national groups together. That effort failed, in part because of World War I. Then, the imperial powers of the day, primarily Britain and France, intensified their domination over most of the area (William B. Quantit, 1996, p. 9).

"Everyone talks about the corporation, but in the words of Mark Twain, no one does anything about it, and for this there are some pretty good reasons. In the first place, something very like the modern corporation is the inevitable product of an industrializing society, whether that society follows a capitalist or a socialist trend of development. Lawyers love to describe the corporation, as a creature of the law, but law in a major manifestation is simply a device for facilitating and registering the obvious and the inevitable. Given the technologically determined need for a large stock of capital, the managerial requirements set by the problem of administering the efforts of many men, and the area of desertion demanded for the effective conduct of an entrepreneurial function, the corporation, or a reasonable facsimile thereof is the only answer (Edward S. Mason, 1970, p. 1).

 We would argue that the defining issue of economic geography is the need to explain concentrations of population and of economic activity: the distinction between manufacturing belt and farm belt, the existence of cities, the role of industry clusters (Fujita, 1999, p. 4).

 "In the second place the Business Corporation is so much our most important economic institution and it is so thoroughly integrated into our business culture that to suggest a drastic change in the scope or character of corporate activity is to suggest a drastic alteration in the structure of society. We look to the corporation for the technical improvements that spark our economic growth. The corporation recruits our youth from college and provides them with pensions in their old age (Edward S. Mason, 1970, p.1).

Comparison of the organization's role in both the East- West and the North- South conflicts seems to be particularly suggestive to conclude our interpretative analysis. The joint effect of the two rules suggests three problems and associated critical phases in the life of international organizations':

The first phase is characterized by the initial spirit of co-operation, which underlies the foundation of an organization. A second phase, primarily characterized by conflict processes with a view to both necessary institutional adjustments to the power relations of its environment and transforming the general goals of the organization into operational pursued by its individual members.

Third phase, where in a continuous political process varied tasks have to be performed as regards the substantive accommodation of competing values, related re-definitions of behavioral and distributive norms, and the eventual re-distribution of resources in accordance with these norms.

During this second phase the organization was driven into a marginal role as to the tasks of maintaining peace and security since a basic consensus regarding standards for exercising the regulatory function did not exist to a sufficient degree (Rudiger Judge, Annemarie Grusse- Gudde, 1981, p. 9). The European Communities emerged as a unique organization among other regional organizations formed to achieve economic and political integration in Europe after the Second World War. The evolution of European Communities on the basis on the treaties establishing them and of the amendments mode to those treaties has created a dynamic integration process. The Treaty of Paris signed by Germany, Franc, Belgium, Luxembourg, Italy and the Netherlands on 18 again 1951 constituted the first step towards integration by setting up the European Coal and steel Community.

The three Communities formed a de facto unity finding excision in the fusion of their organs. The unity demonstrated by the European Communities Constituted the basis for the evolving integration process which has been preserved and developed through the direct effect and primarily of community treaties and the act of the Common.

Arab thought during the last century and a half has focused mostly on themes of change arising from (a) the internal dynamics of the Arab society, (b) encounters with the West, and (c) the onslaught of various challenges. Given this situation, it is naive to clam that Arab thought is always critical of the existing order and that Arab intellectuals constitute a group or even a class in them and for themselves (İ. İbrahim, 1993, p. 70-71. Halim Barakat 1983).

Dougherty and Pfaltzgraff summaries the common concerns of writers who use systems theory as follows: 1) the internal organization and patterns of complexes of elements hypothesized or observed to exist as a system; 2) the relationships and boundaries between a system and its environment and, in particular, the nature and impact of inputs from and outputs to the environment; 3) the functions performed by systems, the structures for the performance of such functions, and their effect upon the stability of the system; 4) the homeostatic mechanism available to the system for the maintenance of steady-state or equilibrium; 5)the classification of systems as open or closed, or as organismic or non- organismic systems, the location of subsystems within systems, the patterns of interaction among subsystems themselves, and between subsystem and the system itself (1981, p. 150) (A. Nuri Yurdusev, 1991, p. 110-111).

Clearing has many different meanings within the financial markets. In its broadest definition, clearing is a post-trade activity and aims to reduce risk. This often means using a central counterparty (CCP) to eliminate risks associated with the default of a trading counterparty. In the OTC derivatives markets, 'bilateral clearing' means two parties to a trade make their own arrangements to reduce their exposure to each other's default. All clearing arrangements are designed to help market participants manage various risks - operational, counterparty, settlement, market, and legal - between trade execution and settlement. CCP clearing means a CCP becomes the legal counterparty to each trading party, providing a guarantee that it will honour the terms of the original trade even if one of the parties defaults before the discharge of its obligations under the trade. (Euroccp, 2005)

When the trade potential of between Islamic countries is considered, the economic relations among the Islamic countries are seen to be insufficient. For the development of the mentioned relations and their Economic development and wealth level increase as a whole Islamic community, some handicapped are root of history. But Islamic countries must be economic and social cooperation especially economic cooperation. Islamic organization has 57 members, those of 22 members the Islamic, countries are defined to have a very low development and the economic successes of Islamic countries are under the sovereignty of a few countries.

Regional trade agreements (RTAs) have emerged as an alternative to achieve trade liberalization as multilateral efforts have faced political and economic obstacles. 2, 3 the difficulties of reaching agreements on sensitive issues like agriculture and services have been evident in the Doha Round. The previous rounds were also marked by complex and slow negotiation processes. For one, as the number of participants' increases, it has been more difficult to address each country's demands for special considerations (Euroccp, p.3).

Trends in Foreign direct investment by major region, 1991-96 average Inflows

Europe	39.2 %
N.America	23.9 %
Non OECD Asia	21.5 %
Latin America	9.4 %
OECD Asia	4.6 %
Middle East & Africa	1.3 %

Outflows

Europe	45.9 %
N.America	30.4%
Asia	22.2 %
Latin America	0.8 %
Middle East & Africa	4.6 %
Middle East & Africa	0.7 %

Source: OECD (1997c) (OEDC, 1998, p. 75)

As shown below on graphic, Middle East Countries has been little percent trade of the world. Middle East countries, especially 14 countries may increase trade amount themselves. Geographically Turkey is in a position of between Europe and Middle East and strategically situation has been Balkan Countries. Turkey is candidate EU and she is member of a lot of union. Now the superpower bloc system has been ended. Regional powers are very important today.

Consultation, coordination and communication are important among the Middle East Countries. Rich of countries depends on the rich of people. The aspect is supposed to the development five It's which are information-inspiration-innovation-interjection and integration. One of the major problems among the Middle East countries is industrialization social structure.

Regional Outcomes, A common indicator of regional competitiveness is GDP per head, which provides an, albeit incomplete, indicator of the average well-being of the population. For analytical,Purposes this can be decomposed as follows:

GDP GDP Employment Working Population

--------- = ---------- * --------------- * ------------------------

Population Employment Working pop. Population

(EU commission, 2015, p. 46)

I applied this method for my support hypothesis compared with three countries results for economic development had been supported my hypothesis. Those countries are Turkey, S.Korea and Saudi Arabia. Turkey, per head GDP 11000 UDS, population 76000000, employment 35000000, working population 26000000 and Result is 1.40=1.44. S.Korea, per head GDP, 20000 USD, population 56000000, employment 29000000, working population 22000000 and result is 3.57=3.52. S.Arabia, per head GDP 18000 USD, population, 26000000, employment 14000000, working population 9000000 and Result is 6.92=0.00527. I applied this method for Spain, Egypt, and Ireland. Those result is supported my hypothesis, i.e. Economic, social cooperation and human power are effecting development. Reduced had been unemployment also. Spain's result is 4.89=0.00049, Eygpt result is 6.2=0.48, and Ireland result is 0.0088=0.0086. Because in Ireland unemployment rate is lover.

Working employment in S.Arabia has foreign workers. Because of this result is differing from others. This Formula can be used for regional cooperation.

Merchandise trade flows within regions outperform flows between regions. Merchandise exports by region and destination 2011 (USD. Billion) (World Trade Organization. 2012.) Raw data from WTrO, adjusted by author's. From To Region US Dollar billion Region

North America	1103 Billion $	North America
	476 Billion $	Asia
	382 Billion $	Europe
	201 Billion $	Central South America& the Caribbean
	63 Billion $	Middle East
	37 Billion $	Africa
	15 Billion $	Commonwealth of Independent States

Europe	4667 Billion $	Europe
	639 Billion $	Asia
	480 Billion $	North America
	234 Billion $	Commonwealth of Independent States
	199 Billion $	Africa
	194 Billion $	Middle East
	119 Billion $	Central & South America & the Caribbean

Central & South America & the Caribbean	200 Billion $	Central & South America & the Caribbean
	169 Billion $	Asia
	140 Billion $	North America

	138 Billion $	Europe
	21 Billion $	Africa
	18 Billion $	Middle East
	8 Billion $	Commonwealth of Independent States

	205 Billion $	Europe
	146 Billion $	Asia
	102 Billion $	North America
Africa	77 Billion $	Africa
	21 Billion $	Middle East
	19 Billion $	Central & South America & the Caribbean
	2 Billion $	Commonwealth of Independent States

	2926 Billion $	Asia
	922 Billion $	Europe
	906 Billion $	North America
Asia	242 Billion $	Middle East
	189 Billion $	Central & South America & the Caribbean
	152 Billion $	Africa
	110 Billion $	Commonwealth of Independent States

	660 Billion $	Asia
	158 Billion $	Europe
	110 Billion $	Middle East
Middle East	107 Billion $	North America
	38 Billion $	Africa
	10 Billion $	Central & South America & the Caribbean
	6 Billion $	Commonwealth of Independent States

	409 Billion $	Europe
	154 Billion $	Commonwealth of Independent States
	117 Billion $	Asia
Commonwealth of Independent States	34 Billion $	North America
	24 Billion $	Middle East
	12 Billion $	Africa

This data's had been supported my hypothesis.

Industrialism requires and mobile workforce, large-scale production in large cities, together with political consensus for government intervention; a professionally of managers; work force participation in benefit of industrialism and political acceptance of this system. This system is regulated by a web rules. (Kerr et. al, 1960, p. 33-46.) Jacqueline O. Reilly. 1996 p :5)

The idea of cooperation to be based on recent years, which had been formulate some scholars, e.g. Duncan. Duncan had formulated international trade and cooperation in his survey research in 1938. (A.J Duncan Marshalls paradox and the direction of shift in demand Econemetrica, 6, 358-360 October 1938). Richard E-Coves 1960 p. 202) my simple model will be offering a solution for under development countries for developments. In sum, what are the strengths of Member of Countries 1.Cultural and historical resemble 2. Geographical closeness, 3.Population, 4.Workforce, 6.Markets, 7.Capital, 8.Natural resources. What are the weaknesses of Member of countries, 1.Infrastructure incomplete 2.Lacking of Manpower, 3.Lacking of research, 4.Lacking of technical level 5.Lacking of industrialization?

Generally some scholar and political sciences especially social sciences talk about measuring development, so we choose a series of indicators in different social fields, mainly economics, to describe how a particular society has progressed over the time. Some empire and country is richer from other. There are other phrases that have become important in the public

debate trying to explain what development really means to a society. Some concept debates between social scientist, those are: Welfare state, Social and economic well-being, social progress, social development, economic development, etc.

Another aspect this subject is social security. 7G and EU Countries have perfectly social security system. Underdevelopment countries should be improving social security system.

II.Historical Background

"Sa'dabad pact, Sa'dabad pact of 1937 was signed by Iran, Iraq, Afghanistan, and Turkey in July 1937, Initiated by Iran's Reza Shah, Sa'dabad represented the first alliance entered into by Middle East states without European participation. His principal target was Great Britain, the dominant power in the Persian Gulf area and the most impressive imperial power in the Middle East at the time. Sa'dabad" alliance of Middle East states, but he was rebuffed because of his dependence on the United States, and because he was not a trusted figure (Lawrence Zinning, 1928, p. 343).

"Baghdad Pact the Baghdad Pact was a treaty of alliance entered into by Iraq and Turkey in 1955. Iran, Pakistan, and Britain joined the pact in the months that followed. The United States, although not a signatory to the pact, participated in all its activities (Lawrence Zinning, 1928, p. 343).

"Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) The Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) was the successor to the Baghdad Pact. In 1958, the Iraqi monarchy was overthrown and abolished. Iraq withdrew from the Baghdad Pact. The rest of the alliance, however, remained intact, necessitating a change in nomenclature. The name "Central Treaty Organization" was considered appropriate insofar as it seemed to follow the concept of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.. The creation of CENTO attempted to formalize the alliance between Turkey, Iran, Pakistan, and Britain, and the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO), assembled in 1954. CENTO was intended to organize the "Northern Tier" of states, two of which shared a border with the Soviet Union (Turkey and Iran) (Lawrence Zinning, 1928, p. 343).

 "Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD) The Regional Co-operation for Development was proposed by the president of Pakistan, Ayub Khan, It was established in July 1964 and included Turkey and Iran as well as Pakistan. RCD's objective, according to Ayub Khan, was economic co-operation and cultural exchange between like minded area states. RCD was conceived as and promote trade, assist in joint enterprises, and generally enhance the well being of their respective citizenry. Cooperation is not competitions committees for agriculture, industry, banking, and shipping. Nevertheless, it never measured up to the intentions of its creator. From the outset, Iran was less than inspired. Turkey's economic interests were oriented more toward Western Europe, Little trade moved between the RCD countries, and Pakistan, of the three, had the least lately ignored the offer. The three member states were all identified with the Central Treaty Organization, and RCD was perceived as an extension of CENTO, Indeed, there were some observers who concluded that the United States had prompted Pakistan to form RCD, giving the organization the necessary support (Lawrence Zinning, 1928, p. 345).

It is well known that the Ottoman Turkish Presence in Palestine encompasses 402 years, beginning 1516 and extending down to the end of the First World War (Ataöv, Türkkaya, 1970 p. 15-71).

The Sa'dabad Pact of 1934 had in the meantime been followed by the conclusion of on agreement between Turkey, Iran, Iraq and Afghanistan, known as the Pact of Sa'dabad 1936. The effect of this was to guarantee Turkey and its Asiatic neighbors against the some attack.

III.Simple Model

At our time when there a speedy social change, in the process that started in the Middle East in 1900s and continued approximately for 100 years, it is observed that conflicts rather than power unification are experienced.

Huntington says, "The speedy change of the social values, in general, emerges in the societies which have oriented towards modernization." (S.P. Huntington, 1976, p. 23).

The technological defeat and underdevelopment have yielded political and social underdevelopment. The Ottomans began to be defeated in the wars after the use of the firearms. They were unable to resist against the sailing ships with their steamboats. In the model, I offer that the Middle East countries have to eliminate the technological barrier, first of all.

Because after the theoretical framework of the model is discussed, its chance of being put under implementation increases. Monnet's thought of a single Europe in 1950s and its recognition and (ECSC, European Coal and Steel Community) the use of a significant raw material has affected on the idea of such a unity. French Minister of Foreign Affairs of the time proposed that the European states should unite around a federal system in the year 1929. In my opinion, this model too is to be discussed and put under implementation.

Since the European Community is not solely a political unity and shelters a number of sub-unites in its structure, in the model I propose, functionality will emerge through technical and social unity to a greater extent. Among the sub-unites included in the European Union are the European Council, European Free Trade Area (EFTA), OECD (partly), West European Union, Benelux States Union, Scandinavian Countries Council, 1951 KGT Agreement, 1957 AET and agreement.

In spite of the fact that Turkey is strong in textile in the global markets, she is constrained due to the quotas applied. If there were a powerful union, Turkey's rights would be protected.

In the model I propose, emphasis has been put on the basic elements of the classical economic approach. Furthermore, a discussion entails through the modern economic approaches, which are as follows:

Natural Resources: Different Middle East countries have different raw materials. Technology: The idea of union will complement this significant deficiency. Capital: Most of the 14 countries have sufficient capital. Labors: Those countries, especially like Turkey, that have a young population. I believe that this is an advantage to be used. Market: The member countries, Islamic countries, Africa and the global market. Social environment: Cultural, historical and social unity. In addition to all these, the other factors such as the modern economic approach, private property, freedom, the profit ratio, competition are to be taken into consideration.

In Table 1, in which my MODEL is presented, the following basic conditions are to be met:

- Independence of the countries (like those of the EU) will fully be kept ,

- Economic good will be looked after like EU – NAFTA,

- Balance will be protected in such matters as Participation – Responsibility – and – Management.

Another issue that interests the World and the Middle East countries is that the fact that without industrialization, it is impossible to become an information society. Although Importation – Sub institution in information and technology provide a temporary ease, without industrialization, an information society is impossible to reach. In this model, it is targeted to provide resources for the solution of the basic and difficult issue of the industrialization process. In this scope, it will be possible to meet the main infrastructural expenditures.

Custom union is an agreement between nations thought which tariff on all goods and services produced by member nations are traded tariff fee, while the member nations agree on common tariff rates on imports from all non-member countries.

We should be separate regional economic cooperation with sub field cooperation. For example; PTA, Free Trade Area, customs union, common market, monetary union-complete integration. Trading blocks is differ from economic integration. Some economic block below. PARTA-EEA-CARICOM-AEC-SACU-GAFTA-NAFTA-LAFTA-ASEAN-CEFTA-EFTA-AEC-SAFTA-ŞANGHAY-BRİC+S-. A country can be both member of a lot of trade block and cooperation members. And a country can be signed bilateral free trade agreement.

My regional cooperation model is differing from another. My hypothesis is occurs four pillars. Those are firstly, this region has been cultural, religion and geographical neighbour, secondly, knowledge based economy is primary sectors. India and China achieved reduce poverty this sectors. Thirdly Turkey is donor country; In sum up my model is all member of country equal.

METAU Region includes: 1.Algeria 2.Bahrain 3.Djibouti 4.Egypt 5.Iran 6.Iraq 8.Jordan 9.Kuwait | 10.Lebanon 11.Libya 12.Morocco | 13.Oman 14.Qatar 15.Saudi Arabia 16. Syria 17.Tunisia 18.United Arab Emirates 19.West Bank and Gaza 20.Yemen 21.Turkey,.Some economic union had been submitted below.

AMU: (Arab Maghreb Union): Tunisia, Morocco, Algeria, Libya, Mauritania

GCC: (Gulf Cooperation Council): Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, Oman

GAFTA :(Great Arab Free Trade Agreement): Syria, WBG, Lebanon, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, Oman, Sudan, Yemen, Jordan, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco, Libya

ECO: (Economic Cooperation Organization) Turkey, Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Pakistan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Iran

COMESA :(Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa) Egypt, Libya, Djibouti, Burundi, Comoros, D.R. Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sudan, Swaziland, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe

EFTA :(European Free Trade Association) Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon,

Agadir: Jordan, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco,

Bilateral Agreements with Regional Agreements:

United States: Morocco, Singapore, Oman, Bahrain, Lebanon

Efta: Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon,

European Union: Syria, WBG, Lebanon, Jordan, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco, Algeria

Turkey: Egypt, WBG, Syria, Tunisia, Morocco,

Singapore: Jordan

The Arab countries have been developing regional economic integration plans through the Greater Arab Free Trade Area (GAFTA), which came into force in 2005. Twelve of the Arab countries are members of the WTO (Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait, Morocco, Oman, Qatar, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Djibouti, Saudi Arabia, and Mauritania) while six are negotiating accession (Lebanon, Libya, Iraq, Sudan, Yemen, and Algeria).9 Under the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership, Algeria, Tunisia, Morocco, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, and Palestine have signed association agreements, while Syria is still negotiating with the European Parliament. By 2010, a free trade area between all members of the Euro-Med agreement (15 EU countries originally in the agreement, 12 new EU countries after its recent enlargement, and 10 Southern Mediterranean countries) is to be established. Moreover, the EU and the Gulf Cooperation Council10 (GCC) have accelerated negotiations during the end of 2005 (Mohamadieh, 2007, p. 1).

WTrO has 160 members since 2014.WTrO has 24 Observer governments, those are. Afghanistan, Algeria, Andorra, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Belarus, Bhutan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Comoros, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Holy See (Vatican), Iran, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Lebanese Republic, Liberia, Republic of Libya, Sao Tomé and Principe, Serbia, Seychelles, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic, Uzbekistan. 6 countries are MENA region

MIDDLE EAST DEVELOPMENT UNION

A – Research Institutes:Centre,:country.a

B – Financing Council:Centre.:country.b

a.   It will provide resources for the basic infrastructure investments,

b.   It will provide resources for industrialization,

c.   It will meet the financing needs of the SMEs (Small and Medium Size Enterprises),

d.   For urgent situations, there will be a financing capability in the Emergency Fund.

C – Financial Council:Centre.:country.c

e.   It will make regulatory arrangements in the customs legislation between the member countries,

f.   It will make regulatory arrangements in the importation – exportation legislation,

g.   It will meet the expenses made by the Secretariat.

 D – Technological Council: Centre.:Country.d

a.   It will provide access into the available technology and create new technologies,

b.   It will ensure communication,

c.   It will establish information units.

 E – Political Council:Centre.:Country.e

d.   It will ensure the exterior security of the member countries,

e.   It will prevent conflicts,

f.   It will protect the interests of the member countries.

 F – Social Security Council:Centre.:country.f

g.   It will ensure the social process of helping one another,

h.   It will use the fund to be distributed,

i.   It will put the attached formula into practice.

Related to some of the activities conducted in the scope of the regional economic cooperation, details to this end are presented below (Bayraktutan Yusuf, 1997, p. 9):

Regional integration (or national integration) means the integration of various regions in the borders of a national state as the smallest scale of the economic integration. Substantially, this category is a matter pertaining to the regional economy and regional science. International (economic) integration expresses the subject of economic integration of various countries in a bloc. As a classification frequently met, regional – international economic integration is the integration process of the different nations within a geographical bloc or territory. Global integration is the integration experienced worldwide. Commercial theory separates, in general, the ways of the economic integration into six categories (Bayraktutan Yusuf, 1997, p. 16):

H.J. Harrington says "Measurement is the first step that leads to control and eventually to improvement. If you can't measure something, you can't understand it. If you can't understand it, you can't control it. If you can't control it, you can't improve it." This motto's means is some countries should be coined WTrO.

CONCLUSION

 This model may be multiple effects and contribute to some interdisciplinary fields. Those are Sustainable development. Sustainable development includes economic, social and environmental areas. This model is contributing sustainable development.

In this interdisciplinary researcher especially economic scholars trust economy, green economy. Mena region and Muslim countries should be protecting some value. For example green economy, trust economy. Usury is forbidden in the Quran. İn 2015 some Middle East countries 250 billion USD reserves are out of country. This model offers this fiscal capital can be use industrialisation. Unemployment especially, young unemployment people are Mena region. These countries must be solving unemployment problems.

Pisa examination is international exam. But this regions student score are failing. For the future this exam should be prepare this countries. Social structure is differing from others. These countries cannot be separate (like Sudan) if artificial state is occurs, this area economic and social structure may be domino effects.

Sciences are methods. To compare with some data's requires WTrO data's. Therefore some countries, which are 6 country should be coined WTrO.

Economic growth bears importance for any Middle East and North African countries with different levels of development. It is seen that various theories of economic growth give a different importance to technological development, social development and human capital. This model will be contribute analytical framework..Because regional economic integration mainly dependences on other countries, which has been effected other countries. This means that multiple effects. For example Eu and Usa signed custom agreement therefore Turkey had been effected. Since beginning the XIX century regional economic integration has been goal pursued by middle income countries. A free trade agreement, which is easy for MENA countries, is preferential agreement among countries in which tarif rates among them are reduced to zero. In sum up, this model is interdisciplinary model. Those are green economy, Islamic economy, ethical economy etc. Concept will be considering.

Public administration and trade culture are important for development. Meritocracy and organisation culture impact of development. In history this region has not industrialisation revaluation. In addition to pressing of has been colonisation. Therefore those countries are called as underdevelopment countries. E U is perfect model for countries' is economic, social and political organisation in the

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Types of Socialization and Their Importance in Understanding the Phenomena of Socialization

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Abstract

Depending on various criteria, the specialized literature defined several types of socialization. After socialization factors and the age at which the process are studied, we have primary socialization and secondary socialization (and continues), according to the assessment of society there are positive or negative socialization, and as awareness of how socialization process is distinguished there is formal or informal socialisation, depending on the objective pursued by already created effects, we have anticipatory or adaptive socialization , depending on the intervention of legitimate power we can talk about associative or institutional socialization after as contents and the results expressed in statuses and roles, gender socialization may be , professional, marital, according to methods of making can speak about planned, spontaneous, law enforcement, participatory socializing depending on the purpose we have societal, national, political, ideological-partisan socialization etc.. These types are not individualized in an environment amorphous, but they intermingle, they complement and, by correlation, manage to describe the complex phenomenon of socialization. The contribution of those who have defined numerous types of socialization should not be approached holistically, nor in opposition with each other, but as a complement to the comprehensive and specialized understanding of socialization. In this context, we propose a new criterion for classification, namely the extent of socialization, which assumes a total socialization of one partial socialization and a zero socialization, void. In regards the overall socialization, this is an ideal and not a reality. However, at least in theory, we could use this terminology as, for example, education sciences use the term " ideal educational " or how physics used the notion of "ideal environment". The concept of "zero socialization" could be the social equivalent of the expression used by Aristotel in his "De anima": a kind of "blank slate" for the socialization.

Keywords: socialization, types, factors, roles, characteristics

Types of socialization and its characteristics

a) fundamental form of socialization is called primary socialization or basic socialization. It is essential for harmonious physical and mental development of the child and is satisfied generally by the family (parents), the first 7-8 years of the child. Primary socialization involves "learning the rules of behavior, norms and values that can be treated at early ages and that is informational and emotional baggage of any person"[1]. Elisabeta Stănciulescu appreciate that with the primary socialization, an individual biological associate in relation to any human communities acquires its first office I first social identity. In this regard, the primary socialization is tantamount to individual humanization.

 In childhood and family the primary socialization is best achieved. This process of transformation of children into true social human beings, by teaching basic values, through training and language. Primary socialization is a process deeply emotional character, unlike the other forms of socialization, secondary and continuous, focused towards emotional neutrality. Socialization primary (or basic) allows the learning rules of of behavior, norms and values that can be assimilated at early ages and which is informational and emotional baggage of any individual[2].

It can be stated that the primary socialization has a strong maternal character associated to some degree with the father's influence. There is a difference between how the mother or father educates a child, which has a beneficial role on the child, giving her valuable and varied experience. After at least eight weeks after birth, the baby distinguishes between mother and father when communicating with them.

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1 Stănoiu, A., Voinea, M., 1983, p. 15.

2 *Schifirneț,Constantin 1999, p.101*

Even biological considerations only is obvious the priority of maternal role. Pregnancy, breastfeeding, infant care are current functions for which the woman acquired a specialization ancestral[1]. It is true that these functions can be fulfilled by other people, but to the detriment of bio-socio-affective development of the child, because they are conditioned by emotional motherhood. Children deprived of affection in this phase of preverbal life remain vulnerable for the whole life.

The first relations that the child has established with the world as a benchmark the mother. The mother is everything for child. Deprived of autonomy, the child needs a constant and total protection of someone else. The emergence of another figure than a mother means the loss of protection for the baby. This protection, always personified or identified to someone is the element that underpins the development of of affects of the child. There is also a significant contribution of mother in setting verbal function and in setting verbal function.of the child. The language develops through imitation. Therefore, the children institutionalized in assistance institutions presents a serious delay in language development and if the contact with the mother restored, then in a few months is observed the reversibility of deficit in language development.

So first of socialization processes prove that the baby is a social being who enter into social relationship with his mother early newborn period. Parent-child interaction is social dialogue initiated by both parents from the age of two months. In the months and years ahead this dialog is customized, reinforced and nuanced.

In a UNICEF study are shown some differences between the mother and father's actions. "Both mothers and fathers interact physically with their children, but fathers differently than mothers doing. Fathers tend to play with children and mothers tend to care. In generally, fathers tickle them children, are "fighting" the "slam" with them and throws up more often. Fathers chasing kids and prefer noisy games. Mothers coddled children and fathers make them move. Fathers overturn the house upside down, and mothers are more delicate, will not make a mess. Fathers encourages competition, mothers encourage equity. Fathers encourage independence while mothers encourage security. Mothers tend toward caution while fathers often encourage children to try, test things. A parent may tend to encourage risk without considering the consequences. The other parent tends to avoid risk, preventing the development of independence and confidence. In generally, fathers help children to prepare for real-world problems, and mothers helps to protect them. When working together, these styles counterbalance and helps children to be safe, and expanding opportunities to gain new experiences and to have faith. None of these styles of education is not adequate, if applied alone. [2]"

"The content of primary socialization - E. Stănciulescu states - is structured around cognitive dimension and the affective dimension.[3]" Cognitive dimension supposes the assimilation of language, the privileged instrument of primary socialization - and near the "basic world" (first way to understand the world around) - the version of the contact group (family group). Because the child has not the slightest possibility to choose their significant other, their identification with the latter is carried out automatically (Berger, Luckmann). Subsequent to this emotional identification we see two important actions: the first is that in this way, the child adopts the image of this "significant other" on the person (perceive an image of himself and becomes the first "social I," the first social identity) . A second major perception of the the world is mediated, filtered by parents, as the only possible world. During primary socialization, in the course of life with different experiences "significant other" social roles and attitudes closely follow a process of progressive abstraction from the context or associated with a specific person, from general and impersonal. So the child reaches a first image formation of "generalized other".

b) secondary socialization refers to the period in which a child begins to interact strongly with other social environments than the family. According to some sociologists, it does not reduce strict in childhood, but it continues throughout the entire life of the individual, with the purposeful creation and strengthening of personality, therefore speak of secondary socialization, subsequent to the primary. In this regard, N. Goodman defines this type of socialization continues, identifying it with "formal education". Maria Voinea (2000) states that secondary socialization is the stage immediately following the primary phase the young (and later the adult) acquires a series of statuses and consequently successive roles, with integration into various group structure and wider institutional. This type of socialization takes place within educational institutions and professional or formal structures of various groups, amid a climate of progressive emotional neutrality, as the person grow and mature. The process of socialization is not achieved at once, but gradually, influenced by factors

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[1] https://autismul.wordpress.com/2008/01/21/atmosfera-familiala-si-rolul-mamei-si-tatalui-in-dezvoltarea-copiilor accesat în 21.03. 2015· 17:23 PM
[2] *Unicef, 2006, p. 1*
[3] Stănciulescu, *E,* 1996, p. 155

whose importance varies from one society to another. The most important on such factors are: family, school, group of friends, work, religion, mass media, etc.

c) continuous socialization is so named by those which separate them by secondary socialization. The secondary socialization is achieved from the age of 6/7 (now under the new Education Law, from 5 years) and adolescents has to continue socializing from adolescence to death. Another argument for delimitation of the socialization continue is shaping the self. If formed in childhood and adolescence and emerging self (ego) and personality of individuals - mainly by absorbing the reactions of others, through the reflection in the mirror Sociale mature personality is strengthened, and the focus is now on the way in which the self is presented other[1].

d) positive socialization (concurring) is the process that leads to a certain kind of conformism of the person in the group to which it belongs and / or the sociaty, ie conformance of the individual to the expectations and requirements of the group or in general of the society. This is called "positive-normal socialization" because it is carried out according to the social-normative model. existing (dominant) in a given society and partly with moral and educational ideal that designs some models (prototypes) social - cultural perspective. It is a direction of socialization that complies with the requirements, values and norms of socially permissible and desirable[2].

e) negative or discordant socialization is opposite process of the positive socialization and, obviously, it does not fall within the provisions of moral or educational ideal. In most cases, negative socialization is achieved in groups of marginal, peripheral conforming peripheral subculture group. This socialization is often, equivalent to antisocial behavior formation or, rather, illegally.

f) adaptive socialization or integrative has the effect of setting those characteristics or personal capabilities that facilitate integration, social participation and achievement within a given institutional framework.

g) anticipatory socialization prepare the individual for future statuses and roles. As before exercising a role, the person goes through a training period, the individual has time to learn the behaviors they assume the new role, rights and duties relevant to it. This form of socialization, analyzed from the perspective role statuses, language was inserted in social theory, by Robert King Merton . He claims that anticipatory socialization is determined by "social conformism to the values of a reference group, different from the group of belonging". Therefore, Melton considers that the dispute between the concepts "passivity" and "activist" on socialization appears to be based on a false problem and, to demonstrate this, the American sociologist has developed anticipatory socialization paradigm. The central concepts of this paradigm are the group of belonging (representing meetings of individuals who meet the following three conditions: 1. The individuals concerned are in continuous interaction. 2. They define themselves as members of the group. 3. Those who do not participate to define its interaction also as a member of the group) and the reference group (which is the 'points compared to that reference a sufficiently large proportion of individuals that belong to a social class, in order to establish the state which characterizes that social category "[3])

h)   formal socialization fully overlaps with education. But the distinction between formal and informal is not just at school. Therefore formal socialization can be made by all institutions, organizations, bodies, groupings officially recognized prescribing precise objectives, rules, duties, privileges and obligations.

i) Informal Socialization is the process of assimilation of attitudes, values, behavior patterns acquired in the personal life. Informal socialization agents are family, friends (entourage), colleagues etc. According to some researchers (Kuh, 1993), informal socialization can and should be performed even by professional corps, outside the classroom. Therefore they need support activities outside the curriculum or, rather, educational activities carried out under informal curriculum[4].

j) associative socialization is carried out, according to Max Weber, by voluntary agreement of the group members[5].

k) institutional socialization is carriedon the contrary by imposing rules and domination.of legitimate power

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[1] Dumitrescu A., 2010, p.10

[2] *Roşca,D., 2009, p. 129*

[3] *R. Merton, 1965, p. 240*

[4] *Karkoulian, Silva, Nasr, Linda, 2008, p.16*

[5] *apud Ferreol, coord., 1998, 206*

l) gender socialization is the process that encourages or discourages certain behaviors and attitudes of a particular kind, which communicate what is right for the moment gender norms, which teaches language that culture is communicated and transmitted permanently[1]. It defines socialization treating culture as an essential part dichotomy female - male, by which an individual learns behaviors specific values considered masculine or feminine specific. Gender socialization occurs both at the direct / explicit and indirect / default. Through complex processes of socialization and self-gender socialization individuals acquire their (learn and interiorizes) gender identity. Vectors of socialization, traditional and new ones, contribute to the preservation and transmission of gender stereotypes. Most theories and gender studies shows that for gender identity formation, the most favorable age was between 2 and 6 years old when the assimilative capacity of children is very high. Through a variety of activities opportunities, encouragement, discouragement, events, suggestions, and various forms of guidance, children experience socialization of gender roles. As children grow and develop, the gender stereotypes which are at home are reinforced by other elements of the environment in which they live and are thus perpetuated throughout childhood and then of adolescence[2]. There are inborn factors that lead boys and girls to choose a toy, factors related to biological differences between the sexes (higher activity level may lead the boys to prefer moving objects and dolls to girls look interesting due to their stronger orientation towards social work or perhaps because motherhood)[3]. At the same time, there are social factors that shape their preferences, and parents have a direct role in strengthening the various preferences of boys and girls for toys. m) professional socialization can be considered a component of professional integration process, that which refers to the knowledge and understanding of the nature of interpersonal relationships and the creation and strengthening of personal relationships with team members, colleagues, or bosses or subordinates either. The desire of belonging to the reference group effort involving the acquisition of norms and values, behavioral patterns referential of group members. This import is considered as the first step towards professional socialization.

n) conjugal socialization is the component of socialization that is acknowledged, delimited and practiced a particular family status: the status of wife, husband status, status of son, grandfather status etc.

a) repressive socialization It is carried out by the constraints. Socialization highlights the submission, respect for authority and external controls. Socializing calls repressive supervision, but supervision of detail that tends to be heavily modified in practice.

p) participatory socialization is geared toward gaining individual participation. A comparative analysis of socialization repressive and participatory show clear differences:[4]

Repressive socialization	Participatory socialization
Sanctioning wrong behavior	Rewarding for good behavior
Rewards and financial penalties	Rewards and symbolic sanctions
Child obedience	Child autonomy
Nonverbal communication	Verbal communication
Communication command	Communication as interaction
Socialization centered on parent	Socializare centrată pe copil
Understanding the parent wishes	Understanding the child wishes
The family as a „significant other"	Family as „generalized other"

q) spontaneous socialization is done by spontaneous transmission of norms and values without using qualified personnel. It may accompany socialization planned. For example, the school is performed both forms of socializing. The student

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[1] *Grunberg, L., 2002, p.201*

[2] *MARTIN Carol Lynn, WOOD Carolyn, LITTLE Jane K, 1990*

[3] *ELIOT Lise, 2011., p.175*

[4] *Stănoiu A.,* 2006, p. 78

acquires social experience both within lessons for purposes of the teacher and through experience (lived or observed) social interaction of teachers with students, teachers among them.[1]

r) In connection with socialization are the processes of re-socialization and desocialising.

Desocialising involves exit from a certain status and role and consequently waiving the rules and behaviors attached to that status and role. It involves physical and social isolation. Separation of contexts or persons who have satisfied the needs for interaction and supported them statuses adopted to eliminate patterns of behavior and interaction previously learned. This can be seen especially with individuals members of the so-called total institutions such as the army, monastery, prison, etc.

Resocialisation is, in the opinion of I. Mihailescu (2000), in a process of learning new roles, while abandoning previous roles. We also meet situations where some people go through a process of radical resocialization, positive or negative. We use in this regard, the term "socialization" to designate the process of converting from persons who have committed antisocial actions (Maria Voinea, 2000). The aims resocialization certain drawbacks or limitations correcting basic socialization. The aim is learn new roles offered by the society (as if professionalization, the professional reconversion) or rehabilitation of those who have committed deviant or delinquent roles and norms of life accepted by society. Resocialisation is concomitant with the desocialising and consists in the orientation of learning and social contol the uptake and expression of individual behaviors consistent with the board of values and attitudes of the new integrator system. It must be said that the effectiveness of resocialization depends not only on individual responsiveness but also the intensity of social control exercised by the new agent of socialization and the degree of removal of previous gratified factors (Zamfir and L. Vlăsceanu, 1993).

In fact, the two processes de-socialization and re-socialization are not only concurrently, but interdependent.

Finally, studying the taxonomy of socialization, we could propose a new classification criteria: extent of socialization. It assumes a total socialization, a partial socialization one and onenull, „zero".

But it is obvious that we can not affirm the existence of a total socialization, this is a side ideal and not a reality. But, at least in theory, we could use this as a way of reporting terminology and understanding of specific phenomena as, for example, education sciences use the term "educational ideal" or how physics used the notion of "ideal environment".

The concept of "zero socialization" could be social equivalent of the expression used by Aristotle in his "De anima": a kind of "blank slate" for the socialization.

Conclusion

Study of of socialization types should not be unilateral. For example, a child may be the subject of primary socialization, but this can be restrictive and, at the same time, gender socialization. In turn, the primary socialization may be partly spontaneous and partly planned. So one aspect of knowledge beneficial to all types of social events is their simultaneity.

Another point is their interdependence. An effective professional socialization can only be achieved through formal socialization. Current trends in education show that this can not be achieved through restrictive social and especially by the participation. In the same way, we can study the failure of socialization not only sided view, but on types of socialization interdependence.

At the same time, it can not make a holistic approach to socialization, even if the intention is entire spectrum typology. In practice it is important to prove that specialization, in-depth study of each "slice" of socialization. When certain aspects of socialization are deficient, it's good to be studied in specific details, but that is integrated into all elements of socialization.

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[1] *Zolotariov E., Mihailov M., 2007. p.6*

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Digital Shadow Economy: a Critical Review of the Literature

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Abstract

One of the biggest problems of the last decade is hardly defined economic activities, objects and subjects in cyber space. Through cyberspaces, such as social networking platforms, e-commerce, e-business systems or cyber computer games, real money circulates but in most cases these transactions are not accounted and do not generate the taxes to the state budget. For this reason, a deeper insight in the phenomenon of digital shadow economy is purposeful. The performed analysis of various scientific sources leads to the conclusion that the previous research on the topic of digital shadow economy is mostly limited with the studies in cybercriminal activities, e-fraud and the motives of the consumers to get involved in digital piracy. However, the complex scientific research in the field of digital shadow economy has not been performed, which determined the aim of this research – to systematize the scientific literature on digital shadow economy and perform the critical analysis of the researched phenomenon. The methods used in the research include systematic and comparative analysis of the scientific literature. The research has enabled to specify the concept of digital shadow economy, identify its forms and activity channels in digital black markets and define the differences between traditional and digital shadow economy.

Keywords: digital shadow economy, critical review of digital shadow economy, shadow economy.

Introduction

Although advances in information technologies and internet have expanded the ways of conducting business, they have also provided an environment for a wide range of illegal activities. With reference to Amasiatu and Shah (2014), "with online business transactions hugely reliant on trust and identity validation/authentication, there are so many avenues for dishonest financial gains" (p. 805), or for digital shadow economy. One of the biggest problems of the last decade is hardly defined scope of economic activities, objects and subjects in cyber space. Through cyberspaces, such as social networking platforms, e-commerce, e-business systems or cyber computer games, real money circulates but in most cases these transactions are not accounted and do not generate the taxes to the state budget. Although the value of the digital shadow economy as a whole is not yet known, one recent estimate of global corporate losses stands at around €750 billion per year (Europol, 2011). For this reason, many countries are rising a topical issue on how the volumes of digital shadow economies could be reduced without violating the privacy and mobility of both individuals and businesses, and at the same time the revenue earned by the subjects in digital space as well as the changes of their assets could be estimated in their real value.

The previous research on the topic of digital shadow economy is mostly limited with the studies in cybercriminal activities, such as breaking into online banking systems or decryption of PIN codes (Yip, et al., 2012; Holz, et al., 2012), forms of e-fraud (Thomas & Martin, 2006; Yip et al., 2012; Mello, 2013; Vlachos, Minou, Assimakopouos, & Toska, 2011; Amasiatu & Shah, 2014; Zorz, 2015 and others) and the motives of the consumers to get involved in digital piracy (Williams, Nicholas, & Rowlands, 2010; Sirkeci & Magnusdottir, 2011; Camarero, Anton, & Rodriguez, 2014; Amasiatu & Shah, 2014; Vida, Koklic, Kukar-Kinney, & Penz, 2012; Taylor, 2012; Arli, Tjiptono, & Porto, 2015; Yu, Young, & Ju, 2015 and others). However, the scientific literature still lacks of the complex studies in the field of digital shadow economy, which determined

the aim of this research – to systematize the scientific literature on digital shadow economy and perform the critical analysis of the researched phenomenon. The defined aim has been detailed into the following **objectives**: 1) to review the concepts and interpretations of digital shadow economy; 2) to analyse the forms of digital shadow economy in digital black markets; 3) to perform the comparative analysis of traditional and digital shadow economy. The **methods** used in the research include systematic and comparative analysis of the scientific literature.

1. The concepts and interpretations of digital shadow economy

According to Holz et al. (2012), growing scopes of digital economy have stimulated criminal activities in digital business, which, in turn, have led to a digital shadow economy. Due to the volatility and fast advance of technologies, tracking and understanding this kind of economy is extremely difficult. For this reason, different interpretations of digital shadow economy can be found in the scientific literature, depending on the aim, object and nature of the particular study.

Minding its offensive nature, the concept digital shadow economy is equalized with the concept of "digital underground economy", which is described as offences committed exploiting networked technology to carry out incredibly complex and far-reaching tasks that can be repeated countless times globally (Yip et al., 2012). With reference to Moore, Clayton and Anderson (2009), digital underground economy is the online trading, performed in the blatant manner with no need to hide. Herley and Florencio (2010) interpret digital underground economy as Internet-based crime, which is profit-driven, and the nature of this activity exceeds the capacity of a closed group.

Considering criminal activities as the main feature of digital underground economy, it can be proposed that the concept of digital underground economy is closely related to the concept of cybercrime. Cybercrime is interpreted as a robust underground economy that is industrialized by making and delivering the tools for criminal behaviour (Mello, 2013) or technological advanced criminal activities, including the utilization of botnets, targeted attacks or custom malware, that cause serious threats for consumers, organizations and enterprises as well as for the public sector (Vlachos et al., 2011). According to Smith (2015), "cybercrimes are Internet-based crimes conducted remotely to illegally take wealth or resources from others. Stolen resources can include Internet access, computer hard drive space, financial resources, intellectual capital and other data or bandwidth. Illegality is defined by the governmental jurisdiction in which the crime is conducted, not from where the attack was launched" (p. 104).

The above presented definitions of cybercrime are basically linked with the activities of illegal service providers or sellers, which is logical since namely these subjects generate the illegal money flows in digital shadow economy. However, the concept of digital shadow economy should not be restricted only with generation of illegal money flows. Customers' illegal activities in e-space (i.e. getting particular products or services online without paying for them or paying only a part of the decent amount) should also be treated as a part of digital shadow economy since they deprive a legal seller or service provider from the revenues that could have been legally earned, accounted and declared. In the scientific literature, customers' illegal activities in e-space are usually linked with the term of e-fraud. E-fraud is understood as consumption of illegal copies of digital products services (Ho & Weinberg, 2011; Taylor, 2012; Arli et al., 2015), the breach of the contract established online (Hjort & Lantz, 2012) or the breach of the trust between the contract parties (Amasiatu & Shah, 2014). With reference to Amasiatu and Shah (2014), the trust is breached when one party reneges on the contract agreement. In first party fraud, the customer is the party who has acted dishonestly by violating the contract terms, in order to profit from his dishonesty. These acts of dishonesty by the customer are called first party frauds (Amasiatu & Shah, 2014).

Summarising, it can be stated that the concept of digital shadow economy is linked with illegal activities in cyberspace that enable to generate illegal money flows for illegal service providers or sellers (supplier's view) and deprive legal service providers and sellers from the revenues which could have been legally earned, accounted and declared (customer's view). Treating digital shadow economy as a system, it is considered to be a merger of digital and classical crime (Holz et al., 2012).

2. The forms of digital shadow economy in digital black markets

Thomas and Martin (2006) gave the insight into digital shadow economy, analysing such form of its evidence as trading stolen credit card credentials over open Internet Relay Chat (IRC) channels. This form of digital shadow economy was later acknowledged by other authors (Herley & Florencio, 2010; Yip et al., 2012).

In the last few years, the interest in the forms of digital shadow economy has even increased, and a wider variety of the forms of digital shadow economy has become an object of the scientific research. Mello (2013) introduces the five following forms of cybercrime:

- Data breaches – stolen identities that drive industrial fraud complex through social networks such as Twitter, LinkedIn and LivingSocial's and others.

- Malware – fraud apps, typically used to impersonate a victim or gain access to their credentials. In many cases, malware is designed to avoid detection by both human users and the anti-virus scans that may be running on a device.

- Mobile threats – malware by mobile and smart phones.

- Industrialisation – since online and mobile interactions are 'machine-to-machine', i.e. user's device is interacting with a business's server, cyber interactions lend themselves to automation. Once a fraudster secures the credentials required to access a victim's accounts, a process, in which multiple accounts are accessed automatically, can be started.

- Distributed Denial of Service Attacks – disruptions of the operations of a website, usually leading to an increased call centre activity, which drives up an organization's costs and undermines customers' trust in it.

Analysing the landscape of cybercrime in Greece, Vlachos et al. (2011) introduced such cybercrime forms as financial frauds (frauds that have financial incentives, from simplistic phishing attacks to pump "n" dump and money mule schemes), children issues (any case of children abuse, including children pornography or paedophilia), spams (unsolicited bulk e-mail that affects the performance of internet users and is related to fraudulent merchandise), breaches of privacy and personal data (all the incidents that are related to privacy issues and personal data, which were intercepted or obtained by electronic devices), technological advanced activities (including utilization of botnets, targeted attacks or custom malware), online games (serving for the stealing of accounts, illegal transfers of virtual money and virtual goods) and technical issues (deliberately caused technical problems related directly to computer or system security).

Yip et al. (2012) analysed online social networks, better known as carding forums (Holt & Lampke, 2010; Poulsen, 2011). According to the authors (Yip et al., 2012), online social networks previously were used as online black markets for trading of stolen data. However, their present activities cover sharing techniques, values of crime, trading of goods and services, forming of collaborations (Thomas & Martin, 2006; Holt & Lampke, 2010; Yip et el., 2012) and carding (money mule, bank data stealing, ID thefts, virtual currency exchanges, encoding of systems, etc.) (Holt & Lampke, 2010).

Researching digital underground economy that trades stolen digital credentials, Holz et al. (2012) investigated keylogger-based stealing of credentials via dropzones (publicly writable directories on a server in the Internet) as well as anonymous collection points of illicitly collected data. With reference to the authors, keylogger-based stealing is a newly emerging form of digital underground economy. The results of their research revealed that this technique is basically applied targeting the main online banking websites as well as extracting the information from the protected storage.

The above described forms of digital shadow economy emerge as supplier-initiated since their main aim is generation of illegal money flows to the supplier. However, since the researched phenomenon is also linked with consumers' activities that deprive legal service providers and sellers from the revenue that could have been legally earned, accounted and declared, it is purposeful to review the consumer-initiated forms of digital shadow economy.

Digital piracy is one of the most common forms of e-fraud, researched in the scientific literature. With reference to Ho and Weinberg (2011), digital piracy is a type of product piracy, emerging as the acts of producing, acquiring and/or consuming illegal copies of any authentic product. In more detail, it is buying, copying, downloading, and/or sharing illegal CDs and software (Arli et al., 2015), perplexing the service marketers, who produce easily-replicable digital products such as music (International Federation of the Phonographic Industry, 2009), movies (Castro, Bennett, & Andes, 2009), software (Business Software Alliance, 2009), etc. Thus, in the general cases of digital piracy, there remains a central premise that individuals, engaged in product piracy, benefit at the expense of the rightful owners of the authentic products/brands (Ho & Weinberg, 2011).

Amasiatu and Shah (2014) in their study focused on the forms of fraudulent consumer behaviour in e-tailing. The results of their research have enabled to identify the following forms of consumer e-fraud:

1. Deshopping – purchasing of a product online and using it with the intention to return after use for reimbursement.

2. Chargeback – making a fraudulent or illegitimate claim for financial gain.

3. Bust out – acquisition of credit facilities with no intention of honouring the credit agreement.

4. Misrepresentation of details – applicants' misrepresentation of their details to get access to facilities that they would not otherwise be entitled to, e.g. credit facilities.

The analysis of the scientific literature has revealed that deshopping is the prevalent form of consumer e-fraud (Hjort & Lantz, 2012; Amasiatu & Shah, 2014) and is frequently considered as a consequence of liberal return policies offered by e-retailers. Hjort and Lantz (2012) also noted that deshopping is reinforced by the offer of free returns; it is also initiated due to mitigation of consumer's total expenditure and delivery costs.

The common methods of chargeback, pointed in the scientific literature, include alleging that a customer has not received the ordered commodities, although he in fact has, or claiming that not all ordered commodities were received, although they in fact were (Greek, 2010; Amasiatu & Shah, 2014). With reference to the report of Cybersource Corporation (2012), chargeback fraud can arise when a customer makes a purchase with his/her card and subsequently denies making this purchase. According to Amasiatu and Shah (2014), "chargeback frauds are opportunistic in nature and originated because of certain legal obligations (such as long distance regulation) designed to protect legitimate customers when they shop online; such as offering customers protection from payment card fraud and placing responsibility of any loss that occurs prior to delivery to the customer on the online merchant" (p. 811).

With reference to Fair Isaak Corporation (2008), bust out frauds commonly take place in financial institutions because of the availability of credit facilities. Amasiatu and Shah (2014) also note that extreme cases of bust out include the customers masking their intentions or hidden agenda by "lying low" for some period, which might later result in getting access to increased credit facilities that are rapidly utilized before evading the payment and disappearing.

With reference to CIFAS (2012), misrepresentation of details is prevalent in the mail order industry, where individuals hide their addresses with adverse credit information. They also emerge in insurance industry where customers inflate insurance claims as well as in the welfare/benefit system where benefit claimants misreport their earnings to benefit from the system (Amasiatu & Shah, 2014).

The performed analysis of the scientific literature has enabled to systematize the forms of digital shadow economy. The data presented in Figure 1 shows that digital shadow economy might emerge as supplier-initiated or customer-initiated. The most common supplier-initiated forms of digital shadow economy include financial frauds, children issues, spams, data and privacy breaches, online games, technological advanced activities, technical issues and carding. These forms are usually engaged for stealing of credentials, money mule, virtual currency exchanges, illegal transfers of virtual money, encoding of systems, malware and fraudulent merchandise. Consumer-initiated forms of digital shadow economy include digital piracy, deshopping, chargeback, bust out and misinterpretation of details. They are engaged for mitigation of consumer's total expenditure and delivery costs, getting access to increased credit facilities, inflation of insurance claims and claiming for welfare benefits.

With reference to Zorz (2015), different forms of digital underground economy emerge in different types of digital black markets, depending on the type of targeted products or services. Considering the object of activities (i.e. whether it is a non-digital product or service or a digital one), the author distinguishes two basic types of digital black markets: physical black market (online trading of illegal physical products such as guns, drugs or other non-digital services) and fraudulent data market (digital activities such as encoding, data breaches and similar system interferences). According to the author, the first market functions via Internet platforms (for example, TOR network), which allow anonymous clients and hosters to hide their locations, ensuring that their activities and identities cannot be tracked. The second market functions via traditional HTTP-based sites, accessible from any computer with a common web browser, and these sites are designed for dealing with stolen target data (for instance, credit card information, usernames and passwords, credential data are considered to be the most prevalent types of digital data offered for sale). Digital shadow activities are basically performed via such channels as IRC, carding forums, social networks and dropzones.

3. Comparative analysis of traditional and digital shadow economy

Although considering its complex structure, digital shadow economy can be viewed as a merger of digital and classical crime (Holz et al., 2012), particular differences between the aims, communications, features of the people involved, sources of the people's knowledge, psychology and the ways of operation in traditional and digital shadow economy can be observed. Systematization of the scientific literature has enabled to perform a comparative analysis of traditional and digital shadow economy. The results of the comparative analysis have been reflected in Table 1. By reviewing the table, it can be seen that the nature of both traditional and shadow economy is the same – illegal and criminal, but the aims of the latter are wider – they include not only pure profit, but also access to particular resources (e.g. particular databases, accounts, systems, etc.). The participants in both cases are driven by such similar determinants such as unfavourable labour market conditions, high taxation or complicated overall regulation. However, social security burdens are more typical of traditional shadow economy whereas digital shadow economy is to the great extent determined by specific cyberspace determinants such as contrast between personal and corporate, anonymity, lack of ethics in software and IT business, inclusion that online act is victimless, doubtful copyrights, low level of perceived risk, etc. The basic method of finance in traditional shadow economy is cash whereas digital shadow economy is funded engaging Web money, electronic money, online payment systems and well-hidden financial transactions, which are often processed by legitimate merchant accounts or payments from credit card companies. Traditional shadow economy functions leaning on such marketing methods as words of mouth and underground distribution channels whereas in the case of digital shadow economy products and services are positioned online, in particular cases even engaging customer support centres. With reference to "Trend Micro" report (2010), there is evidence that some pay-per-install businesses have established customer support centres to help their customers, who call to these centres for help thinking they have paid for a legitimate software. Interestingly, the security level of digital shadow economy is much higher than that of traditional one. It is linked with high technical skills of the people, who are commonly involved in digital shadow economy, although these participants are usually self-taught. According to Smith (2015), cybercriminals are able not only to use attack programs that are freely available on the Internet, but also they may develop new attack software by writing malware programs themselves. To make their targeted attacks over the Internet, they need to have an understanding of computer operating systems and the software packages being used on those systems. In addition, they must know how to gain unauthorized access by exploiting computer networks, which requires high technical skills. Digital shadow economy not only covers much wider (international) geographic area in comparison to traditional local shadow economy, but also is based on social psychology alongside with individual one. With reference to Li (2011), participants interact with each other in an online community. Hence, their behaviour is influenced not only by their personal motivations (e.g. aim for benefit, cost mitigation), but also by the influence of the other members of the community (e.g. their advice, responses, pressure, etc.). Finally, comparing the way of operation in both economies, it has been established that the participants of digital shadow economy are more inclined to collaboration and networking than the ones acting in traditional shadow economy. With reference to Yip et al. (2012), it is usual for cybercriminals to begin collaborating with one another while trading goods and services that contribute to the crime; some of the cybercriminals even venture as far as recruiting talents from universities.

Summarising, the results of the comparative analysis propose that digital shadow economy is of the same illegal nature and involves the same participants as traditional shadow economy. However, other significant characteristics are rather different. Contrary to the traditional shadow economy, digital shadow economy it is aimed not only at profits, but also at the access to valuable digital, financial resources and/or databases. It is highly determined by specific cyberspace determinants such as contrast between personal and corporate, anonymity, lack of ethics in software and IT business, inclusion that online act is victimless, doubtful copyrights, low level of perceived risk, etc. Funded with Web money, electronic money, online payment systems and well-hidden financial transactions, digital shadow economy leans on positioning of products and services online (in particular cases – with established customer support centres), online communication between the parties of transactions, social psychology and networking, which enables to cover international operation areas. High technical skills of the people involved allow to achieve a comparatively high operation security level in comparison to traditional shadow economy.

Conclusions and discussion

With reference to the research results, the following conclusions can be made:

1. The analysis of the concepts and interpretations of digital shadow economy has revealed that the term of digital shadow economy is linked with illegal activities in cyberspace that enable to generate illegal money flows for illegal service providers or sellers (supplier's view) and deprive legal service providers and sellers from the revenues which could have been legally earned, accounted and declared (customer's view).

2. Depending on the initiating subject, digital shadow economy might emerge as supplier-initiated or customer-initiated. The most common supplier-initiated forms of the analysed phenomenon include financial frauds, children issues, spams, data and privacy breaches, online games, technological advanced activities, technical issues and carding, which are commonly engaged for stealing of credentials, money mule, virtual currency exchanges, illegal transfers of virtual money, encoding of systems, malware and fraudulent merchandise. Consumer-initiated forms of digital shadow economy include digital piracy, deshopping, chargeback, bust out and misinterpretation of details, which are engaged for mitigation of consumer's total expenditure and delivery costs, getting access to increased credit facilities, inflation of insurance claims and claiming for welfare benefits. Depending on the object of activities/trade, two basic types of digital black market – physical black market and fraudulent data market – can be distinguished; shadow activities in these markets are basically performed via such channels as IRC, carding forums, social networks and dropzones.

3. The results of the comparative analysis of traditional and digital shadow economy have shown that digital shadow economy is of the same illegal nature and involves the same participants as traditional shadow economy. Digital shadow economy is the part of shadow economy. However, contrary to the traditional shadow economy, digital shadow economy it is aimed not only at profits, but also at the access to valuable digital, financial resources and/or databases. It is highly determined by specific cyberspace determinants such as contrast between personal and corporate, anonymity, lack of ethics in software and IT business, inclusion that online act is victimless, doubtful copyrights, low level of perceived risk, etc. Funded with Web money and electronic money, digital shadow economy leans on positioning of products and services online, online communication between the parties of transactions as well as social psychology and networking, which enables to cover international operation areas. High technical skills of the people involved in digital shadow operations allow to achieve a comparatively high operation security level in comparison to traditional shadow economy. Undoubtedly, it is a wrong way of thinking that in traditional shadow economy payments are made only in cash since in recent decade the substantial number of operations have been transferred to electronic space. What is more, shadow economy should be distinguished from criminal activities.

The analysis of the variety of information sources on the researched object proposes that the scientific literature still lacks of comprehensive and complex studies on digital shadow economy. The spread of the access to IT and e-services all over the world determines the favourable conditions for the diffusion of digital shadow economy. Thus, the future research on digital shadow economy could be aimed at identification of the features, determinants and operation models of this phenomenon as well as possible prevention strategies and measures.

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Table 1

Comparative analysis of traditional and digital shadow economy

Characteristic	Traditional shadow economy	Digital shadow economy
Nature	Illegal, criminal	Illegal, criminal
Aim	Profit	Profit and resources
Determinants	Labour market conditions (high unemployment rate, not promoted self-employment), taxation and social security burdens (high taxes, low after-tax earnings), overall regulation (administrative system, regulation complexity, difficult business registration procedures, etc.)	Taxation (high taxes, low after-tax earnings), overall regulation (administrative system, regulation complexity, difficult business registration procedures, etc.), cyberspace-related determinants (contrast between personal and corporate, anonymity, lack of ethics in software and IT business, inclusion that online act is victimless, doubtful copyrights, low level of perceived risk, etc.)
Participants	Service providers, product suppliers, customers	Service providers, product suppliers, customers
Finance	Cash, web money, electronic money, online payment systems	Web money, electronic money, online payment systems, well-hidden financial transactions are processed by legitimate merchant accounts
Marketing	Word of mouth, underground distribution channels, services online	Positioning of products and services online
Customer service	No customer service, usually relationship between a buyer and a seller break after the transaction, but not in all cases	In particular cases – established customer support centers
Communication	Face-to-face, Online	Online
Security	Comparatively high	Comparatively high
Geographical area	Local and international	International
Features of the people involved	Skills in an operation area, the level of technical skills is significant	Wide range of skills, high technical skills
Source of knowledge	Apprenticed, but also could be self-taught	Self-taught and apprenticed
Psychology	Individual and social (tax moral)	Individual and social
Way of operation	Single activity, collaboration, networking	Collaboration, networking

Source: compiled by the authors with reference to Trend Micro, 2010; Yip et al., 2012; Ojo, Nwankwo, & Gbadamosi, 2013; Smith, 2015; Williams & Nadin, 2012; Schneider, Buehn, & Montenegro, 2010; Lisi & Pugno, 2010; Williams et al., 2010; Calluzzo & Cante, 2004; Wall, 2005; Shang, Chen, & Chen, 2008; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2008.
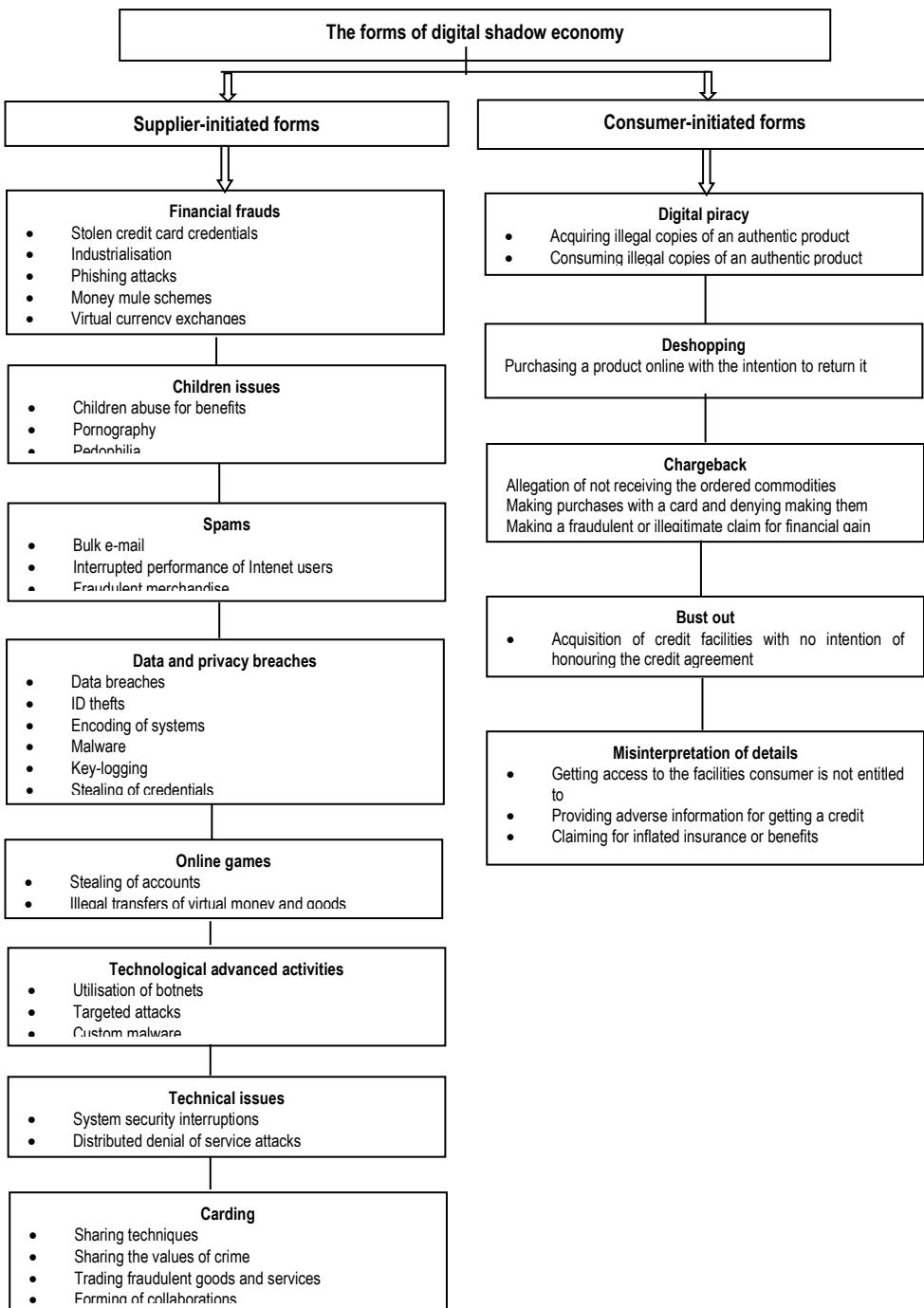
Fig. 1. Classification of the forms of digital shadow economy (compiled by the authors).

Competitive Analysis of the Hotel Industry in Konya by Using Porter's Five Forces Model

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Abstract

One of the areas of industry in Konya which needs to be analyzed regarding effective factors on competition is hotel industry. Accordingly, the current research tries to analyze factors impacting on the industry using Porter's five forces model. According to this model, an industry is affected by five competitive forces and these forces determine the state of competitiveness and profitability of an industry. Porter's model is based on the insight that a corporate strategy should meet the opportunities and threats in the organizations external environment. Especially, competitive strategy should base on and understanding of industry structures and the way they change. Porter has identified five competitive forces that shape every industry and every market: entry of new investors, threat of substitutes, bargaining power of buyers, bargaining power of suppliers, and rivalry among existing competitors.Porter's model supports analysis of the driving forces in an industry. Based on the information derived from the Five Forces Analysis, management can decide how to influence or to exploit particular characteristics of their industry.This study aims to analyze the competitiveness at Konya Hotel Industry by using Porter's Five Forces Model. In this study, questionnaires have been used for data collection. The statistical population of the research consists of managers of hotel business (Senior, middle, executives).

Keywords: *Porter's Five Forces, Threat of Entry, Power of Suppliers, Power of Buyers, Threat of Substitutes, Rivalry Among Existing Competitors.*

1. Introduction

It is claimed in the Industrial Organization Theory that businesses can gain competitive advantage when they apply the strategies required by the external factors. In other words, the competitive forces in a particular industry determine the strategies that provide competitive advantage for the businesses in that particular industry (Porter, 1980; Porter, 1985). Therefore it is really important to analyze the competition conditions of the industries that businesses are and/or planning to be engaging in activities in, pick strategies accordingly to the results of the analysis, maintain the existing market share of the business and increase it further. Five Forces Model by Michael Porter is deemed as one of the important models that explain competitive forces in an industry. Porter (1979) asserts that the competition environment and the forces that affect businesses in an industry determine the profitability of businesses in that industry, and that all industries have an unique underlying structure that generates competitive forces (pp. 137-145). Hence it is necessary that the environment and five forces that affect competition are analyzed for a business to situate itself in the best position available in its current industry.

Porter has brought an important initiative to the field of competition analysis with the 'five forces model' he has developed on industrial construction that he claims has influence on the selection of location and the specifying of strategies to be followed. Industrial analysis is seen as a precondition for a business to situate itself safely and for it to set the course of its strategies by Porter (Karacaoğlu, 2006, pp. 29-30). In other words, by mentioning the collective power of the five forces, Porter indicates that businesses could thrive with correct positioning in the environment structured by these forces. The foreseen purpose in the model is the ability to subsist despite competitive forces and to use these forces in their favorwith correct positioning.

This paper intends to analyze the competitive level of hotel industry in Konya within the scope of 'Five Forces Model' and explain the forces that determine the competitive level in the hotel industry. The level, structure, causes and consequences of competition that hotel businesses are/may be facing will be presented more clearly with the conduction of this analysis. Moreover, the empirical data generated by the end of the research can be used as guidance for business strategies to be developed and picked.

2. Porter's Five Forces Model and Hotel Industry

According to Porter (2008), mindfulness of the five competitive forces could assist a business to understand the industry and position itself in a much more profitable place that is safer from attacks (p. 2). In this regard, Porter's five forces approach aims to reveal the bargaining powers of the suppliers and customers, competition between current businesses, threats of replacement products and possible new entries into the industry. When all the opportunities and threats created by each industrial force becomes clear, it will be possible for hotel managers to generate and conduct offensive and defensive strategies to position their businesses appropriately (Tavitiyaman, Qu& Zhang, 2011, p. 648).

The first of the factors that are important for gaining competitive advantage is *the entry of new businesses to the industry and the threats posed by them*;

New market entries signal the possible entry of new competitors in the industry. As these threaten the market share of the present businesses in the industry and increase the main generating capacity, creating excess supply, they might lead to remarkable reductions of the prices and consequently a decrease in the incomes of competitive businesses. The threat generated by new entries into the industry depends on the reaction the new business may face from its present competitors and present entry obstacles. Porter has listed these obstacles as (1) scale economies, (2) product differentiation, (3) capital needs, (4) access to chains of distribution, (5) cost disadvantages independent of scale, (6) present brand loyalty and (7) government policies (Porter, 2008, pp. 3-5).

Since the buildings and joining the supply chain requires vast amounts of investment and these investments can't be returned in short times, it can be said that the hotel industry features high levels of entry obstacles. Along with this, chain hotel managements act aggressively in order to increase brand recognition. This might result in creating effects of brand recognition and addiction and become an obstacle for entry. On the other hand, from economical to luxurious, attempts at differentiating the factors such as service pricing, decoration, architecture, site, management and employees in hotel industry can be observed. The increasing numbers of hotels limit the available sites appropriate for the target market. Government policies might be facilitative in sites considered for hotel construction, or they might make it more difficult (Cheng, 2013, pp. 52-57; Rutila and Tuominen, 2014, p.19).

Consequently, the hotel industry features high levels of entry obstacles for newcomers due to a combination of different factors such as scale economies, vast requirements of capital for investment, supply and appropriate sites, experience.

Another threat in Porter's five forces model is *threat of substitutes*.

Substitute products are products and services produced in other industries that can substitute for businesses' products, even though they may not be identical or similar (Ülgen, Mirze, 2004, p. 97). Substitute products and services fulfill similar customer needs in different ways. These products are especially threatening in cases of (1) price dominance of replacement products, (2) conversion cost and customers' tendencies towards replacement products (Porter, 2008, p.8).

There are no specific substitute product threats towards business' product and services in hotel industry. However, switching domestic travels to international ones or changing some destinations forones with more relevant costs or such might be problems businesses face. Among the same group of tourists, tendencies towards choosing cheaper accommodation like motels, hostels, guesthouses; preferring alternative options for food and beverages might emerge (Cheng, 2013, pp. 52-53).

Another threat generated by the industry is *the bargaining power of suppliers*

Suppliers with high bargaining powers can mostly put their wishes across in their relations with businesses, therefore businesses may not have the flexibility to pick and conduct strategic decisions and actions. Powerful suppliers might threaten the productivity of businesses in an industry by either raising the prices or lowering the quality of the products. The profit made in an industry is transferred to the suppliers by either of these means. (1) Input diversification, (2) Cost of switching suppliers, (3) supplier sales volume, (4) innovative integration are fundamental determining elements to suppliers' powers (Porter, 2008, pp. 6-7).

When the bargaining power is seen from the perspective of the hotel industry, the hotels need the furthered global information and reservation services. Moreover, hotels engage in business with various suppliers from the execution of the

project to the service provided for the guests, like furniture, construction, textile, food and beverages, entertainment. However, unlike other industries, hotels are not confronted with the bargaining power of suppliers intensely. Having said this, as hotel managements need to gain cost advantage against their competitors at all times, they should cooperate with suppliers that contribute to gaining cost advantage, along with the creation of products and services that diversify in their own strategic groups (Cheng, 2013, p.54).

Another one of the important factors that shape the competitive structure of the industry is *the bargaining power of buyers*.

Buyers that demand the goods and services produced in the industry are what is meant by customers here. Their bargaining power is that of lowering the prices, or of demanding higher quality or more service. (1) The customers' knowledge, (2) the customers' ability to perform backward integration, (3) the cost of switching suppliers to the customer and (4) the concentration of the customer in the total endorsement are the fundamental determining factors to customers' bargaining power. Customers are the foremost force that directs change in accommodation industry (Tavitiyaman, et al, 2011, p. 648; Porter, 2008, p. 7; Ulgen et al, 2004, pp. 99-100). Studies conducted in the field show that customers will increasingly purchase more, demand lower prices and acquire larger bargaining power (Taylor, Finley, 2009, pp. 82-95).

When the element of customers' bargaining power is looked at through the lens of hotel businesses, it is not likely for most customers to buy a hotel or construct a new one, as the required investment is high. Even many international hotel chain companies are the operators or managers of many hotels in their chains instead of owning them. Therefore backward integration as customers' bargaining power is not likely to happen. The limited nature of hotel customers globally (one customer not purchasing many rooms) gives advantage to hotels in regards to customers' bargaining power. Nonetheless, corporate guests demanding special prices for large-scale bookings is inevitable. For example, like tour operators providing service with low profit margins because of the competition, corporate guests would have a higher price sensitivity which means they hold a bargaining power risk (Cheng, 2013, p.54)

Another element of Porter's five forces model that affect the competition and managerial performance is *rivalry among existing competitors.*

Rivalry between the existing competitors is the result of various structural elements. Many or equally strong competitors, slow expansion of the industry, high fixed costs, insufficient differentiation, surplus capacity, obstacles for exiting, etc. elements increase the volume of the competition between businesses (Porter, 2008, p.9).

In the hotel industry, the entry of alternative services such as the construction of new hotels in increasing numbers, time sharing system, renting housing, increases the competition. Competition in the hotel industry is determined mostly by price, similarity of segments and location (Tavitiyaman et al, 2011, p. 649). When considered all together, competition tends to be intense in the hotel industry. Besides, there are barriers to exit from the hotel sector originating from various strategic and economic factors in big cities. As there are not sufficient locations for hotels or the markets are shared, hotel businesses in the industry tend to be located closely to each other. Moreover, even though it can be claimed that goods and services differ from economical hotels to the luxurious ones, it can be hard convincing people that they really do (Rutila, 2014, p. 19).

3. Research

3.1. Research Purpose

The purpose of this research is to examine the factors which affect the competition level of Hotel Industryin Konya (with regards to the factors partaking in Porter's five competitive forces model), to determine their levels and to analyze whether they vary in terms of certain demographic and operating characteristics.

3.2. Parameters and Hypothesis of the Research

According to Porter, five forces which determine the competition level are *Entry of New Investors, Threat of Substitutes, Bargaining Power of Buyers, Bargaining Power of Suppliers and Rivalry Among Existing Competitors*. Therefore, the competition level in this study was evaluated with regards to these five parameters.

The basic hypothesis to be tested for this study is as follows;

H.1: *Competition level perception of Participants differs significantly in accordance with hotel classification.*

H.2: *Competition level perception of Participants differs significantly in accordance with hotel size.*

H.3: *Competition level perception of Participants differs significantly in accordance with their experience in the sector.*

3.3. Method of the Research

A questionnaire had been made with senior managers and department managers of 24 hotels in Konya, which held Tourism Licenses. There are 3 five-star hotels, 7 four-star hotels and 14 three-star hotels in Konya. Minimum two managers from each hotel were interviewed and the questionnaire forms were handed.

The questionnaire consists of two main parts as questions with regards to Porter's Five Competitive Forces and demographic questions. The scales, which have been developed and used earlier for studies aim to determine the competition level of a sector by using Porter's Five Competitive Forces model, were prepared for hotel management in 5-Likert typein accordance with this study (1= Strongly Disagree, 5= Strongly Agree). The questions of the questionnaire were drafted in a way that choosing number "1" means that the person who chose this answer is considered "very low level of competition" and choosing number "2" means that the person who chose this answer is considered "very high level of competition". 40 of the questionnaire forms which were answered by hotel or department managers were received.

Partial Least Squares (PLS) method, which has a statistical power in complex models and small sample occasions, was used for this study due to limited number of samples. PLS introduces minimum limitation for sample size. According to some researchers, sample size does not cause any problems in PLS method. Moreover, the practical rule suggested for sample size in PLS method is; it is suitable to find samples 10 times more than the scale number of parameter that has maximum scale number in PLS model (Hair,Hult,Ringle&Sarstedt,2014,pp.19-20).

PLS method works with metrical, half metrical and categorical data and can process nonparametric data. Therefore, while determining the statistical levels of estimations, nonparametric methods are being used (Hair et al,2014,pp.22-23).

The use of PLS method in marketing, strategic management, management information systems and many other fields has been increasing in recent years (figure 1).
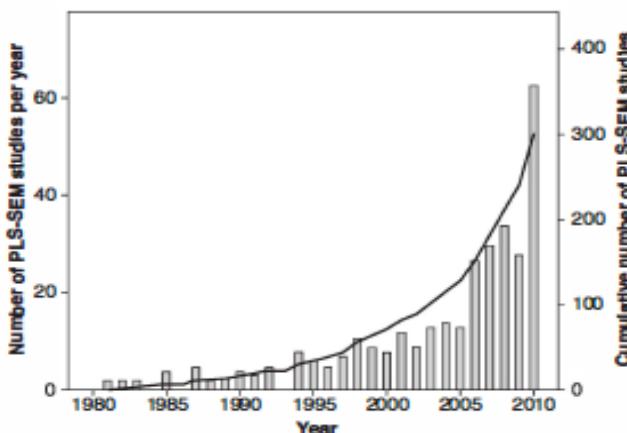
Figure 1: Number of PLS-SEM Studies by Years

Source: (Hair, et al,2014; xv)

Systematic approach to evaluation of study results is as follows;

- Confirmatory Factor Analysis,

- Determining Composite Reliability,
- Calculating AVE-Average Variance Extracted,
- Testing the hypothesis.

SmartPLS and SPSS software were used in order to evaluate the study results.

3.4. Data Analysis

Firstly,bootstrapping analysis has been made by SmartPLS program in order to develop parameters for determining the competition level and to determine the variable value. In bootstrapping analysis, many preload subsamples are being created by way of changing from the current sample and "t" value is being determined (Hair et al,2014,pp.135-138). In this study, significance level of each variable were tested by taking "t" value as 1.96 ($\propto$= 0.05) and the scales which do not meet the condition were eliminated from the analysis. Afterwards, indicator outer loading was made. In accordance with a generally accepted rule, in order to determine convergence validity, each question should be loaded as bigger than 0,7. In this regard, there were no questions in the survey that does not meet this condition.

The average, standard deviation and factor loading of each scale created by PLS method were analyzed and as a result of the analysis, the factor uploadswere proper (minimum 10 points more than the other and the maximum of the line) for PLS conditions (Table 1).

Table 1. Average, Standard Deviation and Factor Loadings of Scales Analyzed in the Research

Factor Scales	AV	SD	BPOB	REAC	TOE	BPOS	TOS
Our customers have enough information to compare the products and services provided in our hotel to the products and services provided in other hotels.	3,40	1,39	0,83	0,56	0,42	0,45	-0,01
Customers drive a hard bargain about the money for room reservations.	3,15	1,09	0,66	0,47	0,22	0,44	0,16
In case the customers prefer other hotels, they do not face any extra costs.	2,90	1,39	0,58	0,41	0,34	0,22	-0,19
In case the customers prefer other hotels, it is not easy to replace them with new customers.	3,54	1,36	0,81	0,68	0,50	0,38	-0,02
The hotels in Konya are in balance with regards to their sources and capacities.	3,02	0,97	0,51	0,70	0,30	0,56	0,12
Products and services of the hotels in Konya are standard and differentials are low.	3,34	1,25	0,60	0,77	0,30	0,36	0,01
The market of the hotels of Konya is the same.	3,34	1,44	0,58	0,81	0,29	0,51	0,03
It is easy to enter into the market as a new Hotel in Konya.	3,62	1,29	0,58	0,47	0,96	0,62	0,06
Our customers do not have brand loyalty regarding the hotels and can easily prefer new hotels which are no name.	3,37	1,10	0,25	0,13	0,81	0,37	0,16
The number of the suppliers who supplies main products and services (food provider, tour operator, travel agency, bus firms, etc.) is low.	3,40	1,30	0,43	0,47	0,38	0,78	0,27
The products and services provided by the suppliers are important for the quality of the services provided to the customers.	3,08	1,24	0,36	0,47	0,39	0,65	0,24
Replacing the current suppliers costs high.	2,76	0,97	0,28	0,31	0,45	0,63	0,18
The terms of our cooperation with the suppliers (food provider, tour operator, travel agency, bus firms, etc.) who we are working with are long.	3,35	1,29	0,44	0,57	0,53	0,84	0,44
There are plenty of options for accommodation and food & beverage for our customers outside the hotel.	3,83	0,97	0,00	0,17	0,18	0,39	0,88
Choosing other accommodation or food & beverage option does not burden extra cost on the customers.	3,31	1,13	-0,04	-0,08	-0,03	0,26	0,64

Alternative accommodation units (guesthouse, rent house, timeshare etc.) has benefit-cost advantage comparing to hotels.	3,62	1,24	-0,01	-0,08	-0,04	0,17	<u>0,71</u>

AV: Average; **SD:** Standard Deviation; **BPOB:** Bargaining Power of Buyers; **REAC:**Rivalry Among Existing Competitors; **TOE:** Threat of Entries; **BPOS:** Bargaining Power of Suppliers; **TOS:**Threat of Substitutes

Next, the results of Composite Reliability were calculated. The traditional criteria for consistency is Cronbach Alpa and this criteria assumes that all indicators have equal reliability. However, PLS scales each indicator with regards to their reliabilities. Moreover, Cronbach Alfa is sensitive to number of questions of the scale and generally does not consider consistency reliability. In this regard, although Cronbach Alfa can be used as a traditional scale of consistency reliability; it is more appropriate to use another scale for measurement of PLS. The most appropriate scale here is Composite Reliability scale, which takes into consideration the different loadings of indicator parameters. Values between 60-70 points are sufficient for composite reliability and for oncoming processes of multidimensional researches, values between 70-90 points can be acceptable (Hair et al, 2014, pp. 101-102).

In this context, composite reliability values are calculated as reliability scale in this study. The reliability results are shown in Table 2. The values of factors are acceptable between 70-90 points.

The commonly used scale for Convergent validity is Average Variance Extracted (AVE). The generally accepted value for each factor is 50 and more points (Hair er al, 2014, p.103). AVE values are shown in Table 2 and the values are acceptable as they are all more than 50 points. Thus, convergent validity is confirmed.

Table 2. Reliability Values of Research Factors

	AVE	Composite Reliability
BPOS	0,5274	0,8140
REAC	0,5756	0,8022
TOE	0,7848	0,8786
BPOS	0,5337	0,8186
TOS	0,5677	0,7946

Finally, arithmetic average and standard deviation of parameter scores are calculated after setting parameter scores with SmartPLS (Table 3). These arithmetic averages are used for evaluating the Competition Level of Hotel Industry in Konya. Moreover, the scores are analyzed by use of ANOVA method and the hypothesis are tested.

Table 3. Arithmetic Averages of Factors

	Average	Standard Deviation
BPOB	3,25	0,94
REAC	3,23	0,90
TOE	3,50	1,06
BPOS	3,15	0,87
TOS	3,59	0,83

4. Findings

4.1. Demographic Findings

Demographic information regarding study subjects are shown in Table 4. Accordingly, 82,5% of the survey attendees are male whereas 17,5% of them are female with 62,5% of them are university graduates, 35% of them are high school graduates and 2,5% of them are primary school graduates.

Table 4. Demographic Findings

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	33	82,5
Female	7	17,5
Education		
Primary Education	1	2,5
High School	14	35
Pre License	9	22,5
License	16	40

4.2. Professional Findings

Professional titles and experiences of attendees are shown in Table 5. Accordingly, 17,7% of attendees are General Managers, 7,5% of them are Deputy General Managers and 75% of them are hotel department managers. A great majority of attendees are experienced managers in the sector (90%) and in the field (52,5%).

Table 5. Professional Title and Experience Findings

	Frequency	Percent
Title		
General Manager	7	17,5
Deputy General Manager	3	7,5
Department Manager	30	75
Experience in the Sector		
Less than 1 year	2	5
1-5 years	2	5
More than 5 years	36	90
Experience in the Field		
Less than 1 year	3	7,5
1-5 years	16	40
More than 5 years	21	52,5

4.3. Competition Level of Hotel Sector of Konya

"The most efficient force", "The least efficient force" and "Competition Level in General" in the sector are evaluated by calculating arithmetic average of the scores regarding each competition force (Table 3) for determining the Competition Level of Hotel Industryin Konya in accordance with Porter's Five Competitive Forces, which constitutes the basis of this research. As shown in Table 3, the Most Efficient Force in determining the competition level is *Threat of Substitutes* (TOS=3,59) where the Least Efficient Force is *Bargaining Power of Suppliers*(BPOS=3,15).Each factor determining the competition level of hotel industry in Konya are as 3=Medium Competition Level and 4=High Competition Level, as shown in Figure 2. Therefore, the competition level of hotel industry in Konya is not very high but medium level.
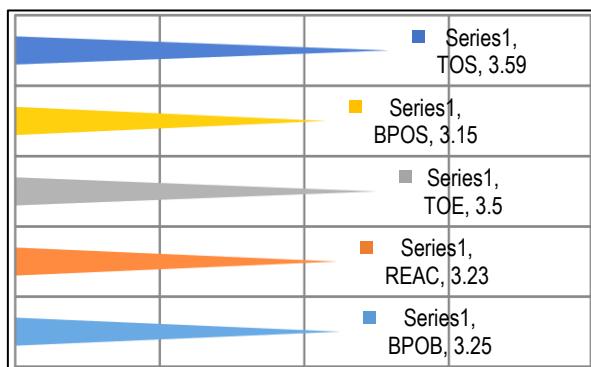
Figure 2.Competition Level of Hotel Industryin Konya

4.4. Findings Regarding Hypothesis

ANNOVA test results which are tested by SPSS software are given below with regards to hypothesis of this study. In Table 6, the results of "H1: *Competition level perception of Participants differs significantly in accordance with hotel classification*" is given. Taking into consideration $p < 0,05$ in each analyze of competition forces and the differences in hotel classification averages, H1 hypothesis is accepted.

Table 6. Competition Level Perception With Regards to Hotel Classification

H1: Competition level perception of participants differs significantly in accordance with hotel classification		Average	Standard Deviation	Sig
REAC	3 star	2,60	0,57	
	4 star	3,00	0,62	,000*
	5 star	4,33	0,59	
BPOB	3 star	2,76	0,75	
	4 star	2,94	0,74	,000*
	5 star	4,29	0,63	
BPOS	3 star	2,89	0,70	
	4 star	2,61	0,62	,001*
	5 star	4,23	0,24	
TOE	3 star	2,96	0,89	
	4 star	3,33	1,21	,000*
	5 star	4,41	0,30	
TOS	3 star	4,03	0,94	
	4 star	3,01	0,53	,015*
	5 star	3,85	0,58	

*$p < 0,05$

In Table 7, the results of "H2: *Competition level perception of Participants differs significantly in accordance with hotel size*" is given.Taking into consideration p<0,05 in each analyze of competition forces and the differences in hotel sizes, H2 hypothesis is accepted.

Table 7. Competition Level Perception Regarding Hotel Size

Competition level perception of participants differs significantly in accordance with hotel size		Average	Standard Deviation	Sig
REAC	1-49	2,58	0,59	,000*
	50-99	2,85	0,66	
	100-149	2,73	0,40	
	150-199	3,98	0,08	
	200-249	4,16	0,77	
BPOB	1-49	2,90	0,89	,000*
	50-99	2,53	0,41	
	100-149	3,16	0,97	
	150-199	3,62	0,66	
	200-249	4,18	0,67	
BPOS	1-49	2,96	0,79	,001*
	50-99	2,64	0,57	
	100-149	2,70	0,82	
	150-199	3,52	1,04	
	200-249	3,97	0,68	
TOE	1-49	2,81	0,84	,000*
	50-99	2,75	1,01	
	100-149	4,17	0,82	
	150-199	4,25	0,35	
	200-249	4,25	0,62	
TOS	1-49	4,37	0,41	,015*
	50-99	3,36	0,98	
	100-149	2,97	0,26	
	150-199	3,87	1,61	
	200-249	3,59	0,65	

*p<0,05

In Table 8, the results of "H3: *Competition level perception of Participants differs significantly in accordance with their experience in the sector*" is given.Taking into consideration p>0,05 in each analyze of competition forces, H3 hypothesis is declined. Therefore, the competition level perception of attendees does not differ regarding term of services.

Table 8. Competition Level Perception Regarding Service Terms

Competition level perception of Participants differs significantly in accordance with their experience in the sector		Average	Standard Deviation	Sig
REAC	Less than 1 year	3,31	0,29	,33
	1-5 years	3,02	0,84	
	More than 6 years	3,31	1,00	
BPOB	Less than 1 year	3,06	1,55	,15
	1-5 years	2,94	0,83	
	More than 6 years	3,44	0,90	

BPOS	Less than 1 year	2,74	0,85	
	1-5 years	2,91	0,72	,28
	More than 6 years	3,37	0,97	
TOE	Less than 1 year	3,00	1,00	
	1-5 years	3,19	0,98	,29
	More than 6 years	3,80	1,13	
TOS	Less than 1 year	2,82	0,36	
	1-5 years	3,66	0,68	,42
	More than 6 years	3,64	0,97	

*p<0,05

5. Conclusion

In this study, Competition Level of Hotel Industry in Konya is evaluated with regards to the parameters of Porter's Five Competition Force. Moreover, it is also evaluated whether perception regarding competition forces differs in terms of demographic and operating characteristics.

According to research results, competition level of Hotel Industry in Konya is "middle-high" levels. The Most Efficient Force in determining the competition level is *Threat of Substitutes* where the Least Efficient Force is *Bargaining Power of Suppliers.* Taking into consideration all results;availability of guesthouses of institutions, cheaper hostel or relatives' houses preferences of tourists can be considered as a threat for hotels. Besides, the customers can change their accommodation very fast due to their precision to price and also because their brand royalty is low. Therefore, it is possible to state that negotiation power of customers is high. There are not many obstacles in town to prevent new hotel investments other than fixed investment costs. Because of the fact that the products are standard, the competition level is high in this scope.

Furthermore, although competition level perception differs with regards to hotel classifications and sizes, it does not change the service terms of managers.

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"Gender Game" on the Field of Russian Jurisprudence

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Abstract

Equality of opportunities is the most important aspect of the general principle of equality, which is currently, received almost universal acclaim. This is one of the most fundamental principles on which democratic society is based. It is enshrined in international instruments, national constitutions and laws. However, despite significant progress in this topic, there is inequality between men and women. The article presents main study areas of the theory and practice of jurisprudence in the context of gender - with an emphasis on gender studies in specific areas of legal science; the importance of gender in the mechanism of legal regulation of social relations in the constitutional, administrative, criminal, labor, and family law, since this factor plays a more active role in these branches of Russian law and legislation. The authors come consider that ideas and solutions concerning the legal regulation of relations with the gender element are contradictory it its basis; complex, not always justified, interaction rules and practices, that include positive discrimination and gender neutralization.

Keywords: gender, equality, discrimination, trends, jurisprudence, branches of Russian law.

1. Introduction

Gender as a social construct is located in complex contradictory space being of ideas and social practices; it is the subject of multifaceted research, and, as in the case of jurisprudence, even regulation. While the emphasis and data vectors of these ideas and practices are constantly evolving [1].

They are based on several fundamental assumptions that have become axiomatic. First, equality and inequality are paired constructions, where the first is not always ensure justice and harmony, and the second - injustice and conflict; inequality is unjust, because people, men and women should have equal rights; inequality is true, as it allows to compensate social costs of different people, men and women differentially and addressable [2, p.24-25; 3 p.199-200]. Second, the right, as one of the key regulators of social relations, applies equal scale to different people, which is both fair and unfair. Third, in order to harmonize the withdrawal of the contradictions of state conflicts, jurisprudence resorting to provide additional guarantees, the benefits of "positive discrimination" [4, p.21-23] and enforcement discretion [5 p.140-152].

The main directions of Russian jurisprudence development in the context of gender equality, positive inequality and gender neutralization are concentrated in constitutional, administrative, criminal, penal enforcement, labor, social, and family law. [6]

2. Gender in the Branches of Law

As it supposed to be, the first contains the fundamental ideas of gender equality (Article 19 of the Constitution of the Russian Federation), Priority maternity protection (Article 38) and the exceptional nature of the restriction of rights and freedoms (Article 55). Particular emphasis is placed on the doctrine of the quota of women's representation in political and public power structures. This idea has been discussed and implemented in practice with very variable success. For example, the gender composition of the Supreme Council of the USSR superficially had a favorable impression: there were up to 30% of female deputies in its various convocations. However, since the real power belonged to the Communist Party (Article 5 of the Constitution of the USSR, 1936), the gender political horizon, essentially looked different: party consists 79.1% men and 20.9% women; Central Committee - respectively 97.2 % and 2.8%, and in the Politburo - 100% of men. The world of politics was really male, women in the "Political Bureau" played the role of "pots of pink geraniums" and carried out "imitation policy" of gender equality. Further, during the adjustment period to the end of the 20th century, the idea of women's quota was "buried" under a bushel of political and economic issues - apparently more relevant and less harmful for the "worst half of humanity". Only in 2003, the State Duma introduced a bill "On state guarantees of equal rights and freedoms of men and women and equal opportunities for their implementation." However, he "hung on decade" - the work was resumed only in 2011. We can assume that it was not without the influence of the updated gender policy of the United Nations: an international organization "UN Women" was established in 2011. However, there are still no outcomes; there is only a process of increasing number of women in legislative bodies, governmental structures, public organizations (for example, regional public chambers). It is a real process, but without legislative quotas [7 p.1977-1978].

In administrative law norms are gender-neutral - in the context of gender question, actually, is all about the same "hovering" bill, which, along with the political gender quotas, provided the idea of a priority for vacant civil service positions of the sex, which is in the minority on this office or public service.

As we have noted, the gender context to a greater or lesser extent is represented in the criminal justice branch of Russian law. Analysts of gender asymmetry of criminal and criminal-executive legislation emphasize that it uses two methods of building standards that take into account peculiarities of the sexes: on the one hand, women traditionally have been provided by certain privileges, "special" rights; on the other hand - gender neutral norms have been gradually introduced [8, p.52-53]. The first category primarily includes rules specifying additional protection of the life and health of women, as well as its social and economic rights associated with the performance of reproductive function: Article 123 of the Criminal Code (illegal abortion), Article 131 (rape), art.145 (unjustified refusal to employ or unjustified dismissal of pregnant women or women with children up to 3 years). In this regard, there are a certain redundancy rules on sexual offenses as a special case of any violent acts: overprotection of women in criminal law is not always good, because it can be modified in the discrimination that is based on gender, so such rules must be justified and correlated with the status of men. Criminal women's liability is also significantly differentiated. Among the factors that determine its characteristics are pregnancies, presence of children, and specific physiological characteristics. A number of exemptions in the doctrine of criminal law have been discussed. Very essential privilege is the norm on the application of respite of punishment (st.82) for pregnant women and women with a child. However, in 2010, this opportunity extended to cover men who have a child - as a consequence of the second method of criminal law regulation of relations with the gender element - gender neutralization. Law prohibits life imprisonment and the death penalty against women (Article 57, 59): use of colony of strict regime and special regime are excluded for them, as well as a prison. According to the penal legislation, pregnant women and women with young children are not limited in purchasing food, getting transmissions, are provided with free food, and are exempted from work (Article 88, 90, 99 of the Criminal Executive Code of the Russian Federation); children's home are organized in the colonies (Article 100), etc. We believe that such acts of humanization of punishment are legitimate and fair and should receive consistent development.

Since labor and family are major social factors that are responsible for the reproduction of humans, thus it is objectively, inevitable and traditionally that gender component presents in the labor, social security and family law, studied in their respective branches of law.

The norm of Article 3 of the Labor Code explicitly prohibits discrimination, including on grounds of sex and marital status, of citizen (worker). At the same time, these characteristics are the bases of differentiation in the legal regulation of labor and social-security relations. At the same time, gender differentiation involves applying general rules for women (for example, through establishing the list of works with harmful working conditions), despite silence of the legislator, and gender

positive "discrimination" in the form of women privileges, advantages, additional security measures and protection, and gender negative differentiation in the form of partial restrictions. At the same time, the trend of labor law and doctrine, as well as in other areas of law, is to construct ideas and norms of gender neutralization.

Special rules governing the employment of women and persons with family, including, therefore, men are grouped into three sections: 1) for women - taking into account the physiological characteristics of the organism, its reproductive function to be protected from adverse production factors (gender labor protection of women); 2) for the period of active motherhood - pregnancy, childbirth, and care for infants and young child (maternal health); 3) for combining work with family responsibilities - for women and men in connection with the care of children or care for sick family members [6, p.419]. Preferential treatment to certain categories of persons intended to make them competitive in the labor market, to protect the most vulnerable of them from the tyranny of the employer.

Norms of the RF Labor Code (LC) may justifiably puzzled employer, who has decided to hire a woman. Specific examples of such rules are the following: the prohibition of dismissal of pregnant women, except liquidation of an organization or termination of individual entrepreneur (art.261 LC), nursing breaks (Article 258 LC), the ban on sending for business trips, attraction to work overtime, work at nights, weekends and public holidays for pregnant women (ch. 1, Art. 259 LC) and many other things that can generates desire to protect potential employer from such inconveniences.

Arguments against the revision of the current approach of completely prohibiting pregnant women to travel on business trips, work overtime, at night, on weekends and public holidays, basically boil down to the fact that the employer has the opportunity to abuse their position and force a woman to perform such work.

The Labor Code of the Russian Federation contains almost absolute ban on the termination of the employment contract with a pregnant woman at the initiative of the employer, which is in line with the provisions of ratified ILO Convention number 103 "On Maternity Protection". Although, the ILO itself in 2000 in the new Convention number 183 replaces the previously accepted standards, limiting the protection of pregnant women at dismissal features that are directly related to the state of pregnancy or childbirth, probably recognizing their shortcomings from the perspective of gender neutrality and shifted towards greater equality of both parents.

Decisions of the regional courts of Russian Federation led to the conclusion that the judicial protection of pregnant women can be classified as "absolute." In principle, it is not surprising, since the judge's decision has been made in accordance with the current legislation. The impetus for the emergence of a new regulations "pregnant woman is right, even if she is not pregnant" was the position outlined in paragraph 2 p. 25 Resolution of the Plenum of the Supreme Court from 28.01.2014 N 1 "On the application of legislation governing the work of women, persons with family responsibilities and minors". On the basis of this regulation, if employment contract of pregnant woman was terminated by the employer, it becomes a subject of restoration, even though in court her pregnancy has not been preserved. It is very controversial on how to justify the new rigid position of Plenary Supreme Court, which, in fact, exhaust from the principle of the validity of protecting the rights of pregnant women because of pregnancy.

In our opinion, many of the provisions of the Labor Code, that somehow protect women's rights, must be converted by the legislator from peremptory into discretionary rules. Thus at the level of collective or individual employment contracts ,an employer with an employee could envisage the presence or absence of privileges to women determined by reproductive function, mental and physical characteristics of the gender.

Gender stereotypes that had successful influence in the 20th century to the formation of labor laws in foreign and Russian society are gradually disappearing, and taking with them provisions that provide enhanced protection of motherhood with almost complete disregard for the rights of fathers to participate in child rearing. The modern practice of having completely different forms of family life, show that the "breadwinner" in the family is often mother, while father is not considered shameful to take care of the children.

This is confirmed by the jurisprudence. Thanks to the "flashing" precedents in which the applicant seeks to draw the attention of the court and the legislature on the gender imbalance; labor laws changes in line with the gender neutrality for persons with family responsibilities, in particular, changes in the art. 261 Family Code of RF - regarding guarantees for men when terminating an employment contract. The Constitutional Court declared the provision of Part 4 of Article 261 inconsistent with the Constitution of Russia, its rules from Articles 7, 19, 37 (part. 1) and 38 (part 1 and 2), to the extent that, in the current system of legal regulation, it prohibits employer to fire a women with children under the age of three, and others with children of this age without a mother. However, it excludes father from opportunity to use this warranty,

even if he is the only breadwinner in a family, raising young children, including children under the age of three, where mother is not involved in the labor relations and has been taking care of children [9 p.89-101].

Family law represents also vivid picture of gender differentiation. Idea of equality of status of the spouses, preservation and protection of maternity and paternity (Article 1 of the Family Code) can be viewed among its general principles, but specific family law norms and related regulation still allow gender differentiation, limitations and advantages. Gender is still an "agent of influence".

Idea of heterosexuality of conjugal union is very relevant in the institution of marriage, despite the lack of a definition of marriage in the Family Code of the Russian Federation, the composition of male and female. It becomes quite obvious from the wording of Part 3, Article 1 and Part 1 of Article 12 of the Family Code. The legitimacy of the provision of this statement, was disputed in the constitutional justice, and on 16th of November, 2006 the Constitutional Court of the Russian Federation in determining N496-About refusal to accept the complaint E.Murzina outlined its legal position: heterosexuality provides an essential function - human reproduction (birth and parenting), makes a Russian national tradition, is not in conflict with a provision of Article 12 of the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms; lack of legal possibility to register same-sex partnerships does not affect the level of recognition and guarantees the rights and freedoms of the applicant.

Of course, consistent supporters of the gradual evolution of the institution are not agreed (for some European models). Indeed, on the one hand, within the meaning of international legal instruments, in particular the European level, family law basically refers to the number of spheres of national regulation; it gives Russian lawmakers formal right to ignore the European trend in the legal recognition of same-sex partnerships as marriage or a family union. On the other hand, as in the case of heterosexual de facto marriages, which has a "hopping" Russian history of recognition and refusal (as opposed to modern European models); monosexual communities exist, including those with signs of family relations. This does not exclude, albeit in a very distant future, some of the legal recognition of these family communities - the question is when it will happen and what could be a form of legal recognition. The latest situation in the country, deepening ideological contradictions between Russia and the European Union, non-obvious tolerant experiments of the EU, strengthening of religious influence on decision-making in this case and in general social practices in Russian - even more to keep us away from the liberalization of marriage and family institutions (maybe for the better) [10, p.48-52].

Attempts to "mislead" gender equality had been taken in the issue of monogamous marriage: not quite clear eastern polygamous tradition (both international and domestic) is considered a prerequisite for liberalization in this direction. Opposed to this attempt is, on the one hand, the idea of Russian legislation federalism on fundamental aspects of social life, on the other - a feminist concept of formal equality (polygamy into correspondence to polyandry).

Retains the right to limit the spouse right to divorce (Article 17 of the Family Code of RF) during pregnancy of his wife and one year after giving birth. This limitation, as opposed to a more balanced position of the Belarusian and Ukrainian legislators, allowing certain exceptions; for example, what we have repeatedly criticized, in connection with the establishment of paternity of another man, limitation still remains as "absolute" [11 p.192-194].

With the development of assisted reproductive technology and medical intervention in the sexual sphere, further gender differences are increasing. So, when you change one of the spouses gender, and they have common minor children, than it become monosexuality parenthood, to which the Russian legislator still does not respond directly, and with respect to which the doctrine haven't come to the consensus and to the proposal de lege ferenda. In addition, Family Code prohibits international adoption to citizens of countries where they received legal recognition of same-sex partnerships. The gender rule of Part 4 of Article 51 of Part 3 of Article 52of the Family Code and Parts3, 9 Article 55 Federal Law "On the basis of the health of citizens the Russian Federation": the first permit in the surrogacy program participation allows only spouses and unmarried women, the second - "men and women", apparently including not constitute an official married couple, as well as "a single woman." However, both legal acts are united on the issue of the restriction of the unmarried men rights. Although the latter has been criticized by some representatives of the family law doctrine, and, in our view, there are certain reasons for that in the absence of gender-neutrality rules: a woman, within the meaning of health legislation can be a "customer," that can "order" services of a surrogate mother, if she, on objective indicators, can not bear and give birth [12, p.245-249].

As we have noted, same-sex parenting, international adoption (pretty much domestic within the meaning of the law, although there is no direct prohibition), and other welfare are not legally possible. However, the actual result may be - in

the case of sex change of one of the parents or adoptive parents, as well as in the case of guardianship monoskheme (unmarried woman, unmarried men). In all such situations, the role of the administrative or judicial discretion, quality of the civil case inevitably strengthens (research on family circumstances of the applicants and their personal qualities, including their sexual orientation).

LGBT community and some of the human rights organizations will also increase their pressure on the Russian legislator and public opinion in the case of monosexual marriage. Just in a very distant future we can see whether it is implemented into positive regulatory decisions. Russian system of marriage and family still remains traditional, even allowing gender neutral norm, in comparison to labor law field.

3. Conclusions

Thus, a generalized analysis of the gender context of Russian theoretical and practical jurisprudence indicates contradictory ideas and solutions concerning the legal regulation of relations of gender element; complex, not always justified, interaction of rules and practices, including positive discrimination and gender neutralization of capabilities; and maintaining conservative contexts in a number of industries (primarily in the family law). However, complexity and inconsistency are common characteristics in the social space that do not always indicative of deviance lawmaking and enforcement of existence. The aim is to harmonize the first and reduce the amount of the second.

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Media in the Education of Children

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Abstract

Nowadays media has developed broadly and it consists of several television networks, press, radio, etc. On the one side, such media development has positive impact, but on the other side, it has negative impact which affects education and formation of new generations. As a basketballer and trainer of young ages I will focus in the role of media in the education of children from the sports point of view. Technological and economic development after the '90s brought with it a new approach: - unequal broadcasting of television programmes for all the sports disciplines, because in our country, for economic interests, only football is covered and such abuse goes to the point of using the term "sports news" and the only news is about football, or even Albanian sports newspaper in which the only information is about football. Wouldn't it be better to say "Albanian football" instead?! The contrary one finds in the "Albanian sports" which pages cover all sports. Moreover, such phenomenon has negative impact on the education of generations that increasing are dreaming about football, spend money about football, avoid other alternatives thinking that football is the only way to have a luxury living, being rich and famous.

Keywords: Media, TV space, education of children, sports discipline, orientation

Introduction

All over the world, media is a used to transmit information to the public and as such its role in educating and orienting people in any area of life becomes increasingly important.

Such reflections mostly complete and enrich one another, rather than exclude one another and the diagnosis will help us judge the role and place of media in the society. How do we use the media? What do we expect from the media, secretly or openly? Such questions help us understand the power of media, its audience and impact on the social life.

The impact and subordination of the society from the media is an issue of concern and it may not be settled as easily as we would have wanted. It is important to know not only how to use the media, but also to know what to expect from the media and how to perceive it. Media power, statute and role depends, in the long run, on the relations such media have and create in a society.

Aim of study/ research

The aim of this study is: to know and understand the role of media in the education of children. Being aware of its strength and power, through this study, we want to help parents, teachers, trainers, heads of the institutions responsible for sports development and children development to be properly informed of the choice of sports discipline they want to be involved. Such choice must not only be based on the information broadcasted from the television which in most of the cases is neither objective not balanced in forwarding information, as it broadcasts mostly football development, the life of famous footballers and their luxurious lifestyle. This is an issue of concern because children frequently insist to become part of football teams as they see it the only way to become famous and rich.

A wrong choice which does not consider several parameters that the child needs to be involved in a sports discipline ends in failure and psychological consequences on the child including indifference, lack of trust and self-confidence to do something else or signs of inferiority. Through this study we intend to help parents because they are the only responsible for the failure or success of their children.

Research question

What happens to the public when attention is focused only on one sports discipline, football?

What are the consequences of other sports? What are the consequences in education of children?

Is failure to allow other sports to make public their work and success a violation of their rights?

How can the work of media be improved to broadcast controlled and balanced programmes?

All these questions shall be given an answer in this paper.

Scientific methods

In order to get the intended results, we conducted a survey including 700 children, male of the age group 8-9 through a questionnaire which consisted of 12 questions the most important of which were: what is your favourite sports? Are you good at this sport? Where did you learn playing this sport?

In addition to the questionnaire, during the period January-April, the sports programme of national and other television operators have been monitored in order to conclude with the final results of the paper.

Television operators that have been considered for this study:

Albanian television

Klan television

Top Channel television

Vizion plus television

Result

From the survey done ,based on the 12 questions of the questionaire and on the monitoring of the national televisions we come to those results reflected in details to the table and graphic below.

Question 1	Football	Basketball	Other
what is your favourite sports	566	96	38
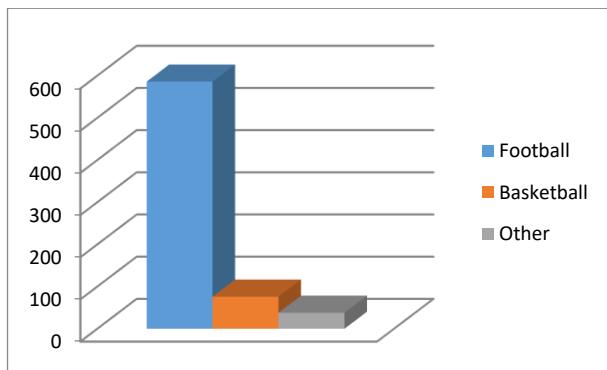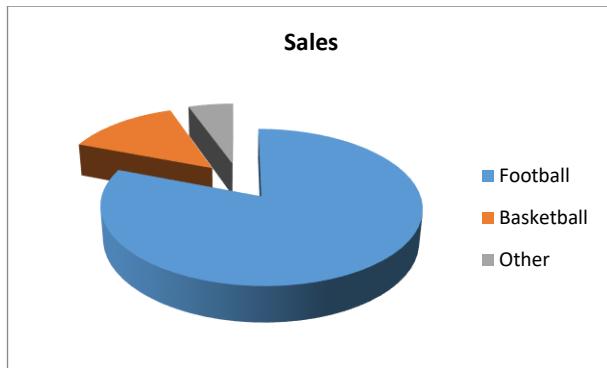
Question 2	Televizion	Kurse/ekipe	Other
Where did you learn playing this sport?	455	210	35
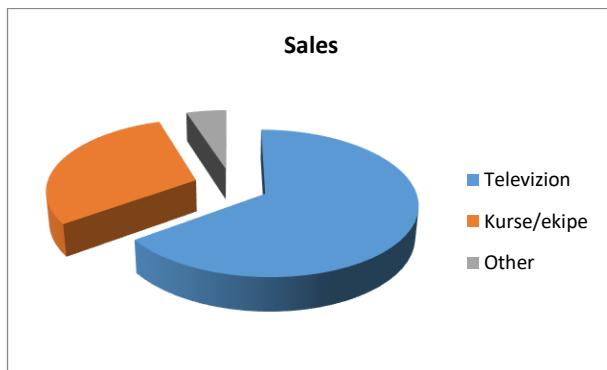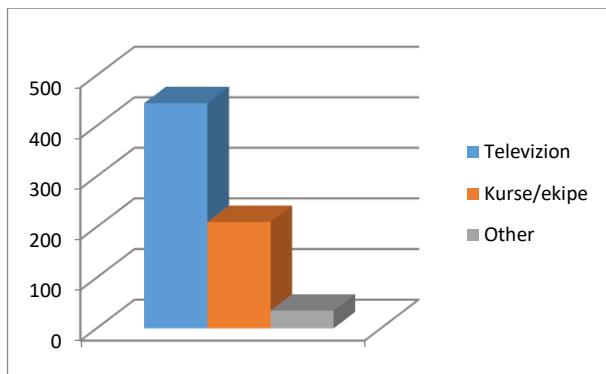
From the asnwers, its clearly obvious that the favorite sport is football. The main part of the children asked say the learned it from the television,same attend cuuses and sports team and another part addmit learning it from a member of family or plaing with friends.The several monthswe personally monitored some national televisions as they cover the whole country with signal came to these result.

Televizione	TVSH			Top Channel			Tv Klan			Vizion plus Tv		
	Football	Basketbal l	Other	Football	Basketbal l	Othe r	Football	Basketbal l	Othe r	Football	Basketbal l	Othe r
Emision sportiv	120min	12min	7min	120min	3min	2min	(30.2) 60min	_	_	90min	_	_
Match	(2.90) 180 min	50 min		_	_	_	90min	_	_	(1.90) 90min	_	_
Kronike	30min	2min	3min	7min	_	_	4min	3min	2min	6min	2min	1min
ritrasmetim	120min	_	-	120	_	_	_	_	_	90min	_	_
Totall minits	450min	64	10min	247min	3min	2min	154min	3min	2min	276min	2min	1min

sports	Football	Basketball	Other
Totali	1127min	72min	15min
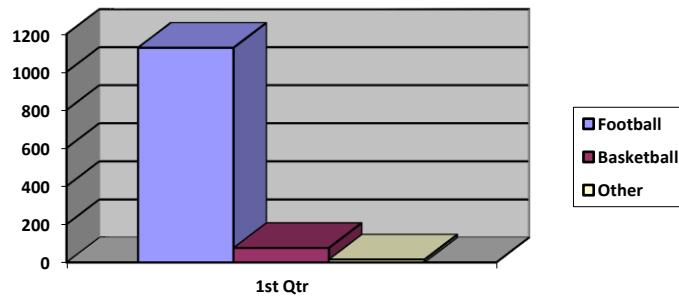
From the result table where are reflected the minutes of transmission during a week its clear that football covers all the sportiv time space and of course the socil impact is bigger.This is a really upsetting reality for the sport and its development in our country therefor we have to improveit trough discussion and agreements to balancethe sports transsmision

Findings

The role of media is to inform the public objectively and consequently the presentation of sports activities must not be discriminatory, biased or supporting certain activities. Instead it must be fair and sensitive to any initiative undertaken for sports development in Albania. It has a key role in the presentation of sports image and as such it must not become a virus for the society, rather than agents of promotion of sports and related values. Having said this, it is important to understand that sports is not football alone, but a wide range of sports discipline which unfortunately are not given enough space in visual and print media as an essential way to reach the public at large. Reporters must be aware that their broadcasts very often distort the balance which must exist in the broadcasts of all sports. Media has a special role in sports development because the impact it has on the society helps the individual to become informed of the potential of sports for a healthy life. Media information and power has strongly entered the world of the children and it has an impact on their education. Such finding which may seem quite common, must be considered very important by the parents, schools, teachers, trainers, and higher instances responsible for the development of sports in our country.

In our society, the role of television acquires a great social weight because tv programmes are considered to broadcast the only truth and the public tends to believe whatever is broadcasted. As such television may powerfully affect the pattern of overall social development. Given this reality we are bound to review everything concerning the impact of television on education and orientation of children to their choice of sports. We are all aware that television may orient the behaviour and conduct of people, positively or negatively and only by looking at the considerable entries of all the age groups to the Albanian football team, one can understand the impact of television as an invasive model in the Albanian society. All over the world, the society is deeply obsessed after football and main players. Television has played a negative role in this regard. All televisions have bombarded the viewers with news, programmes, football matches to the extent that it is impossible to avoid them. The commercial nature of television affects the production of sports programmes and content of the programme to be adapted to the greatest category of viewers. No one has the right to ask the TV operators for more space to handle and progress and achievement of other sports which are becoming triumphant all over the world. However, as a sports player, trainer, teacher, parent and viewer of such TV programmes, we have the right to request equality within the programmes entitled "sports programme" which actually are more than "Albanian football". Regardless of the nature of the programmes, depending on the production, it is time to understand the education role of television. Television in Albania must change the philosophy of sports broadcasting by keeping a balance for sports in general, because otherwise the Albanian society will deepen the gap between football and other disciplines and this would be a harsh punishment of sports and children as well. All the above-said corresponds to the results issued from the questionnaire addressed to 700 children, male, of the age group 8-9, who mostly emphasised their preference of football and claimed to be good at playing football because they has followed matches from television. This is reflected in the following tables and graphs.

Conclusion

Nowadays the media invasion has a great influence in the mutual relations between the media and the society according to which society defines itself. In order to improve this relationship and exploit its potential, the society, institutions responsible for sports development and the media must discuss on the equal rights of all sports disciplines in television broadcasting. This is a good opportunity for the children to become familiar with sports, the values of each sports discipline, particularities of each sports discipline, and achievements of famous sports players in order to identify themselves with the sport of their informed choice. Such cooperation with the media will create the proper space for other sports because the rush towards football only is creating consequences on other sports including baseball, volleyball, box, weightlifting etc which suffer lack of talents because of the low participation and possibility to choice.

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The Influence of Social Media on Organizational Communication: Case Study in Republic of Macedonia

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Abstract

Development of the communications technologies introduced the need of new ways of organization of corporate communication processes. Social media play an important role in performing of public and community activities and are more and more used as important communication tool of the employees in sharing of ideas, exchange of mutual experiences, and in all aspects of performing of vertical and horizontal communication. By research conducted with quality methods- observing of different companies and interviews of employees, managers and competent officials for development of organizational communication in the Republic of Macedonia data will be collected for how many employees of organizations in Macedonia use the social networks services and what habits they have during such communication. By that, the research will try with case study to answer the question on the influence of social media to organizational communication. Internet social communication is the addition and an extension of the traditional social behavior. As much the individuals were connected and communicate tête-à-tête, they more use the other media for internal communication. In fact, online communication even upgrades the traditional social behavior, without it to be increased or decreased.

Key words- communication, social media, social networks, corporate climate, informational technology

INTRODUCITON

In past few decades numerous changes happened in the area of informational and communicational technologies, worldwide and in Republic of Macedonia, too. These changed allowed new ways of organization of corporate communication processes.

Having in mind that the communication is one of the most important and dominant activities in an organization, internet communication contributes a lot to the functioning of the organization and helps in determination of the aims, values and management strategies. Functioning of the organizations is based on efficient relations between individuals and groups which coordinate the activities in order reaching determined goals. That is of great importance for the socialization, solving of problems, for the decision, timely reaction and adapting to changes. Through social networks and communication processes, individuals and groups give the meaning to the organization and make her stronger. Even many authors had different definitions and also different understanding of the internet communication, still all agree that strategic management of the interaction within employees is the foundation which provides the stability of one organization and decrease the level of uncertainty and insecurity of the employees.

Target of the internal communication is the identification of the employees with the organization. By this the loyalty is increased, also motivation for work, development of positive interpersonal relations, socialization and development of positive corporate climate. The employees must understand the intention and the goals of the internal communication which match with the culture and the way of organizational management. The awareness and the understanding of the culture brings to the efficient conduction of the strategy in one organization. Well created programme can successfully stop the fall of the motivation of the employees and gives the opportunity for working in accordance to the changes occur in targeted organization. Well leveled communication programme influence on increasing the satisfaction and their status which make in return good influence towards the individual and also to the organization as well.

1.   Theoretical discourse of the communication

Communication is a process in which the individuals who participate create and share information between themselves. Usually, the communication includes the form of *channel* or *medium*, depending on the information, which in form of *concept* transmits from one individual to another. Mass media as channel are more effective in creating innovational knowledge,

and the channels which promote the social engagement are more effective in modeling and change of the states towards the new concept, with the influence in decision to accept or deny the new concept or information.

Good communication is the basis of peoples' understanding in whole, and between colleagues, partners and interlocutors-within this context. Therefore, it is needed in the internal communication the basic rules for successful communication to be included. The aim of the process of communication to inform, pursue, motivate or to get mutual consent.

-In order to be efficient in the process of communication, the basic knowledge of what makes the process of communication and how people get the messages is needed, and how people process the information and change their perception and what kind of media and communication tools are the appropriate the most for some message[1].

The basic and most general form in which the direct and indirect social interaction appears is communication. In every interaction, a kind of communication relation happens between the participants, the most significant forms of the social behavior can presented as communication processes.

In Latin language, the word "communicatio" meant announcement, and the word "communicare" meant to make something in common, together. In contemporary literature, the word "communication" meant announcement but also the flow, the process of announcement. In everyday speech word "communication" may refer to a conversation between two persons, on sending and receiving letters, announcement and publishing of different intellectual materials, etc. Especially often it was used for the announcement of different contents thorough technical appliances, for example radio, television, telephone, telegraph, etc.

Communication systems are many and different exactly because they had appeared in the frames of less or more different kinds of social interaction, and the phenomenon of communication today is a subject of research of many sciences[2].

Several communication models explain how the message travels from the emitter to the receiver. Some of those models are complex and try to include almost indefinite number of events, objects, people who are in interaction between the message, the channel and the receiver. Still, most of the communication models include four basic elements. Such model is for example model of David K. Berlo, which consist of *sender (encoder)*, *message, channel and receiver (decoder)*[3]. Today in modern communication models the fifth element, the feedback from the sender to the receiver is included.

In fact, we can look the feedback like on two way communication. One way communication, from the emitter to the receiver just spread the information. That kind of monologue is less efficient from two way communication, where the dialogue establishes between the sender and receiver of the message. According to Grunig the ideal model for the public relations is two way symmetrical communication, which meant well balanced communication between the sender and receiver. E. g. *…the communication is used in order to negotiate with the publicity to solve the conflict and to promote mutual understanding and respect between the organization and her shareholders*[4].

Apart from this, the two way asymmetrical model is to be used for persuasion and manipulation when publicity must behave in the manner the organization wishes. Grunig said:

-BIn the symmetrical model, the understanding is the main goal for the public relations, not the persuasion. In reality, according to research, most of the organizations had different motifs when the conduct two way communication in the public relations. Even they used dialogue to get the input how to adapt to the needs of the public, in most cases their motif was asymmetrical- to pursue the publicity that their views were right[5].

1.1. Organizational communication

Communication is inevitable part of the working processes. In working place, the employees normally interact formally and informally, but in order communication to contribute to interpersonal relations and increase of motivation, she must be necessary planned, systematical and efficient. Also, lack of communication is one of the most common reasons for the

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[1]   Wilcox,D.L., Cameron.T.C, Ault.P.H.,et al. (2003), Public Relations Strategies and Tactics 7th edn, Pearson Education, Inc. стр.168

[2]   Popovski M., Barakovska A., Stojanovska V.,(2010), Communication and leadership in organization different texts, Page 17

[3]   Communication Models, (online).: http://www.shkaminski.com (no date),

[4]   James E. Grunig, , (online).: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_E._Grunig (no date),

[5]   James E. Grunig, (online). Available from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_E._Grunig (no date),

dissatisfaction of the employees by their job and supervisors. Organizations which communicate efficiently has 4,5 times bigger motivation to the employees, and the satisfaction and the motivation of the employees cannot be overseen because exactly those were the sample of the institution in front of the potential publicity.

-In order the internal communication to be efficient, she must be timely, verified, concise, understandable, unambiguous, and transparent[1].

Organizational communication refers to the fact that in one organization all members send and receives the signals, and simultaneously, in dynamical co- action. In other words, there is a network of communicational experiences, and all which are in or out of that network influences on the organization's processes. The analysis of those processes is especially important for the organization and her employees. Communication happens for different reason and in different ways. Reasons for communicating can be information, explanation, persuasion, reproaching, encouraging, suggesting, consulting, apologizing, thanksgiving, reward, or any else.

The effective communication is important for the success of every organization. For many reasons which emphasize the need of good communication, we can underline the following:

- *She leads to better efficiency.*

- *She keeps the employees on sight,*

- *Includes the people in the organization, increase the motivation for good working, and by that contributes to the sense of belonging to the organization*

- *Helps to the improvement of the relations and better understanding of the superiors and subordinates, colleagues and the people in the organization or out of it.*

- *Helps to people to understand the need of change: how they should manage it and how to decrease the resistance to the changes*[2].

Organizational communication or corporate communication is responsible for all communicational relations of the corporation, and by that for the corporate identity. The aim of the corporate communication is to nurture and increase the reputation of the corporation, because the reputation influences a lot over the success of an organization. The areas covered by the corporate communication were:

- *Media relations- to journalists (**Media Relations**)*

- *Public relations and lobbying- to governmental institutions(**Public Affairs**)*

- *Internal communication- to employees and co- workers (**Internal Communications, Employee Relations**)*

- *Relations with investors- to present and future investors (**Investor Relations**)* [3]

The European Confederation for Public Relations has no doubts on the responsibility of the public relation. „*When someone mentioned public relations, that meant the profession which is using its own methodology and techniques for management with corporate communication, total needs of communication in one company or organization".* [4]

According to Van Riel, corporate communication can be divided in three categories: Според Ван Риел, корпоративната комуникација може да се подели во три категории:

- ***Management- communication**, presents "symbolic role" of all managers in presenting of their organizations.*

- ***Marketing- communication**, there are all activities related to promotion, marketing- related public relations,*

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[1] Good communication increases the sale, 03. 05.2011, (online), www.kapital.com.mk,
[2] Petkovski K., Aleksova M., Management of a dynamic school BRO, Skopje 2004
[3] Corporate communication, (online). : http://hr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Korporativna_komunikacija , (no date)
[4] Corporate communication, (online),: http://hr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Korporativna_komunikacija, (no date),

advertising, direct sale and promotion of the sales.

- *Organizational communication, general term which describes all forms of communication used by the organization, different from marketing communication*[1].

Therefore communication as a process is of key importance for the evolution of the social systems. To support this empirical discovery many studies for the internet social communication show that the features of the learning of social systems as network structure and dynamics, can be useful indication for the result of very important social and economic relations. Besides fundamental importance for the understanding of these structures and their temporary influence in lots of social and economic environments, the development of the tools for characterization, basic theoretic models, and also large detailed observational studies and collections of data for social communication are still on the beginning.

1.2 Social internet- communication

Social internet communication has a great influence on the characteristics of the social systems, she accompanies and revolutionizes our meaning and the way of communication. Characteristics of this wide spread change of the communication processes are:
- *Range. Social media provides a big platform of access of information and gives the opportunity every information to get to wider audience.*
- *Availability. Social media communication tool in general are available for all, for little or no price, turning any individual, participant in internet social exchange in publisher, transmitter of own informational content.*
- *Usability. Most social media do not require or only sometimes require skills, so everyone can work with the tools for production of the content and following communication, and thus eliminate the need of expert skills and training.*
- *News. Social media communication have the opportunity for moment virtual reaction; only the participants determine the delay of the response, making the communication processes extremely interactive, with little time of response delay.*
- *Consistency. Unlike industrial media communications, where when something had been made cannot be changed (for example, magazine story once printed cannot be changed), communication over the internet social media is extremely changeable, and therefore can be changed immediately by the comments, voting and by some other changes*[2].

Internet social communication is the addition and an extension of the traditional social behavior. There is a proof that as much the individuals were connected and communicate tête-à-tête**,** they more use the other media for internal communication. In fact, online communication even upgrade the traditional social behavior, without it to be increased or decreased.

2.   Social media and social network sites/ services

The internet as meta medium, which especially in last two decades had changed the social behavior over the change of habits of ordinary people just because the reality had been moved towards internet medium and daily activities become virtual, made people to connect in many ways and by that erase the existing borders and the speed of availability of information.

Social relations between groups, individuals and organizations become more complex than before, which was due to fast development of social media.

– When we speak of social media we think on mean of interaction between people by which contents with virtual communities and networks had been created, shared, and exchanged. (Ahlqvisit, Toni; Back, A,Halonen,M,Heinonen,S.

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[1]   Davis, A. Learning Public Relations, 2004, Икона, Page 68

[2]   B. Furht (ed.), Handbook of Social Network Technologies and Applications,   DOI 10.1007/978-1-4419-7142-5 4, © Springer Science+Business Media, LLC 201

Social media roadmaps exploring the futures triggered by social media. VTT Tiedotteita- Valton Teknillinen Tutkimuskeskus 2008 (2454):p.3).

Interactive use of social media proved significant changes in all kinds of communication- from individual to social communication.

- By social media, and by help of mobile and web- based technologies, the users are free to share, create platforms and to be interactive, and by that they introduce significant changes in the way of communication in organizations, communities, individuals (H.Kietzmann,Jan;Kristopher Hermkens. *Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media*. Business Horizons2011)

The most important aspect of the transformation of the people formerly known as publicity into active creators and disseminators of contents is the soothing easiness in creating of content. Therefore, social media, even perhaps still did not reach the full capacity of usage, besides they brought the changes to a macro-level, - *…exactly because the easiness of creating, and especially sharing, significantly change the micro world, i.e., every day of millions of users, everywhere in Earth. (Atanas Vangeli, Social media as enablers of hate speech*.http://mdc.org.mk/index.php?news=67 16 February 2011).

The characteristics of the social media, the possibility of anonymity, easy accessibility, possibility of interaction, all those thing which is possible to share through social media and can be socially connected, according to Atanas Vangeli, are the main components which make the social media foundation of spreading of hate speech. Examples of hate speech spread in Macedonia, are groups and pages as- Clean Macedonia, or Let us collect 10 000 000 people who hate Greece. Vangeli in his essay *Social Media as enablers of hate speech*, emphasizes plenty cheap phrases, low quality contents which do not satisfy the basic requirements of literature. According to him, these events in social media are not possible to be eradicate, but can be decreased with creative and in good will initiatives and actions of behavior of progressive groups.

The biggest research of social media in the world, the Wave, was initiated in 2006 aimed to measure the size and the influence of social media in the world. In 2014 the 7th edition of Wave was conducted. The understanding of the nature of social needs of every user, category and market is the key of creating of the successful experience in social media.

> - *Wave offers deep understanding of the wishes and motivations of consumers and is a real key of the understanding of social media and their users* (Darko Buldioski, *Wave- The biggest research of social media included Macedonia ,too* http://komunikacii.net/10/06/ 6.10.2011).

As a project of Universal McCan, Macedonia was included in 2012 for the first time. The research came to a result which only confirmed the importance and influence of the social media. Social networking is increasing and also the number of people practice it. According to it, in future the biggest influence will be in increase of the time people spend in social media. In this time, social networks are the most legitimate rival of all forms of media, and they will continue influencing especially on online communication. Last Wave 7 research tried to explore the social habits of the consumers in 72 countries. This research tells about five key elements to be basis of every consumer interaction and who are the motif and main reason of use of social media. That were: relations, redirection learning, progression and identification. According to it, the quick growth of mobile network usage result with the mentality of- all time online- and more and more connected consumers all around the world.

Social network web sites are social media directed to establishing virtual networks, people who share similar interests and ideas over the programme software. These services are located on web sites, providing most different interactions between participators, over transmission of messages, videos, usage of data basis, etc. By text messages a new way of socialization and communication had been created, the availability enlarge the circle of already existing friends and there become the possibility of sharing the personal interests with others. The number and the interest for their usage is growing day by day, even the exact data for number of text messages still do not exist. The biggest protests, as that one in America- Occupy Wall Street, were organized over the social networks, which show the size of involvement of the people, and their influence on the acts and informing of the citizens. Media these days cannot work without their pages in social networks, where their follower quicker than ever get the information presented there.

-*Social networks can give the structure to complex connections between different groups of individuals or organizations and are of great help during analysis of activities of the community and relations of actors, especially when we have great number of actors* (Six degrees of separation (on line): http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Six degrees of separation .(no date))

-Social network service is online service, platform or a web site which is focused to facilitation during upgrade of social networks or social relations between people who share interests, activities, or real connections (Social network service (online): http:// en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_network_service .(no date)).

The main characteristic of the network is that gives the opportunity to the users to manage their social networks and to make them visible for the others. By this, the users can connect to the other people that in no other case they could have been connected to, meetings who are in common between "latent" relations. Some text messages gives the opportunity to users to leave comments or private messages on their friends' profiles, share photographs and videos, others support technology of instant messaging. As mobile internet and mobile technology develops, more text messaging services support limited mobile interactions. Four things which gives the opportunity to the user to act are:

-Perseverance- content published online, automatically is recorded and archived-

- Repeatability- content made by parts can be duplicated,

- Searching possibility- volume of visibility of published content

- Adaptability- availability of the content through searching

The dynamics of the social networking web sites can be seen in:

-Invisible audience- audience is not always known, thus the users imagine it

- Collapsed context- lack of spiritual social and temporary borders, which make harder to maintain different contexts.

- Mixing of public and private- With no control over the context, public and private has no strict borders, adjusted to the new ways hardly can be seen as different.

2.1. Privacy of text messages

Looking at the way in which the society deal with the social- networking services, we could discover that the information in text messages are public and can be seen from everywhere.

-Today it seems that personal information of the users are revealed and become public data even on the web site who has control over the content and managed searching possibilities (Ralph Gross and Alessandro Acquisti, *Information Relevation and Privacy in Online Social Networks,* Proceedings of WPES'05 Alexandria, VA: Association of Computing Machinery.(Gross& Acquisti),2005).

Many people believe that the content and the information shared over text messaging is between public which are friends, even the audience is even broader. The user creates content for imaginary audience. This combination of the audience imagined by the user and the standards of the forming between peers creates the illusion of privacy. Participation in social media is standard publicly, and privately with an effort. Users easily publish online interaction which can be easily accessed and later they decide what to exempt from them. In everyday communication is the other way around, if you talk to someone privately, you decide whether this conversation is to be published and manage with the revealed content. For example, the user can manage who will see his posts on the status by some settings or even by dividing the friends in some groups and later to appoint what the groups can see from the posts. According to Danah M. Boyd *privacy is implicated into the ability of the users to control the impressions and to manage the interface of the social context*(Boyd Danah M. , Ellison Nicole B, Social Network Sites: Definition, History and Scholarship, Journal of Computer- Mediated Communication,13(1), article 11. http://jcmc.indiana.edu/vol13/issue1/boyd.ellison.html,USA, 2007)

Many people has no knowledge of the privacy of the text messages and in which way the companies and marketing people use their information starting from basic- gender, age, place of live, etc. and all way to information on their interests and pages and likes. In fact, it is not all about the individual privacy of the users, but the privacy of the network, her settings and how the legal regime is to be built to give the users control in privacy, and she could have the control at the same time, too.

2.2. Social networks in Macedonia

In Macedonia, more than one million of adult citizens are users of social networks, the research of the Institute of sociologic-legal researches had shown. Most of them use Facebook for fun and games, but for political activism as well. Students are the biggest population using internet, and lowest are farmers and retired persons.

In in 2005 in Macedonia bloggers could be counted in one hand, today yje biggest number of online contents in Macedonian language comes exactly from the blogs. *AIf in 2006 Facebook was available only to the students of the prestigious American Colleges, today we could not image young person of any province, and especially in Macedonia is not on Facebook*[1].

For every activism conducted over social networks a researching, mobilization, action is needed. Macedonian activists confirmed that they know the schedule, conducted more active movements and citizens' actions over the social networks. For example, Macedonian Twitters had organized through network and made Christmas tree from hundreds of plastic bottles to raise the awareness of the citizens for pollution, donated 9000 Macedonian Denars to help Aunt Svetlana etc. The protest "Stop for Violence", initiated with the death of Martin Neskovski, beaten to death by the Police, were organized over the social networks, and had a big response and lasted for many days in the capital of Macedonia.

3. Analysis of the data of the research

According to the analysis of the data of this research, Macedonian society do not deviate a lot in following the world trends in using of social networks. More precise, in Macedonia, as in the larger part of the world, internet communication conducted by social networks is performed mostly by young people aged 25-40.

Large number of the interviewed belongs to small organizations up to fifty employees. Most of them cooperate with experts out of their organizations. It is important to mention that most of their organizations are on one physical location, where the possibility of need of computer mediated communication is smaller because of possibility of tête-à-tête meeting. Environment and corporate climate of the interviewed representative from governmental sector is different from the others in number of employees and physical locations of where he is, which differs from the rest of the interlocutors. Most of organizations of the interviewees, because small hierarchical structure, has no appointed service for internal communication, or, else, think that such service is needed for their organizations, and because non-cost effectiveness of creating such network for the small number of employees. Unlike the other organizations, governmental sector beside upper mentioned differences possess formal social network, but in conclusion he does not fully manage it. Interviewees had stated that in their organizations prevails excellent organizational climate and interpersonal relations. Because of the type of the organization and the fact they do publishing mostly, and organizations interlocutors belong are consisted of experts where misunderstandings are seen as productive conflicts which are inevitable component for successful working of one organization. Organizations of the interviewees, even their structure number is small, use all forms of communication and do not favorite some special form of communication.

Depending on the situation and the needs, equally practice tête-à-tête, computer, group, or communication in focus groups.

It is necessary to emphasize that besides wide spread of social networks in communication between the employees, especially within an organization, communication face to face is irreplaceable and governs as a dominant way of communication during conduct of key working decisions within organzation.

We can conclude on the given answers that the social network in most of the cases during communication of the employees are used for team building, getting closer of the employees and building of positive working atmosphere. By this, the satisfaction of communication between employees grows bigger and their engagement is encouraged.

All interviewees agree that the internet environment and mobile internet changed a lot the way employees communicate and underline the importance and meaning of new media. As the advantage of new media and their use they underline the change in personal communication, interactivity, speed of sharing of information, the very interlocutors in their everyday life practically try to use the potential of those media.

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[1] *Atanas Vangeli, Social media as enablers of hate speech* http://mdc.org.mk/index.php?news=67 16 February 2011

One more positive reaction was got in view of influence of informal social networks in communication of organizations with external audience, and it was conclude that creation and promotion of some brand are tightly connected with the usage of social networks for promotion and everyday update of the public. From the received answers we conclude that one of the targets of marketing- agencies is to advertise their clients over the social networks. Social networks and its profiles as one of the interviewed said, represent an ideal tool of the companies for communication with the public audience. From finance perspective they represent money worth investment which does not require lots of money only good trained personnel for adequate management.

 With the answers the practice of use of social network services from private and state educational institutions had been analyzed, and it was seen that even they have similar statuses, they perform opposite practices. Private institutions are aware of the possibilities of the social networks, they practice it as an internal, and also for communication publicity, on the other hand the state educational institutions, even knowing the possibilities s for usage and the power, still fully do not use them, or they have not engaged adequate personnel which will manage with them. Even the educational institutions has their own internal social networks, employees and students prefer to use the informal like Facebook.

Interlocutors believed that the biggest benefits of social networks are quick sharing of formal and informal information and provide excellent two way communication in organizations. They believe that the employees over participating in text messaging can identify with the organization. It is good the reply of the interlocutor from the governmental sector to be emphasized, who underlined *that the participation and sharing of information by the employees by text messages, saying that this is not a process which can be ordered by decree , and cannot to be ordered to the employees to use the social networks for some reason.* This was mentioned because of the practice of individual employees and members of the parties in Macedonia who felt obliged to share given information even they do not agree with them.

The conclusion which comes as a result from the answers of the interlocutors, that in our organizations the access of the employees to the social networks id not forbidden on the working place, i.e. the employers rely on the good taste of employees that those will never misuse this given right. Governmental sector is different in this question and other than in formal networks, the right of access to informal is forbidden, even a small number of employees manages the profiles of communication with the publicity and because of the nature of their work has full access to them. Non-governmental sector who works on and explore this theme is engaged in protection of human rights on internet and restrictions not to become a rule applicable in our society. Interlocutor who come from the Macedonian Institute for Media thought that restrictions of the organizations for the social network is contra productive and influences on the satisfaction of the employees, Still, there is a consultation that easy access to the Internet and to text messaging over mobile telephones, employees can freely access there no matter on the rules proposed by the organizations.

Interlocutors have knowledge on the influence and the potential which are provided by the social network services, with and emphasize on technological revolution had brought even a cultural revolution in behavior and in space which unfortunately made a freedom which is not proportional with the way of organization of the society. According to them, Macedonia has no social maturity to make a connection to the development, awareness and this which was offered as a freedom over usage of text messages. Furthermore, all interlocutors agreed the usage of text messaging whole corporate climate in organization is improved. If not managed appropriately, in accordance to one of the interviewees, there are situations where social networks can be counterproductive taking off the attention of the employees, and destroying the concentration and we need to be careful during this interaction.

With regards the ethical culture in Macedonia while communicating over social networks, according to the answers of the respondents, we concluded that the most of employees in Macedonia level the culture in general, very little number can be aware that there were some rules while communicating over social networks. Representatives of the Macedonian Institute for Media which is actively involved in this subject tried to inform the public and to target it as a theme within experts' practice- shat ethical culture represents and how to practice it, in concrete example over cooperation with journalists, their training and education. All interviewees agreed that employees in their organizations possess ethical codex which is on very high level when we speak about text messaging.

Conclusion

Social media reaches all parts of the personal and business life. Republic of Macedonia did not stay behind of the world trends in usage of new ways of communication through the social networks. Social networks are free online services which

provide to users mutual communication, and also personal presentation in front of more than billion people. In many case studies in which the companies with quick and fast growth were analyzed, in few past years, was stated that big percent of those companies were active in social networks. Trends in investment in marketing for small and middle companies had shown that the social networks in the future will be even more represented in their communication and marketing activities. Marketing- managers believed that the social media were very important for building of new and maintaining already existing brands, and to have success in toady' s "maximally connected" world brands also should develop as "connected brands".

By that is had been thought on the brands which communicate to people when they want to, where they want to and on the way they want to, like the communication through social networks function. Companies explain that lately branded social applications become very popular, who characterize by many advantages over classical advertising on the Internet, as bigger exposition of the brand, stronger emotional effect, bigger efficiency of the investment. In past several years, the social media had grown into powerful and important tool for connection and communication between the employees, and also between the employees and the companies. By conducted research it had been proven that the participation of the employees in companies in Macedonia in formal and informal virtual networks, meaning all computer applications, and also the channels which transmit the communication and interaction of the employees, influences on the satisfaction of the employees in organizations and their influence on the corporate climate. Co-relation between the satisfaction during communication and overall satisfaction during work, productivity and loyalty to the organization is on the high level. High level of satisfaction of the employees during internal communication influences to growth of success of organizational working in Republic of Macedonia.

Electronic communication is not just a form, it is also a waken emotion of the recipient. On the list of positive effects from the social networking is measurability of the internet communication and also the possibility to quantify number of persons who were reached by the message. Social media gives the opportunity for two way communication and bigger interaction and individuality

Most of domestic experts agreed that in the Republic of Macedonia the virtual space is new, exciting and from creative aspect not explored enough, with great potential. Even we cannot not have in mind the faults, like unpleasant, even vulgar and insulting comments on the pages of the companies or on their brands, leading brands openly fought in virtual battle for the best position on search engines, on respectable internet pages or in a social networks.

Public relations can explicitly be understood as communication with the outer public, even though the employees, i.e. internal public in every organization represented the most important audience. The question how to communicate appropriately, efficient, and successful draws big professional and scientific attention and initializes theoretical and experimental analysis and researches. Internet communication plays an important role in the organizations, which can be noted from the examples of organizations which were successful thanks to the efficient strategies of communication, and the others are delayed in optimum results. Without communication there is no motivation, management, productivity, and no satisfaction of the employees. No identification of the employees with the organization brings no long run success in fulfillment of the mission and conduction of the strategy.

Informal communication is the communication which happens between the employees without planning or force. The need for this communication is in the connection with the need of the employees to be included in organizational flows, who can have consequences over them. That is very important for those who in formal hierarchy are not on the desired levels, so informal communication gives them information through informal channels and informal leadership. Because of this, the management considers it as inevitable necessity and believes that it should be limited because not complies with the organizational communication. Still, the informal communication is important aspect of the organizational life, and makes relaxed, pleasant climate and there is no need to be replaced with the efficient formal system.

The efficiency of the internal communication is expressed over the analysis of the communicational structure who includes the way of how the employees see the organizational culture, in the process of their sharing. The strategic planning and management of the communication is similar to the process of the strategic work planning which is performed by exploration of the environment, identification of the goals, definition of the publicity, making of the strategy, selection of the technique and tools for conducting of the strategies and tactics, and evaluation as well. Facing digital evolution, social networks and management with informational overload are supposed to be amongst the main problems and challenged in internal communication.

Team communication gives very important contribution in functioning of the organization, helping determine the goals, values and management strategies. By the intensity of working the need of well-coordinated teams of employees who function well occur, and that cannot be accomplished without informal dialogue and strong integration of the associates. There, social networks help a lot. Trust and in deep knowledge of characteristics of person is crucial in the moment when there is no time for formal communication, during quick exchange of information, role or position in the teams. Organizational culture id the key factor in bringing strategic decisions and she influences a great deal on the design of the organizational structure and the system of reward of the company and on the style of management.

The culture at the same time represents efficient mechanism for controlling and coordination of the employees and to a conflicts reduction. From the technology by who the internal communication is performed we can get relevant information of the socialization of the participants- members of the organization, and that can be used for her improvement. Social media provides global conversation in which anyone can be included, share thoughts, knowledge, ideas without time or geographical limitations. New media encourage the engagement of the employees, availability to relevant and return information. All tis contributes professional communicators to change and adapt the tactics and strategies of internal communication. Qualitative management withy electronic network records doe internal communication presents cost effective investment for the organization and her successful functioning and progress.

Having in mind the use of social media in communication between the employees, inevitable is to state that for that reason the social media in communication are used only in lager organizations. In smaller companies, those who has smaller and limited number of employees, tête-à-tête communication is still primary model of conversation between the employees. Even in those organizations, communication over e – mail is wide and constantly in use. Social network, still, are used in those organizations, but not as a mean of professional communication, but as a medium for team building of the employees.

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Restarting after Business Discontinuity among Bumiputra Small and Medium Enterprises

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Abstract

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) entrepreneurial activities are critical to nation's economic development and wealth creation. The governments provide both financial and non-financial assistances to support the development of these firms. Despite the government assistance, SMEs experience business discontinuity at the early stage of the firm development and unable to bounce back. Research on restarting after business discontinuity among SMEs is vital to enrich the existing literature in regards to firms' learning and survival ability, and improving their current strategy to compete and sustain in the market. The objective of this study is to identify the factors that contribute to restarting after business discontinuity among Bumiputra Small and Medium Enterprises. This study utilized the case study methodology and selected Bumiputra firms under Majlis Amanah Rakyat as the research setting. The study found that five factors, including personality, environment, internal factor, resilience, and spiritual belief contributed to restarting after business discontinuity among Bumiputra SMEs. These findings broaden the theory of firm failure in entrepreneurship studies and their relations to firm learning. These insights are useful for both entrepreneurs of new firms and policy makers to improve entrepreneurial learning in supporting firms' survival.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, firms' failures, business discontinuity, personality, environment, internal, resilience, and spiritual belief

1. INTRODUCTION

The business activities of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are vital for nations' economic development and wealth creation (Sebora, Lee, and Sukasame, 2009; Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2013). However, many SMEs failed to bloom and experience business discontinuity before their third anniversary (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2013). A study by Inyang and Enuoh (2009) found a high rate of entrepreneurs' failures in the face of governments' encouragement, financial assistance, and supports.

It is important to highlight that most firms' failures were small businesses and the failures occurred in the early stages of firm development. Reiss (2015) found that the failure rate of small businesses within the first five years was more than 50 percent. A study by Malaysian government agency revealed that most entrepreneurs had experienced business discontinuity at least once in the life time (Mason, 2015). The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2013) suggested sustainment of new entrepreneurs in the early development stages to avoid failure or business discontinuity.

Although firm's success has received significant research attention, the present knowledge about business discontinuity remains scant. In particular, the understanding of "how firm learn from failure, and restart their businesses" is inadequate.

Considering this, present research attempts to identify the factors that lead to restarting after business discontinuity among Bumiputra Small and Medium Enterprises in Malaysia. Not surprisingly, the studies related to SMEs predominantly focus on the firms' success than the firms' failure (Chittithaworn, Islam, Keawchana, and Yusuf, 2011; Minniti and Bygrave, 2001; Ng and Kee, 2012; Simpson, Tuck and Bellamy, 2004; Song, Podoynitsyna, Van Der Bij, and Halman, 2008). Research on firms' failure, particularly on restarting a business after business discontinuity among the SMEs is important to understand firms' learning and survival ability, and to improve their current strategy to compete and sustain in the market (Cope, 2011). Other researchers believe that failure should be interpreted in positive term rather than a negative one (Smith and McElwee, 2011). From a policy standpoint, failure of SMEs is an important area to focus, as there is a lack of policy formulated against entrepreneurs' failures and recovery (Storey, 1994). As such, there is a need to answer the question: "what factors contributed to SMEs' ability to restart their businesses after business discontinuity?" The present study is an effort to fill this gap in the literature.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the next section, theoretical underpinning is discussed followed by methodology utilized in this study. Case study approach has been discussed further along with results and discussion. Finally, implications, conclusion and future research directions are also highlighted.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Underpinning Theories

This study is underpinned by entrepreneurship theory, entrepreneurship psychological theory and entrepreneurship motivation theory.

2.1.1 Entrepreneurship Theory

Entrepreneurship refers to entrepreneurial activity in which firms through their entrepreneurs take chances without being tied to available resources (Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990). Entrepreneurs develop resources through learning and synergistic (Burgelman, 1983; Kuratko and Welsch, 2001; Leibstein, 1968; Stewart, 1989; Venkatraman, McMillan and McGrath, 1990). Entrepreneurship entails entrepreneurs in promoting change and innovation expressed through new combinations of resources, and introducing new methods of doing business (Burgelman, 1983; Schumpeter, 1934). All definitions of entrepreneurship imply actions. Thus, entrepreneurship implies that entrepreneurs act to change the market and this often comes about detecting and establishing the opportunities (Schumpeter, 1935). In summary, the entrepreneurs are active actors in the market.

The actions of the entrepreneurs are related to the psychological and motivational factors to start an organization (Gartner, 1989). Entrepreneurship also involves discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities (Shane and Venkatraman, 2000). In the book of The General Theory of Entrepreneurship, Shane (2003) outlines view general theory and label it as 'individual opportunity nexus' approach. This approach is also known as the 'Discovery Theory of Entrepreneurship' (Shane, 2003). There is an alternative general theory of entrepreneurship called the 'Creation Theory of Entrepreneurship' (Anderson, 2005; Venkatraman, 2003). All of these theories related to human actions towards the entrepreneurial activity.

2.1.2 Entrepreneurship Psychological Theory

Entrepreneurial psychological is part of the entrepreneurial actions in formulating strategies for organization's success (Dess, Lumpkin, and Covin, 1997). Entrepreneurs gained competitive advantage by implementing entrepreneurial actions through innovation and risk-taking (Miller and Friesen, 1982). Miller (1983) proposed a theory of entrepreneurship action by combining actions of an organization through innovation, risk taking, and acts proactively. Another important variable in entrepreneurship activity is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy has become a highly effective predictor for motivation and learning for the past two decades (Zimmerman, 2000). Schwarzer (2014) argues that entrepreneurs who beliefs that they can take actions to solve some problem are better off and cope well with setbacks including business discontinuity.

Proactive attitude is closely related to the discovery and creation of new resources in the niche (March, 1991; Lumpkin and Dess, 2001). Innovation is the root in the entrepreneurial process (Schumpeter, 1934; Drucker, 1985). Self-efficacy is the

one's ability to implement necessary resources, competencies and skills to achieve a certain level of achievement (Bandura, 1977). The concept of risk-taking by Brockhaus (1980) is associated with an entrepreneurial process when a firm is always ready to engage in risk-taking in business after making certain arrangements. This concept means that the firm is always willing to engage with a number of commitments to specific resources to achieve higher returns on the transactions that are not identified and novel (Brockhaus, 1980; Miller, 1983; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996).

2.1.3 Entrepreneurship Motivation Theory

Motivation plays an important part in the entrepreneurial activity. The entrepreneurship motivation theory relates to the internal and environmental factors of entrepreneurial activity. Generally, firms' entrepreneurial activities were surrounded by elements that interacted and affected entrepreneur's decision-making and behaviour (Shane, Locke and Collins, 2003). Aldrich and Zimmer (1986) suggest that a business can be viewed from internal and environmental factors. Specifically, according to Murphy, Trailer, and Hill (1996), firms' internal performances were measured by financial efficiency, growth, profitability, size, liquidity, success or failure, market share, and leverage.

The environment includes political factors, market forces, technology regime, market size and potential barriers to entry (Baumol, 1990). The political factors are such as legal restrictions, quality of law enforcement, political stability, and currency stability (Baum et al., 2001). The market forces are the structure of the industry and population demographics. This motivation theory includes resources in the entrepreneurship action (Locke, 2000). The resources are available in term of capital, labour, infrastructure, and technology (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; 1997). Researcher agreed that the categories of internal and environmental factors influence the entrepreneurial process (Shane and Venkantraman, 2000).

2.2 Business Discontinuity and Restarting Businesses

According to Ulmer and Neilson (1947) as cited in Stanton and Tweet (2009), business discontinuity exists because of personal reasons such as illness or death of business owner, retirement, or selling the business to make profit. Failure was also associated with bankruptcy, insolvency, crisis, trouble, decline in performance, liquidation, project failure, distress, crashing, accounting practices, system failure, and being non-performance (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). McKenzie and Sud (2008) defined entrepreneurs' failures as a diversion from the entrepreneur's desired objectives and expectations. On the other hand, Hisrich, Peters, and Shepherd (2005) referred failure in terms of personal emotion associated with frustration, anxiety, hard work, and enthusiasm. Friedman (2004) stated that entrepreneurs who were overwhelmed with feelings of reduce self-esteem and incompetence, could quit from innovating and creating new ideas. More studies are needed to study business discontinuity among SMEs (Inyang and Enuoh, 2009; Gaskill, Van Auken and Manning, 1993; Pretorius, 2008; Shepherd, 2003; Jim and John, 1996) especially in the area of restarting from business discontinuity.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2013) defines business discontinuity as firms' failures that decrease the economic growth in the early development stages. The study also found that business discontinuity is related to unprofitable businesses and problems in obtaining financing. Most of firms' failures led to serious financial difficulty that caused insolvency, business discontinuity, (Liou and Yang, 2008; Shepherd, 2003) and bankruptcy (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2013; Liou and Yang, 2008; McGrath, 1999; Shepherd and Haynie, 2011; Zacharakis, Meyer and De Castro, 1999). Studies on firms' failures were not widespread and less reviewed which required extended research (Pretorius, 2008; Shepherd, 2003). Scholars asserted that understanding business failure provides businesses with knowledge through learning of others experiences (Carter and Van Auken, 2006; Hamrouni & Salem, 2013; Pretorius and Le Roux, 2011; Ucbasaran, Shepherd, Lockett and Lyon, 2013). Thus, more studies are needed on firms' failures (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2013; Pretorius, 2008; Shepherd, 2003; Singh, Corner and Pavlovich, 2007), specifically on how they restart after experiencing business discontinuity (Hamrouni and Salem, 2013; Ucbasaran et al., 2013).

2.3 Factors Contributing to Restarting after Business Discontinuity among SMEs

2.3.1 Personality Factors

Korunka, Leuger and Mugler (2003) argued that entrepreneur personality is vital for entrepreneurial intentions to start a new business and success. Benson and Han, 2011) argued that personality characteristics could influence the quality of decision making. This includes the decision to restart businesses after business discontinuity. The entrepreneurial personality is described as a specific pattern of more action-related characteristics (Korunka et al., 2003). McGrath's (1999) study focused on the human elements such as entrepreneur's personality, traits, and qualities. In this study, personality refers to proactive, self-efficacy, innovative and risk-taking (Bandura, 1977; Miller, 1983; Schwarzer, 2000; Zimmerman, 2000).

2.3.2 Internal factors

Rozell et al. (2010) stated that internal factors of entrepreneurs are associated with elements such as business resources, motivated entrepreneurs, industry knowledge, technology, planning skills, communication skills, interpersonal skills and risk taking. Awais and Manzoor Arain (2011) added two internal factor which are start up planning and learning from business failure. While, Azmi, Nik Hairi, Lee, and Fauziah (2012) argued that professional coaching is important as one of the internal factors. However, Audet and Couteret (2012) argued that successful entrepreneurs enjoy coaching in running the business, while entrepreneurs that experienced business failure desire consultation rather than coaching. Thus, theses internal factors influence firms' success as well as failure. Over the years, various studies on internal factors focus on the management, resources, operations but little study on the financial needs (Abdullah, Hamali, Rahman Deen, Saban, and Zainoren, 2009; Liou and Yang, 2008). The financial need is essential for entrepreneurial activities and business grows (Liou and Yang, 2008). In this study, internal factors refer to management, human resource, operational, production and financial aspects.

2.3.3 External factors

Finally, Chen (2010) found that the main factor that influenced entrepreneurial activity was environment. Environment is defined as the factors that affect the social dynamics of the situation (Abdullah, et al., 2009). Environment plays an important role in influencing the actions of an individual. The environment elements included changes in politics environment (Foster and Dye, 2005), government policies and bureaucracy (Abdullah, et al., 2009), poor market conditions (Shepherd, 2003), positions of the overall economy (Abdullah, et al., 2009), negative societal attitude (Strotman, 2006 as cited in Singh, 2011) and the latest technologies (Wanberg and Banas, 2000). In addition, firms also faced other pressures such as recession, internet crime, imitation and extreme weather conditions (Taylor and Thorpe, 2004; Sheffi and Rice Jr., 2005). In this study, environment factor is defined as the political, economic, social and technologies changes.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study employed an explanatory case study methodology to examine the factors that lead to restarting a business among Bumiputra SMEs after experiencing business continuity. Following the eight steps in the theory development process, as in Eisenhardt (1989) and Yin (2009), the study established the research question, which is "*What factors that lead to business discontinuity?* The case study protocol containing the interview questions was developed and in-depth interviews were conducted with four founders who are also the lead entrepreneurs of Bumiputra SMEs. The case was developed in a chronological format and data were analyzed using the time-based and stage-based analysis method. Then, the theoretical propositions and analytic generalization were established. The identification of variables that influenced the restarting after business discontinuity was also being recognized. Finally, the model and construct development are iterative and comparison between the findings of the study and literature is necessary to establish internal validity.

4. CASE STUDY

This section provides a brief description of each case.

4.1 Case No. 1: Fatihah Frozen Food Pvt. Ltd.

Mrs Fatihah Anis Ibrahim (subsequently known as Mrs Fatihah) founded Fatihah Frozen Food Pvt. Ltd. (FFF) in 1994. The business started as a home based business specialized in frozen food. The products of FFF were Malaysian pastry and delicacies. In 1994, FFF obtained its first initial capital of RM200, 000 through SME Bank and operated at the industrial area at Selaman, Bangi. The location was not suitable for a food factory and in 1997, FFS moved to Taman Industri Sri

Haneco, Semenyih, Kajang with ten staffs. Using the loan facility from SME Bank, Mrs Fatihah purchased food processing machinery and equipment.

There was a recession in 1997 and production was dramatically reduced. FFF suffered a huge loss. The business was faced with a closure if failing to repay the loans. The machinery and factory equipment had to be sold, and the operation stopped. However, the sales of the machinery and factory equipment ware were well below its purchase price, which resulted in substantial losses and FFF nearly became insolvent.

To continue the business, in 1998, Mrs Fatihah applied for and received a recovery grant of RM50,000 from Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA) – government agency that help Bumiputra (native) entrepreneurs. Six months later, FFF received an additional working capital of RM195,000 from MARA. The economy picked up in 1998 and the business once again became profitable. In 2010, MARA offered FFF to move to its food industrial area located in Batu Caves, Selangor with an affordable of RM5,000 monthly rent with two plus two years renewal contract. Started with five staff, FFF had now hired 20 staffs.

From 1994 to 2014, FFF had received nearly RM1 billion in term of government financial and non-financial assistances. The assistance came from SME Bank, MARA and TEKUN. The supports included training, advisory, and business grant. In 2010, FFF was awarded with Good Manufacturing Practice (GMP) and HACCP certifications.

4.2 Case No. 2: Safa Bakery and Cafe
Ikhwan Bakery was a long-established, family-owned bakery business. At one time, Ikhwan Bakery had five bakery shops and kiosks in all the main towns such as Langkawi, Pantai Dalam, Pantai Baru, Bangsar, and Batu Caves.

Over the period from 1996 to 2008, the firm's performance deteriorated and its profits dwindled. The management did not look for reasons of dwindling firm's performance and took no decisive steps to win back the business, which was steadily losing. The management's only serious response to the firm declining sales and turnover was to consolidate its resources and assets. The management closed the other four bakery shops, and left with one shop in year 2000. Things got worse, the entrepreneur Mr Ikhwan was faced with a lots of personal liability and he was declared a bankrupt in 2011.

In 2012, Mrs Sharifah, wife of Mr Ikhwan, decided to take over Ikhwan Bakery to save the bakery shop. This was due to her affection for bakery business that she had built together with the husband for 18 years. In the beginning, she sought help from her friends to raise capital. Mrs Sharifah persuaded her friend, Mrs Siti Fatimah, to be a business partner in running the bakery business. Mrs Siti Fatimah agreed and she gave in RM25, 000 for initial capital. Several months later after realising that she had limited experience in the business, Mrs Sharifah sought business advice from MARA. One of MARA suggestions was to change the bakery name after bad reputation of Ikhwan Bakery. Ikhwan Bakery changed its name to Safa Bakery and Cafe in September 2012.

Safa Bakery and Cafe produced more than twenty varieties of bread and pastry. The firm's specialties were chocolate doughnuts, cream puff, chicken roll and tuna bread. In June 2014, MARA approved RM100, 000 loans for Safa Bakery under its Entrepreneur Technical Program. The loan facility helped Safa Bakery to improve its processing ability in order to compete in a wider market.

4.3 Case No. 3: Sharifah Norizan's Boutique

Mrs Sharifah Norizan owned a boutique business located at MARA Hall, Kuala Lumpur. The boutique shop was established in 2001 and run for a few years without significant commercial success. The boutique specialised in sewing men and women traditional clothing. The boutique received orders from individuals, government agencies, and non-government organizations (NGO). In 2004, the boutique added two more staffs and achieved a profit margin of 40 percent per year. Since that, business started to grow but she needed to invest in new sewing machines due to customers' requirement. Mrs Sharifah sought help from TEKUN (government agency in providing micro loan) and received RM3,000 loan facilities for sewing machine.

In 2005, Mrs Sharifah was hit by a series of personal problems. At the height of it, she drained up her saving and ended up her marriage. Unable to pay for shop rental, she decided to close down the boutique. However, she continued to take orders from customers and worked from home. On weekdays, she had taken another job at a hotel to supplement the income.

In 2011, she remarried and started the boutique business again. Using her own saving, she rented one of MARA business premises. To upgrade her business knowledge, she attended related training programs regularly in sewing, motivational, and entrepreneur development organized by MARA. To date, Mrs Sharifah had coached three of her staffs and opened up two new branches.

4.4 Case Study 4: Dianty Photo Enterprise

Dianty Photo Enterprise (Dianty Photo) enjoyed 30 percent of profit margin since 1988 specializing in photography business. In 1990, the trend shifted to digital photography. At the time, its sole supplier, Kodak, was unable to keep pace with the changing technology shifting from film to digital photography. With less order on film photography, Dianty Photo was unable to generate positive cash flow and had to stop operation for six months. Believed that she can bounce back, Ms Dianty resumed and re-strategized the business later that year. In 1995, Dianty Photo received RM30, 000 loans from MARA to purchase digital photography equipment. Dianty Photo also established technical collaboration with two suppliers, Fuji and Canon in year 2000.

Ms Dianty realized that Dianty Photo had few new customers. In 2010, Ms Dianty planned to diversify her business. With starting capital of RM40, 000, Dianty Photo then transformed into a learning centre known as Dianty Academy. Dianty Academy offered certification courses in photography and to date, the academy had trained 420 photographers. She believed that Dianty Academy's quality in learning would give an edge to compete in the market.

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The study found that personality, environment and internal factors contribute to restarting after business discontinuity among Bumiputra Small and Medium Enterprises. Two new factors which are resilience and spiritual belief were also identified as factors that lead to restarting after business discontinuity.

5.1 Personality Factor

All cases were seen proactive in taking steps to restart business. All cases viewed business discontinuity in a more positive way and this led them to be more proactive after restarting the business. In addition, Case 1 and Case 4 admitted to have more confidence in their ability to run a business successfully because of the business discontinuity. Case 2 did not have the confidence at first when restart the business. Her partner helped her to facilitate and restart the business. In term of innovativeness, all cases found new ideas for their business. In addition, some cases were seen to rely more on informal way such as observation and past experiences. Case 1 and 2 frequently came up with new recipes for their products by observing or customer request. In term of self-efficacy, all the cases had the ability to recognise their strengths in knowing what could go wrong in a business and what to do when business discontinued. Case 1, 3 and 4 admitted that they were willing to take risk in the future. They believed that experiencing business discontinuity made them more confident in their ability to deal with any circumstances in future. Case 1, 2 and 3 also perceived themselves as more mature and wiser after having gone through with business discontinuity.

5.2 Environment factor

Changes in the environment presented opportunities to all the cases. With National Development Policy (1990-2000) was in place, variety of supporting mechanisms and policies were established to assist entrepreneurs. These include funding, business grant, physical infrastructure, entrepreneurship programs, and business advisory services. In the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006-2010), SMEs' development were given top priority included improving Bumiputera SMEs entrepreneurial and technical capabilities. Through MARA, all the cases benefited from the ongoing policy. With financial assistance and other support mechanisms, the firms abled to find new grounds after business continuity, and grow their businesses.

5.3 Internal factor

All the cases were quicken to uptake their management skills to steer away from business discontinuity. Case 1, 2 and 3 were attending workshop and development programs to enhance management and operational skills while Case 4 established collaborations with different technical partners to manage its technology source.

All the cases took an advantage of MARA funding scheme to build and expand operational and production ability. In general, financial resources were seen as catalyst to speedy recovery for all the cases to come out from business continuity. In Case 1, initial funding from MARA enabled the firm to jump up the operation and financed the working capital. In Case 2, a loan from MARA expanded the firm's processing and production ability to cater a wider market. In Case 4, a loan from MARA was used to diversify firm's business and thus, resulted in increased number of its customers.

5.4 Resilience

All the four cases were seen to have resilience towards business continuity. In Case 1 and Case 2, Mrs Fatihah and Mrs Sharifah found of their inner strength and inspiration in their children to restart the business. Mrs Fatihah and Mrs Sharifah felt that they needed to carry on the business so that the future of their children was not jeopardized. In Case 1, after nearly being insolvent, Mrs Fatihah was determined to restart the business even with much less equipment and machineries. In Case 2, Mrs Sharifah felt obligated to take over the business from her husband even though she had little experience in running a bakery shop. In Case 3, failing in her marriage and business gave Ms Sharifah Norizan much strength to face and cope with difficulties. In Case 4, Ms Dianty found her confidence in dealing with everyday challenges.

Resilience influenced the cases' manner in which the cases perceived business discontinuity as the making process to help them stay survive to restart the business. Thus, resilience plays an important part in repairing the business discontinuity (Gillespie, Chaboyer, and Wallis, 2007).

5.5 Spiritual Belief

Another key outcome in this finding was spiritual belief. All the cases professed that spiritual belief influenced the way they perceived and dealt with the business discontinuity. Spiritual belief was the caring presence and understanding of the higher power, which is God. All the cases translated the experience of grief due to business continuity into soul-searching quest. With much solace, all the cases demonstrated calmness in their business and everyday life. With calmness, all the cases started to rebuild their businesses and faced the challenges brought by it. All the cases believed that spiritual beliefs provided spaces to reflect and pull themselves together. Through spiritual belief, all the cases found healing from the pain of business discontinuity, and strength to adapt and restart the business.

As conclusion, resilience and spiritual beliefs were the added key outcomes of all the four case studies. All the cases learnt that no matter how difficult the circumstances such as business discontinuity and marital problems, these were only temporary and they can survive such episodes in life with the right attitude. Dealing with this unexpected and difficult transitional period made the cases feel more confident in their ability to cope with any situations in future.

6. IMPLICATIONS

This study provides a number of recommendations for practitioners and policy makers. First, current policies on financial and non-financial supports for SMEs who experienced business discontinuity should include not only financial backing but also access to psychological and social support (Singh et al., 2007). Secondly, Bumiputra SMEs should strive to improve their entrepreneurial knowledge and skills. This can be done by attending entrepreneurship courses, seminars and conventions organized by government or related parties. Bumiputra entrepreneurs also need to be alert and always keep up with the current external factors such as consumer changing buying pattern, substitute products, new competitors, and decreasing purchasing power. They also need to be aware of the various schemes and support system provided by various

government agencies such as the Ministry of Rural Development, Ministry of Agriculture and government agencies including Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA), TEKUN and other agencies.

New economic development such as k-economy, e-commerce, and electronic marketing are examples of reforms that need to be known and studied by Bumiputra entrepreneurs. This may enrich the business management, diversification of production and marketing techniques, strengthening business networks, exploration of new business opportunities, delivering quality products and services. Bumiputra entrepreneurs should seek professional advice in dealing with business problems and challenges from parties such as MARA, FAMA, MARDI, MEDEC or business associations.

Training needs analysis among Bumiputra entrepreneurs need to be undertaken to identify critical needs faced by Bumiputra entrepreneurs in Malaysia. Studies at the state or national level need to be done as problems faced by Bumiputra entrepreneurs may vary by region, age, and background. The diversity of economic sectors such as agriculture, livestock, business, crafts, tourism actually requires different training needs analysis. Entrepreneurship education includes the skills, knowledge, and attitudes to enable individuals with problem solving skills. According to Ibrahim and Soufani (2002), effective training and education can reduce business failure. Not only that, training is also very important for an entrepreneur to succeed in the competition and develop a business strategy (Webster, Walker, and Brown, 2005).

7. CONLCUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTION

The study broadens the understanding of factors that contribute to restarting after business discontinuity among SMEs. These factors include personality, environment, internal factors, resilience, and spiritual belief. It is expected that, the findings and discussions of this study would serve as a departing point for future research. There is substantial need to study the resilience and spiritual belief in restarting after business discontinuity among Small and Medium Enterprise (SMEs). Therefore, it is suggested that further research should be conducted to examine SMEs entrepreneur's resilience and spiritual beliefs in the context of restarting after business discontinuity. By examine these two factors; it would expand the primary view of resilience and spiritual beliefs in organizing theory literature.

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Biographical Narratives in Teaching: a Study of Professors on Postgraduate Courses

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Abstract

Literature and research have shown that professional development constitutes an essential dimension in constructing both work and professional identity. An important aspect in such development is training. In the field of adult education, different authors (Pratt, 1993; Mezirow, 1985; Schön, 1996; Silva, 2007) emphasize the importance of placing trainees at the center of the learning and cognitive processes and within their corresponding social and historical contexts. Training is supported by a comprehensive adult learning theory. Therefore, the acquired knowledge is not only the result of an external and objective reality but also of a complex construction in which the appropriation of experience plays a relevant role. This paper reveals the findings obtained through biographical narratives in a five-year work program with teachers at different levels (from pre-school to higher education) on postgraduate courses. The core issue is the importance of biographical narratives, as an identification strategy for personal experience, knowledge construction and professional identity. This strategy provided the opportunity for recognition of practical experience, as a provider of learning, as well as his/her own authorship, which are important conditions in the understanding of professional identity.

Keywords: Biographical narratives, Teaching, Experiential learning, Professional identities

1. Introduction

This text focuses on the process of training that has been experienced over five years during the teaching of a particular discipline in an academic postgraduate university course. The setting is in the area of the training of adults and professionals, who predominantly work in the field of education and teaching, that is to say, it is related to a discipline integrated in a Masters in Educational Sciences course that specializes in Curriculum Development and whose students are mainly teachers at various levels of education from pre-school to higher education.

When planning the syllabus of the discipline various aspects were taken into consideration. These aspects included the characteristics of the students, the designation of the discipline and the meaning attributed to them. Taking into account these elements, the course staff were not indifferent to the pedagogy for adults (Knowles, 1984, 1986; Pratt, 1993) with its specific characteristics and demands, which the trainers sought to highlight in the conception and implementation of the syllabus. As an essential aspect of the training plan, there was a preoccupation with placing the students - the subjects of the training - at the center of the learning and cognitive process with the topics located and situated in social and historical contexts (Pratt, 1993). That is, the training plan was underpinned by a comprehensive theory of adult learning (Mezirow, 1985) in which the structuring of experience had a fundamental place and, consequently, knowledge did not only result from an objective and external reality but also from a complex construction in which the trainee had an essential role (Silva, 2003).

In this way, it is possible to emphasize three elements of the syllabus of the discipline that are considered relevant: its content, its methodology and its evaluation. The reason for highlighting them is not because of the elements themselves, since they are part among other components of the conception and implementation of any educational or training syllabus, but because of the form and content that each one of these elements took, which had never been tried out with students in previous training situations.

Our proposition resulted in an investment in formative interventions distanced from merely cognitive and instrumental rationality. We sought really to develop instances of the piloting of well-considered moves and of the development of networks of complex and diversified interactions (Silva, 2004, 2015a, 2015b; Lepisto, Cronina and Pratt, 2015), which contributed to the adaptation of the complexity of the personal and socio-professional systems.

We focused on the challenges of teaching-learning experience training and especially on issues concerning the preferred methodologies in order to reflect the 'subject capable of taking advantage of situations' - according to the analytical proposition of Pastré (2011) - of his personal and professional experiences and recognize, as empirical knowledge, knowledge that is built throughout time not only socially but above all biographically (Dubar, 2004; Silva, 2015b). In this process, the work to turn the spoken or written narrative into usable content (Ricoeur, 1986; Gonçalves, 2000), where the work of each of pronouncement is to explain or to explain to better understand themselves, is recognized as the work of authorship. Furthermore, it is essential work for the discovery of their experience, as it leads to the possibility to know and evidence the epistemic status of (his/her) experience.

2. Methodology

The presentation about the discipline identified discusses – in a succinct way – the various pedagogical aspects that characterized it; namely, its purpose, aims and methodology. These were as follows: "The Curricular Unit Identity(ies), Training and Non-Formal Learning takes lifelong training-learning as an area for discussion and critical analysis and particularly non-formal learning. This area will not only be an object of study external to the actors involved in the process of post-graduate training but will also result in a system of self-analysis of the training-learning processes of the participants and of their (re)construction of identity(ies). It will favor an analytical and critical perspective of content and fundamental participative dynamics in order to develop and strengthen the self-analytical and self-critical dimension, which encourages the identification of training pathways and learning situations" (Silva, 2010). In this sense, a methodology based on the constructivist paradigm was favored with an emphasis on the biographical narrative method (Délory-Momberger, 2004).

2.1. Objetives

The general objective of the pedagogical work was to develop and strengthen the self-analysis and self-criticism dimension for the identification of the training pathways and important learning situations throughout the training and professional path. For this they had to define some specific objectives; namely, i) to identify their professional pathways, contexts and learning situations; ii) to articulate their professional and identity dynamics and the processes for the production of knowledge; iii) to produce a written and reflective work focusing on learning situations in both formal and non-formal contexts.

2.2. Population

A total of 70 post-graduate students attending Master and Doctoral courses in Sciences of Education at the University of Minho participated in the study. The majority of the students were teachers (95%) from pre-school to higher education, as mentioned earlier, and they were mainly female (93%) and Portuguese nationals (90%). However, throughout the five years of the implementation of this program of training students with Brazilian, Angolan and Mozambican nationalities also attended the discipline.

2.3 Methods

The pedagogical work, which was carried out in an academic training context, focused on (self)reflective work about the contexts of the lives of the trainees and those that organized the process of self-training and co-operative training.

Work included the construction of an individual portfolio throughout the semester for presentation at the end of the semester and it included the production of three short written individual narratives for submission during the semester. The first

narrative concerned *learning and training experiences*, the second *lived professional identity and attributed identity* and the third *socio-professional dynamics and construction of identity(ies)*.

The analysis and results presented are based on our experience of teaching and learning in the academic context of higher education and the qualitative analysis of various documents, both by the trainees (including biographical accounts and portfolios) and by the trainers. We will highlight the pedagogical factors, the learning process and the self-discovery in the personal and professional careers of the trainees, which had an impact on their personal and professional development.

This maxim was the point of departure and arrival. It was like a place of embarkation for a journey to be taken together by the trainers and trainees and where to return to at the end. It was a great pedagogical challenge!

With the objective of accomplishing this challenge some of the elements of the pathway were revisited, particularly elements inherent to the pedagogical process, which are essential in the process of (self)discovery and development.

In this way the content of the work is presented and it included the evaluation of the process, the learning of the trainees and the favored methodology. These three elements were united in the form that articulated the major pedagogical challenges and through them the (self)discovery, while the people and professionals fulfilled themselves by taking on an inevitable inter-dependence.

The content that was put into perspective from the beginning was like an aphorism for investigation, questioning, reflection and discovery. This field, as the focus that is going to guide its observers, is more than an object of external study for the actors involved in the process of training, as it constitutes a system of self-analysis of their own training-learning processes and (re)construction of identity(ies).

Returning to the image of the port of embarkation, it is important to emphasize three maxims with which the journey is usually started. The first is the belief of Pineau (2004, p. 14), when he stated that "training times are too important to be only institutional training". This is a recurring maxim throughout the journey, and one that comes and goes continuously between the prospect and the process of reflection and (self)reflection of each actor about his/her own pathway.

The second is directly associated with the first and is reflected in the commitment: "to the discovery of non-institutional training times". Each trainee was invited to reveal their training periods by going over their own, personal and professional biography.

The third is a commitment to 'authorship', through the adoption of his/her emergence, as a witness to his/her individual passage from the condition of being the object to the condition of being the subject of a project (Gonçalves, 2000).

1. Results
3.1. The pedagogical challenges

The pedagogical challenges often left doubts for the students, who saw, as manifold, the challenges that they themselves raised and who were permeated with enthusiasm, uncertainty and apprehension. Taking up the perspectives and expectations of the trainees with respect to the discipline, two female students made the following statements about its purposes:

> "The presentation of the curricular unit looked attractive to me. I confess that, on the same day, I commented to a friend: "This subject was made for me! ... I am going to thrive with it!." … For this reason, I had no hesitation in taking the option". (Student Portfolio, academic year 2010/2011).

> "To participate in this Curricular Unit meant for me at that moment, the possibility of being rescued from a subterranean chamber" (Student Portfolio, academic year 2010/2011).

It was possible to frequently 'read' – in a certain sense 'foretell' - in the attitudes and commitments assumed by the students (at least by the majority of them) that their option had a significant added value for them, as people and professionals and not only as pure trainees. There was, therefore, in some way a 'tacit' but also an explicit commitment, which they adopted as trainees in order to contribute to their growth, as people and professionals.

This is a central condition and a demanding commitment, which - for some - is more important and more significant than for others but which everyone always recognized as essential:

"… to tell, as an author, is not easy and it demands of us a position of detachment and self-reflection that infers the condition of being responsible for our faults, weaknesses and self-assuming conflicts, which are important for the building up of our lived and attributed identities" (Student Portfolio, academic year 2010/2011).

These maxims, which were presented at the start of the journey, were kept in mind throughout the journey and were the links uniting the content, methodology and evaluation process. The methodology of evaluation, which they received with a mixture of curiosity and perplexity throughout the different years of the course, for the trainees had results that were innovative, interesting and appropriate for the learning process that they decided to undertake. Also it assumed the commitment of co-operation and of continuous feedback in the face-to-face sessions and in the written commentaries in each one of the narratives delivered by the trainees on the dates that they agreed, as a group, in the first working session. This was an essential condition in the construction of authorship and in the production of knowledge in interaction but also an important element for the progressive acquisition of self-confidence in the unique and (self)reflective processes that each trainee was generating.

As they always stressed, it was a totally unknown journey for them. For they also assumed command, as authors, of their own learning and of the production of new knowledge. They needed to learn to confide in themselves and to have 'anchors of support', incentives, (re)direction and questioning. This was our essential work throughout the journey. Even more of a challenge for the trainers was that many times they were confronted, interrogated and questioned by the students and it was necessary for them to give appropriate feed-back at the right time. The trainers were pleased, when they received the opinions of the students, about the impact of their comments. These were moments of (self)discovery and mutual growth - both personal and professional. As one female trainee stated at the 'end of the journey:'

"What can be said about this journey that started tentatively and with high expectations? What balance did I make of these months during which I was called upon to reflect on, to comment critically about and to analyze carefully and pertinently about all that surrounded me, being aware that the training emerges out of multiple contexts and is not limited by formal, institutionalized training? …

This journey now ended but marked by joy, surprises and doubts, made me understand, like a poetic person, "what is important is to start, not to arrive" (see the poem Viagem (Voyage) by Torga) …

On balance, I consider that the making of this portfolio constitutes an important moment for my professional and also my personal development.

… it was an opportunity to 'visit' dark alleyways that now are illuminated … it was a way of descending to my depths and finding lost reminiscences in the ship of my fantasies, aspects that helped me in the process of writing and that reflected my characteristics of identity …

Therefore, the writing about my person and professional experiences…the writing of this portfolio made it possible for me, without doubt, to experience feelings of joy and calmness, which did not always happen when we carried out work of a scientific nature" (Student Portfolio, academic year 2005/2006).

This last statement highlighted with clarity something essential in the learning experience and in the value of knowledge, which the writing of Sousa Santos (1988, p. 54-55) also underlines. In other words, "the quality of knowledge is evaluated less by knowledge that controls or functions in the outside world than by the satisfaction that it gives to who gets access and shares it. (…) This way – subjectively again - scientific knowledge shows how to live and results in practical knowledge".

At the end of each journey, working jointly with the group of trainees, their uniqueness is reviewed. Despite always leaving from the same portal, each one is permeated with doubts and surprises that have helped the author to explore other horizons and to run the risk of new challenges.

3.2. The process of discovery and authorship

The assumption of authorship in the process of training-learning is, as has already been mentioned, a fundamental commitment, which places the trainees at the centre of the learning process. In this sense, it gives them "on the one hand, the assignment of a sense of a complex reality, an assumption of what is not the cognitive, affective and social story of

anyone else (Barth, 1996) and, on the other hand, his/her mobilization for the self generation of his/her own life (Pineau, 1983), by using him/herself as a resource in the process of training and learning (Charlot, 1997)" (Silva, 2003, p.60).

This mobilizing of the adult, who assumes his/her own responsibility for training and learning, takes as its point of departure the statement of Pineau (2004, p.14) mentioned earlier. An assumption that the trainees generally recognize as particularly important in their process of self-discovery, as is indicated in the following records:

> "…this week, the quotation of Gaston Pineau, the paired work about the recovery of memory of knowledge and, afterwards, writing my "Personal Narrative" and "(In)Visibility of Training and Learning: Knowledge, Experiences and Authorship" made me clearly understand that this was the way that I hoped for my professional reconstruction – I did not only hope that the reconstruction would also be personal – it was, perhaps, even larger and deeper than I could have imagined …

> Throughout the path that now emerged I perceived not only the profundity of the questions but also the importance of this type of work" (Student Portfolio, academic year 2007/2008).

The inclusion of experiential knowledge in the training process, namely, through biographical narratives and self-reflection, gives access to the subjects under training not only in terms of the recognition of knowledge and of knowledge accumulated throughout their life pathways (Silva, 2003) but also to the reworking of their personal and professional identity in accordance with the acknowledgement of the trainees cited above.

The exercises and suggested readings bring together, little by little throughout the training process and with more or less difficulty for the trainees, their capacity of detaching themselves personally and from the world in which they live, since detachment is essential for the reconstruction of knowledge already acquired, the production of new knowledge and their own 'professional and personal reconstruction'.

This process of (self)discovery is frequently the most demanding exercise and more gratifying for the trainees, because they gain their authorship, particularly through the drawing up of their biographical narrative(s) and they recognize that the knowledge that they produce themselves is essential for the appropriation of their personal and professional identity.

In this process, (self)reflection constitutes a fundamental element, which though the trainees recognized they were not used to the exercise, they also acknowledged its importance for accessing (their) knowledge, transformation and personal and professional development, as can be read in the following statements:

> "Writing narrative is my process of identity, it enabled me to re-evaluate my memory, my life story, my subjectivity and to reflect about the meaning and the relevance of writing as a training practice, self-training and the transformation of my own self" (Student Portfolio, academic year 2008/2009).

> "I was very grateful for the opportunity of living through this process and could not imagine how much richness the methodology of reflection would bring me" (Student Self-evaluation, academic year 2010/2011).

Summarizing, the process of (self)discovery and authorship did not excuse the (self)reflective dimension which - in our case - was fundamentally practiced by the periodic elaboration of written biographical narratives, which simultaneously allowed for (self)recognition of knowledge and the discovery of personal and professional identities.

3.3. Personal and professional development and (re)construction of identity

The point of departure, which was the initial 'course outline' of the syllabus of the discipline, and the commitment of contributing to the personal and professional development of the trainees were progressively consolidated and perceptible to the trainees throughout the process of training. They recognized in it the measure that their co-participation and consequences in the work of (self)training was becoming more evident and indispensable for themselves and for the group with whom they shared this experience.

In this process, they progressively acquired self-confidence for establishing themselves as authors and, when they felt it consolidated, they were able to detach themselves and their subjective world and choose to be 'observers' of their own selves. The following statement bears witness to this pathway:

"Having passed a semester of work on themes that were not part of my usual reading, I congratulated myself for the learning that I achieved. I observe, now, my professional identity with more maturity and a much sharper critical eye not only the concepts that I understood, which gave me this support, but also the participation in the reflective work that was proposed for me" (Student Portfolio, academic year 2010/2011).

The narrative dimension is fundamental for the creation of meaning and the construction of knowledge, because it makes possible the recognition of responsibility for the experience, turns it into themes and organizes it spatially and temporally, through the creation of a meta-cognitive consciousness that is essential to the development of the individual subject of a project (Silva, 2004), as the following female trainee recounts:

"I put in motion the forms of expression and knowledge that I had been silencing. To collect the fragments that I was composed of was to find myself in a territory of questioning, of production of meanings and of recognition, for myself, about that which constituted me" (Student Portfolio, academic year 2010/2011).

To conclude, it is possible to state that the access to the personal and professional development, which the trainees desired and recognized, was in large measure achieved by the narrative route. This enabled the necessary distancing for the desirable appropriation of their 'story' of various experiences, by giving them meaning(s), the subject to be considered in order to understand themselves better at a given moment of their existence, thus establishing a relationship, so that they can try diverse experiences in the various fields practiced by themselves, when developing and (re)constructing their personal and professional identity.

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Tennessee Williams's Dramatic World

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Abstract

Tennessee Williams has been regarded as the greatest Southern dramatist and one of the most distinguished playwrights in the history of American drama. He is undoubtedly the most renowned American dramatist of the second half of the 20th Century. This paper addresses and explores some of the main features of his dramatic works. His drama was a lyric or poetic one, and that is why the critic and scholar Frank Durham referred to him as "Tennessee Williams, theater poet in prose". When David Mamet describes William's plays as "the greatest dramatic poetry in the American language", he shares the widely accepted opinion that Williams brought to the language of the American theater a lyricism unequaled before or after. He infuses his dialogue with lyrical qualities so subtle that the reader or hearer, unaware, responds not to realistic speech but, instead, to speech heightened by such poetic effects as alliteration, rhythm, onomatopoeia, and assonance. As a Southern writer, Williams was attuned to the natural rhythm and melody of Southern speech, a melody, he says, heard especially in the voices of women. Characterization is one of Williams's strongest achievements as a dramatist. His people are imaginatively conceived yet so convincing that it is tempting to take them out of context and theorize about their lives before and after the action of the play. In place of realism, which stressed photographic duplication of the actual, a style that had dominated American stage for four decades, Williams insisted on a theater that was "plastic" that combined all the elements of production-dialogue, action, setting, lighting, even properties- in a unified, symbolic expression of a truth.

Keywords: a lyric/poetic drama, a Southern writer, characterization, plastic theater, controversial themes, symbols.

1. Introduction

Tennessee Williams, alongside Eugene O'Neill and Arthur Miller is regarded as one of the greatest American playwrights of the 20th century. He became a celebrity thanks to the favorable reception by both theater critics and spectators, and his fame and reputation could be undoubtedly attributed to Williams's two masterpieces- *A Streetcar Named Desire* and *The Glass Menagerie*- as well as to a corpus of works including the Pulitzer Prize winner *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof* and more than 60 plays, among others *The Rose Tattoo*, *Sweet Bird of Youth*, *Orpheus Descending*, *Suddenly Last Summer* and *Night of the Iguana*.

Tennessee's younger brother, Daikin Williams was keen on predicting that two or three centuries later his older sibling would become more renowned than William Shakespeare (Kolin, 2008, p.3). In spite of the inflated fraternal praise, Tennessee Williams is unquestionably, the most influential American playwright after the II World War. Since the mid 1940s he convincingly entered the imagination of American audience and remained an authority figure in theater, film and popular culture as well. Lillian Hellman (Van Antwerp and Johns, 1984, p.255), his fellow American dramatist cast light on the reasons of this popularity:

With The Glass Menagerie of 1944 and A Streetcar Named Desire of 1947, he brought to the theater the greatest talent of the post-war generation. There are many good writers who do not influence men who came after them…influence is not the only measure of worth- but I think it safe to guess that Williams's influence on the theater will be there a hundred years from now because the mirror he held in his hand announced a new time, almost a new people, and the mirror will remain clear and clean.

Actually, being a self-making writer, Williams projected himself into his plays. He disclosed his secrets in his works, just as the Bard did in his *Sonnets*. He desperately wanted and needed to be famous. This is why his entire life was spent in a continuous haze of premieres, parties, interviews, controversies and escapes into his subconscious. He was the fugitive dramatist trying hard to be accepted, but ironically enough, when he finally accomplished this, especially after *A Streetcar Named Desire* won every major literary award, Williams turned into a self-critical and self-destructive human being. During his long career, Williams never managed to escape from despair and anxiety- the devils that tormented him all his life. Undoubtedly, he became the target of the most ferocious attacks ever recorded in the American theater and he remained as such until he died in 1983.

But what the critics pointed out as his biggest flaw was in reality the source of his strength. He was fueled by the inner world of his own madness and excesses – from his early masterpieces to his latest highly experimental plays. His art reflected the individuality, desire and sexuality of his characters- in a very open and bold way- in a way no other dramatist ever did before. This is why critic V. W. E. Bigsby (2000, p.64) rightly assumed that the underlying metaphors for Tennessee Williams's life and literary career were "the self as actor, society as a series of coercive fictions." His name and his plays became synonymous with desire, taboo, and the grotesque South.

2. A lyric/poetic drama

David Mamet (1983, p.124) described William's plays as "the greatest dramatic poetry in the American language", voicing the widely accepted opinion that Williams brought to the language of the American theater a lyricism radically different from that of other playwrights before or after. Tennessee Williams did not write "poetic plays" in the fashion of Maxwell Anderson, which were not as successful and appealing as the older dramatist had expected. On the contrary, Williams's plays are "dramatic poetry" as Mamet pointed out, being in line with the well-known critic, Frank Durham who referred to Tennessee Williams as the "Theater Poet in Prose". According to Durham (1971, p.4), "Eugene O'Neill was the first of the American playwrights to move thus beyond realism toward a new poetry of the theater, but today its chief figure is Tennessee Williams."

While T.S. Eliot thought that the poetic drama should be written in verse, his concept regarding the effect dramatic verse should produce coincided with how Williams used language in his plays. According to Eliot (1957, p.82), when confronted with of a poetic play, which he called verse drama, the spectators

expect poetry to be in rhythms which have lost touch with colloquial speech. What we have to do is to bring poetry into the world in which the audience lives and to which it returns when it leaves the theater; not to transport the audience into some imaginary world totally unlike its own, an unreal world into which poetry is tolerated. What I should hope might be achieved, by a generation of dramatists having the benefit of our experience, is that the audience should find, at the moment of awareness that it is hearing poetry, that it is saying to itself: "I could talk poetry too!" then we should not be transported into an artificial world; on the contrary, our own sordid, dreary daily world would be suddenly illuminated and transfigured.

This is exactly what Williams could achieve without using the risky artificial qualities of poetry. He raised the colloquial speech, very frequently the Southern colloquial speech, to the level of poetry, thanks to his sensitivity to verse's rhythms and patterns, its imagery and symbolism. And as Durham (1971, p. 11) highlighted it was "real speech, but real speech intensified and heightened, so that it not only evokes the pleasure of recognition but communicates the inexpressible, the very essence of character, emotion, and situation in a way traditionally associated with poetry."

Tennessee Williams imbued his dialogues with very subtle qualities and the reader or the hearer, subconsciously responds not the real speech but to a speech intensified by such poetic effects as alliteration, rhythm, onomatopoeia, and assonance.

3. A Southern writer

Williams's Southern origin is essential to the poetic qualities of his language, as many critics have pointed out. Williams is particularly noted for his long line, which achieves the most surprising effects through a repetition in the fashion of Gertrude Stein (Migid, 1964, p.282), by using archaic words, introducing unexpected "literary bookish words" and ironically elegant phrase turns, which brings about a stylized representation of the Southern diction, which is more conscious, more vague, but also much more imaginative than the Northern speech.

Being a Southern writer, Tennessee Williams was accustomed to and in full harmony with the natural rhythm and melody of Southern speech, which is heard particularly in the voices of women, as he himself pointed out. Stark Young (1945, p.505), a Southern critic, heard in *The Glass Menagerie* "behind the Southern speech in the mother's part… the echo of great literature, or at least respect for it."

Besides indiscernibly intensifying the dialogue of his characters, Williams uses their speech to emphasize their individual qualities. Amanda in *The Glass Menagerie* is too wordy, she never stops talking; Vee's dialogue in *Orpheus Descending* that symbolizes her sexual frustration is breathtaking; whereas Alma's obsession with the spiritual in the first part of *Summer and Smoke* is reflected in her ethereal speech about the Gulf Wind. Even the most illiterate characters created by Williams are as poetic in their speech as the most educated and cultivated ones. Thus, Stanley Kowalski, the "brutish" character in *A Streetcar Named Desire* has his unique rhythms, characterized by repetitions and inflections; Serafina in *The Rose Tattoo* manages to be very eloquent by using monosyllabic words only; Val in *Orpheus Descending*, talking about a little bird, gives a speech which at the same time is both lyric, heightened and being in line with his character, simple but accompanied by some kind of a strange sensation.

Williams's plays display the majority of the artistic features of the most renowned Southern writers of the modern era and anticipate the postmodern dilemma in a period which started with the integration and expansion of middle class, previously looked down. Almost in every play he wrote, Williams depicted the traditional themes, either elevated or satirized in the literary Works of Southern writers: agricultural versus urban society, Modern South versus Old South, aristocrats versus nouveau riche.

Placing emphasis on the irrational, the desperation of people in a universe where the cosmic laws do not work, as well as on the tragicomic analysis of conflicts between the aristocracy of Southern old values and the brutal force of Northern modern values, Williams's plays could be incorporated in the literary movement the critics call "Southern Gothic". He shares this area with other distinguished representatives of Southern Literature such as Flannery O'Connor, William Faulkner and Thomas Wolfe. Williams considered himself a member of the Southern school, which combined elements of expressionism, impressionism, surrealism, symbolism and naturalism in a special American mixture. The playwright himself stated that the South's frustration; oppression and poverty have made it the most natural and suitable place for the development of American Gothic (Tischler, 1961, p.25).

4. Characterization

Critics agree that characterization is one of the greatest achievements and strengths of Williams as a playwright (Griffin, 1995, p.19). His characters are products of a highly imaginative mind, but at the same time so convincing that one might be tempted to take them out of context and try to develop theories on their lives prior to and following the action of the play. Williams created great characters such as Amanda and Laura, Blanche and Stanley, Alma and John- memorable not only as individuals but also when they are contrasted to each other.

Williams created exceptional, larger than life female characters. They are beautiful, lively, imaginative but simultaneously so fragile and vulnerable as to properly deserve "The Moth Ladies of Tennessee Williams" label. This fragility and vulnerability is caused because sometimes they rely too much on the comfort of men around them, and when the latter in turn fail or ruin them, they ultimately turn to the kindness of strangers, seeking love, affection and compassion. This is what their creator, Tennessee Williams also longed for and sought almost all his life. It is a well-known fact that he identified himself more with his heroines, a fact proven by him stating that "I am Blanche DuBois!"

Williams's women characters live caught up between illusion and reality, sexuality and love. There are two categories of them: female characters who idealize reality and those who face it. The former escape to a world of dreams, such as Amanda in *The Glass Menagerie* or Blanche in *A Streetcar Named Desire*. They behave in a strange way because they cannot accept themselves or the others. The latter- Maggie in *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof* or Hannah in *The Night of Iguana* occupy the first row in Williams's gallery of personages- they are dedicated to the time and place in which they live, and are full of life. Their desire to live might be selfish and related to love and sex. These realistic women characters feel real compassion for the others and are really sympathetic to them and their problems. Williams called himself an old-fashioned romantic. Based on his plays, by "romantic" he might have meant someone who believes in the power of love and the greatest love of all, as Williams showed through his plays is the affection and compassion you prove when you accept the reality.

Very often, the protagonist in Williams's plays is an alien, an outsider, a foreigner, an outcast, misunderstood and not trusted by the community such as Val Xavier in *Orpheus Descending* or Kilroy in *Camino Real*. Various critics have provided different perspectives on Williams's treatment of his characters and they have come up with several categories. Thus, the strangers appearing in Williams's plays are grouped into foreigners, saints and universal strangers (Wolter, 1995); the outcasts fall into sexual, religious and fugitive categories (Haley, 1999); and finally his female characters are regarded as being extremely alienated and estranged from men, themselves, other women and finally society (Walker, 2005).

Tennessee Williams said just before his death that his major aim was "to contribute an understanding about people". He tried to accomplish this through a more sympathetic characterization of the spiritual strangers, foreigners and outcasts.

5.   Plastic theater

Instead of realism, which puts emphasis on the photographic representation of real life, a literary current that had dominated American stage for four decades, Tennessee Williams insisted on "plastic theater", combining all the production elements-dialogue, action, setting, and lighting, even costumes- in a unified and symbolic expression of the truth. This approach, no doubt revolutionary and avant-garde for the time, was outlined by the playwright himself in his introduction to *The Glass Menagerie.* Thus, in the "Production Notes" to this play, practically his most experimental one- where he discussed at length "extra-literary" elements such as music and lighting, Williams stated explicitly that he was seriously attempting to write a new kind of poetical drama. Labeling this product a "memory play", and this is why it should be staged "with unusual freedom of convention" he continued:

Because of its considerable delicate or tenuous material, atmospheric touches and subtleties of direction play a particularly important part. Expressionism and all other unconventional techniques in drama have only one valid aim, and that is a closer approach to truth. When a play employs unconventional techniques, it is not, or certainly shouldn't be, trying to escape its responsibility of dealing with reality, or interpreting experience, but is actually or should be attempting to find a closer approach, a more penetrating and vivid expression of things as they are. The straight realistic play with its genuine Frigidaire and authentic ice-cubes, its characters who speak exactly as its audience speaks, corresponds to the academic landscape and has the same virtue of a photographic likeness. Everyone should know nowadays the unimportance of the photographic in art: that truth, life, or reality is an organic thing which the poetic imagination can represent or suggest, in essence, only through transformation, through changing into other forms than those which were merely present in appearance. These remarks are not meant as a preface only to this particular play. They have to do with the conception of a new, plastic theater which must take the place of the exhausted theater of realistic conventions if the theater is to resume vitality as part of our culture (Williams, 1948, p.vi).

In this way Williams announced a new era in the American drama, characterized by a unique form, a popular artistic form that incorporated all levels of American culture and life and which was undoubtedly poetic in all its intentions. This search for an expressive concrete form, a form in harmony with the poetic vision became the leitmotiv that runs through all Williams's works.

The most essential elements of the plastic theater employed by Tennessee in *The Glass Menagerie* were: the use of a screen where themes, titles and pictures were shown to the audience at critical moments which represented an attempt to bold symbolism; the use of a recurring musical motive which becomes a leitmotiv; the use of cinematic techniques; the use of lighting that appears unreal to allow for the memory-based format of the play; as well as the use of an unrealistic set and set pieces in a symbolic way that the focus is not on realism but on the truth of the human emotions.

A review of the entire corpus of Williams's plays would reveal that his most significant contribution in terms of the idea of plastic theater was the conception of an American scenic language which was able to create dramatic forms with such powerful poetic qualities as to mesmerize the audience. Williams combined Southern speech, both musical and poetic, with colloquial speech and slang of the mid-20th century to create a lyrical dialogue style that held his signature. In his plays, Williams renounced from the traditional dramatic action to provide the spectators with an engaging insight into the emotionally complex lives of his personages.

6.   Themes

Although each of Tennessee Williams's plays is unique, it is easy to find a connection between the themes they treat. William's major concern was no doubt the society's impact on the alien, the outcast, the foreigner, but this central theme of his works is closely related to love and romance, desire and sexuality, child-parent relationship and the predicament of the modern family, passing of time and fading of youth and beauty, isolation, guilt, loneliness, mendacity as well as illusion versus reality.

Another important contribution Williams brought to the American and world stage were the controversial themes that previously were considered taboo- his plays deal with the issues of human brutality and sexuality: madness, rape, incest, cannibalism, nymphomania, as well as extreme violent deaths- the majority of which are displayed in his masterpiece *A Streetcar Named Desire,* such a shocking play that made the critics label it as "obscene" and "unacceptable" by the American morals. Williams commented a lot on the extreme violence of his plays, which he viewed as an inherent part of human nature; he was also aware, that the violence described in his plays was too particular for American life and mindset. As they did with the other great American playwright of the 20ᵗʰ century- Edward Albee- the critics who pointed out the "excesses" in Williams's works, were just attacking his sexuality. When his plays were written, homosexuality was not an openly discussed subject, but the themes of desire and isolation they treat, show, among others the influence of growing up in a world that instills phobia against homosexuals.

According to Bigsby (2000), Williams's themes are universal and his favorite structure is that of a visit by his protagonist to the microcosm of the world itself. Their fears are common- the tyranny of time and death, which might be overcome only by love and procreation, the loss of youth and beauty, loneliness: "sentenced to solitary confinement in our own skins."

Characteristic of Williams's themes is that they are interwoven with and intensified by symbols. Thus, in *A Streetcar Named Desire*, the streetcars named Desire and Cemetery symbolize the opposition and juxtaposition of desire and death. Other themes also build on contrasts: between responsibility and abandonment/escape in *The Glass Menagerie*, between flesh and spirit in *Summer and Smoke*, between mendacity and truth in *Cat on a Hot Tin Roof*, etc. Very often the theme is symbolized by an ordinary image expressed in the title, as it is the case with *The Rose Tattoo*.

7.   Conclusion

Playwright, poet and prose writer Tennessee Williams has been very influential in American theater. His plays constitute a wonderful mixture of lyrical intensity, suffocating loneliness and hypnotizing violence. His highly emotional works deal with the endeavors of the sensitive protagonists to survive in a hostile world. He has been regarded as the greatest Southern playwright and one of the most distinguished dramatists in the history of American drama.

The fact that Williams's plays are as fresh and significant today as when they were first staged is a tribute to his genius about which he was truly modest. When the critics accussed him of having written about his own life, this is how Williams (1978, p.159) defended his approach: "It is the responsibility of the writer to put his experience as a being into work that refines it and elevates it and that makes of it an essence that a wide audience can somehow manage to feel in themselves: 'This is true.'"

When Williams left this world in 1983, alone in a hotel room, abandoned by all his numerous former friends, dependent on the "kindness of strangers" (Williams, 1951, p.226), he left behind a priceless gift to the American and world-wide audience: his great plays- whose lyricism, humanity and theatrical impact enriched the achievements of the American theater and the hearts of its spectators. As Alice Griffin (1995, p.19) suggests, Williams's comment on Proust's *Remembrance of Things Past* might as well serve as his own epitaph, giving to the plays he wrote "his love, fear, loneliness, disgust, humor, and most important of all, his forgiving perception of the reasons for the tragicomedy of human confusion." (Williams, 1978, p.125)

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Prophetic Leadership Model: Conceptualizing a Prophet's Leadership Behaviour, Leader-Follower Mutuality and Altruism to Decision Making Quality

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Abstract

This article advocates that research is lacking on the connection between leadership theory and social network theory. To date, little empirical research has been conducted on leadership and social networks. Thus, the proposition of this article goes beyond traditional leadership models to advocate for a fuller and more integrative focus that is multilevel, multi-component and interdisciplinary, while recognizing that leadership is a complex function of both the organisational leaders and the followers who perform tasks, all of which subsequently leads to decision making qualities. Indeed, the current leadership model focuses on leadership behaviour and the ability to gain followers mutuality, to achieve decision making quality involving the integration of leadership and social network theories. Given the apparent mutable palette of contemporary leadership theory, this emergent construct of the leadership paradigm can expand the poles of the leadership continuum and contribute to a richer and deeper understanding of the relationships and responsibilities of leaders and followers as they relate to decision making qualities. This new construct, which is termed prophetic leadership, explores the literature of the life experiences of the prophet in the 'Abrahamic Faith' religion. Drawing on a priori links between the personality trait and spiritual leadership that has recently garnered the interest of scholars, the present study asserts a normative leadership theory that links the personal quality of a leader, posture and principal (based on the Prophet's leadership behaviour) to synergy and decision making quality. Altruism is proposed to enhance relationships between leadership behaviour and decision making quality. For future research, much work needs to be done specifically aiming to (a) achieve greater clarity of construct definitions, (b) address measurement issues, and (c) avoid construct redundancy.

Keywords: transcendent leadership, social network theory, prophet's life

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Prophetic leadership rests on the tenets of trait theory, spirituality, Islamic leadership and social network theory. This field of study is still in its infancy, as such theory is marked by differences in definitions and other basic characteristics. Much of what has been written on this subject has appeared to be isolated to a particular religion, is non-academic, lacks sufficient publication, and consequently lacks rigor. This study, therefore, analyses verses in the Qur'an and the *Seerah* to construct a prophetic leadership model and explores the nexus between personal quality, posture and principal of the leader to decision making quality, which is mediated by leader-follower mutuality and altruism as moderating factors.

The proposition in this article goes beyond more traditional leadership models to advocate a fuller and more integrative focus that is multilevel, multi-component, and interdisciplinary, and it recognises leadership as a function of both the leader that leads an organisation and the followers that perform tasks during the time of complexity. Indeed, the present leadership model focuses equally on leadership behaviour and the ability to gain followers to determine decision making quality. The present article also advocates that further research is required on the connections created by leadership; this is the emerging work linking social network theory to leadership theory. To date, "little empirical work has been done on leadership and social networks" (Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, & Tsai, 2004). In the model proposed here, there is a full extension of an integrative framework that spans implicit leadership theories to the external structure of social network relationships. It also incorporates how individual actors and their relationships are embedded in a larger social network structure (Klenke, 2007). In line with the proposed integrative framework, Balkundi and Kilduff (2005) concluded, the "network approach locates leadership not in the attributes of individuals but in the relationships connecting individuals."

2.0   PROPHETIC LEADERSHIP

Prophetic leadership theory is rooted in the life experience of the prophets. It encompasses all aspects and elements in the life and leadership of all types of situationi.e., complex or non-complex). This holistic model emphasises the personal qualities, decision making processes and managerial skills of the prophets to construct a prophetic leadership model and to determine its relationship to leader-follower mutuality and decision making quality, which are compelling issues for management practitioners and researchers. Drawing on *a priori* links between trait theory and spiritual leadership that have recently garnered the interest of scholars, the present study asserts a normative leadership theory that links the leader's personal qualities, posture and principals to synergy and decision making quality. Altruism is proposed to enhance the relationships between a leader's personal qualities and decision making quality.

The current prophetic leadership model claims that *seerah* (i.e., the life of the prophet Muhammad, Jesus (Isa). and Moses (Musa) peace be upon them all) in the holy Qur'an and *sunnah* (the character of the prophet), which is narrated in the *hadith*, can be exemplified for effective leadership and decision making quality. Three religions, Islam, Christianity and Judaism, have been intertwined and are considered to be inextricably linked to one another because of a 'family likeness' and a certain commonality in theology. These three religions are called the Abrahamic faiths, Abrahamic traditions, religions of Abraham, Abrahamic monotheistic religions, Semitic religions, Semitic monotheistic religions, or Semitic one god religions (http://abrahamicfaiths.com/).

In the early twenty-first century, there were an estimated 3.8 billion followers of these three Abrahamic religions, it is estimated that 54% of the world's population considers themselves adherents of one of the Abrahamic religions; about 30% follow other religions and 16% are non-religious (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2010). Islamic researchers believe that the holy Qur'an is a source from which one can learn about effective leadership (e.g., Ahmad, 2006; Ather and Sobhani 2007; Bangash, 2000; Noor 1998). The Qur'an has revealed the stories of prophets as great leaders of their people and the advice within the Qur'an should be followed. Across the ages, many people of Muslim, Christian and Jewish faiths have turned to the Qur'an, the Bible and the Torah, respectively, for their role models, examples and metaphors. Furthermore, many researchers have discussed the Biblical examples of prophets in leadership and management studies (e.g., Weber 1978, Friedman and Langbert, 2000). Hence, the proposed "Prophetic Leadership" model is necessary as a holistic leadership model because Biblical role models and the characteristics of a Biblical individual make these Prophets arguably the most successful transformational (Friedman and Langbert, 2000), consultative, distributed, situational, emotional and spiritual leaders in history (Noor, 1998). Furthermore, religious believers all over the world have grown up perpetuating and sharing their narrative visions (Fry, 2005) and relying on their good examples being followed.

3.0   THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

In Muslim teaching, the precepts laid down in the Qur'an and the examples of the Prophet (pbuh) (*seerah*) are to be exemplified. What the Prophets did in concrete situations is an essential part of Islamic teaching. By studying the life of the Prophet (pbuh), one may derive important principles to be followed. Allah says twice in the noble Qur'an: "*He it is who has sent the Prophet with guidance and the Deen of Truth so that it may become dominant over all other systems, however much the mushrikeen may be averse to it*" (Al-Qur'an 9:33, 61:09). The *Seerah*, therefore, offers an important lessons in leadership, serving as an essential prerequisite for the transformation of any society into an Islamic state. This process of transformation is a quintessential model for all Muslims, as they struggle to transform their organisations and societies (Bangash, 2000).

3.1   Al-Qur'an and *Sunnah*

On earth, Man is Allah's *khalifah* (vicegerent or representative or leader) (Al-Qur'an 2:30; 6:166; 38:26) and acts only to implement Allah's laws. A khalifah (leader) is not free to act as he chooses or to submit to the wishes of any group. This is therefore a fundamental difference between Islamic leadership and that of other systems, where aspirants to high office often say and do what the people want regardless of the merits of these actions (Bangash, 2000). Thus, Al-Qur'an and

Sunnah discuss the leadership qualities of the Prophets that should be followed by *khalifah* on earth; such qualities include the leadership behaviours of the Prophet, including personal qualities, religious spirituality, principals and posture.

3.1.1   *Leadership Behaviour*

Prophet Ibrahim- peace be upon him (pbuh)- was appointed as *Imam* (leader) due to leadership qualities he possessed. After successfully completing a number of tests, Prophet Ibrahim was appointed *Imam* (leader) of all people. The Qur'an says: "*And (remember) when his Lord tried Ibrahim with His Commands, and he fulfilled them, He said: Surely I have appointed you an Imam for mankind. Ibrahim said: 'And of my offspring' (will there be Imams)? He said: 'My covenant includes not the wrongdoers*" (Surah al-Baqarah, 2:124). An important point emerges from this dialogue, in that an oppressor is not fit to be leader of Muslims, regardless of what other qualities he may possess. Implicit in this *ayat* are two other points about leadership: 1) to be legitimate, it must involve divine sanction and, 2) because Islam rejects the concept of hereditary leadership, each person must qualify for it by merit (Bangash, 2000). Prophet Ibrahim (pbuh) fulfilled the mission of leadership for which Allah *Subhanawataala (SWT)* chose him. This example indicates that leaders must have vision, courage, the ability to articulate their vision and a willingness to make sacrifices on behalf of an organisation (Black and Porter 2000). Moreover, leaders motivate followers to sacrifice their own self-interests for the greater good (Northouse 1997). Prophet Ibrahim (pbuh) was a person who was willing to make a great sacrifice for the good of others, an example of a transformational leader (Friedman and Langbert, 2000).

The Qur'an highlights an important aspect of Islam's concept of leadership that contains the prophetic leadership model. Thus, the authors examined the leadership qualities and personal attributes exemplified from the messenger of Allah (Musa, Isa and Muhammad, peace be upon them all) enumerated in the holy Qur'an and the *Sunnah* to propose in the model. Personal qualities, religious spirituality, posture and principals of the Prophets were scrutinised to construct a model that can influence a follower's mind and can achieve quality decision making. Altruism thus will enhance decision making quality.

3.1.2   *Personal Quality*

Courage

Showing courage and the ability to take calculated risks are essential attributes of a leader. To inspire others to perform great feats, a leader must be seen as someone who is not afraid to face danger. The unyielding courage shown by Prophet Musa (Moses) under the most stringent circumstances to deliver *tauhid* and establish *Shari'ah* among the Israelites is an example of a courageous leader. Additionally, Koenig (2007) and Neyrey (1998), in their study of the Gospel, describe Isa (Jesus) as having boldness, courage and confidence. According to Neyrey (1998), evidence from Matthew 22 in the Bible describes Isa's (pbuh) courage to stand, despite facing suffering and rejection in both his work and mission.

In the battle of Badr, Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) was clearly taking a great risk to defend Medina with only 330 Muslims as compared to 3,000 Quraish; he won a battle that an ordinary leader may have avoided. Badr highlighted the Prophet's courage, as well as the commitment of the Muslims fighting under him. Similarly, the expedition to Tabuk (9AH) was fraught with just as great a risk, as only 30,000 Muslims marched across the desert in scorching heat to confront a Roman army of 100,000. It was these examples of courage and bravery that established a pattern for future generations of leaders to be emulated. Courageous leaders will result in increased leader-follower mutuality and subsequent high quality decision making. Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 1: *Courageous leaders have a significant influence on leader-follower mutuality and subsequent decision making quality.*

Eloquence

A leader must be eloquent and articulate. These characteristics are required to communicate the purpose of the mission clearly and to inspire people to follow it. The Qur'an itself is the most eloquent document; it appeals to both the mind and the heart. Prophet Ibrahim (pbuh) was recognised, since childhood, for his ability to have great eloquence. This was proven by his victory in his debate with the Babylonian King, Nimrod. Nimrod asked Ibrahim: *What can your god do that I cannot? Ibrahim said, "My Lord is He Who gives life and death. Namrud said "I give life and death. I can bring a person from the street and have him executed, and I can grant my pardon to a person who was sentenced to death and save his life." Ibrahim added "Well my Lord Allah makes the sun rise from the East. Can you make it rise from the West?"* (Qur'an 2:258). The king was confounded, and Prophet Ibrahim (pbuh) left him speechless. Eloquence was also stressed in the verses in which Allah commands Musa (pbuh) to speak to Fir'awn (Qur'an 20:43-44), Allah urged Musa (pbuh) to use gracious language, as it is a highly effective approach that should always be adopted when communicating with people. In many verses of the Qur'an, the importance of choosing kind words is stressed. In fact, Allah commands man to speak gently, even when conversing with one who is arrogant. These verses are evidence of the importance of using such a manner in communication, and they show that communication skill is important in leadership. According to Keller (1998), the Bible portrays Isa as having strong characteristics of a "teacher," both intelligent and eloquent.

Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) articulated the message of Islam in such a way that it was immediately accepted by a small group of people in Makkah. In an attempt to dissuade the Prophet (pbuh) from his mission, Utbah ibn Rabi'ah offered him money, beautiful women and a position in the Meccan hierarchy; however, the Prophet (pbuh) recited *Surah Ha-Mim Sajda* (41:20-30). The recitation of the *Surah* had such an effect on Utbah that he returned to his fellow chiefs in utter humiliation, telling them to leave the Prophet alone (www.islamicthought.org.pb-zb-leader.html). Thus, eloquence is significant to both leader-follower mutuality and decision making quality.

Proposition 2: *Eloquence has significant influence on leader-follower mutuality and subsequent decision-making quality*

Sabr (patience) and forgiveness

In the face of immense persecution in Mecca, Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) not only showed great patience, he also counselled his followers to do likewise. At that time, a guiding verse in the Qur'an was revealed, which states *"With every hardship there is ease, with every hardship there is ease" (94:5-6).* This verse means that problems are always associated with opportunities. Thus, another quality essential for a leader is *Sabr* (patience), as a lack of patience will simply drive away followers.

Prophets Ayub, Yaqub and Yusuf (pbuh) also experienced persecution but endured their trials and tribulations with great patience. However, there is a distinction between the trials one is put through directly by Allah and those that are faced at the hands of other human beings. Prophet Ayub's trial was not caused by human beings; however, in the case of the Prophets Yaqub, Yusuf, Musa, Isa and Muhammad - may peace be upon them all - it was the people who tormented them. Most critical is the case of the noble messenger, Prophet Muhammad (pbuh), because he not only had to endure such suffering himself but also counselled *sabr* to his companions who were being persecuted. An outstanding example of the Prophet's *sabr* was demonstrated following his suffering at the hands of the people of Ta'if, in the tenth year of his mission in Makkah. When the chiefs of Ta'if set the thugs of the town upon him, instead of seeking revenge, the Prophet prayed for their guidance (Bangash, 2000).

Muhammad (pbuh) was also seen as a lenient and forgiving leader, and the following Qur'anic verse explicitly shows the active and reformative leadership of the Holy Prophet of Islam. Allah says: *"It was by the Mercy of Allah that you were lenient with them, for if you had been stern and fierce of heart, they would have dispersed from you. So pardon them and seek forgiveness for them and consult with them upon the conduct of affairs. And when you are resolved, then put your*

trust in Allah. Surely Allah loves those who put their trust in Him" (Surah Ale Imran, 3:159). This proves that patience and forgiveness will lead to leader-follower mutuality and subsequent decision making quality.

Proposition 3*: Sabr (patience) and forgiveness have significant influence on leader-follower mutuality and decision making quality***3.1.3   Religious Spirituality**

Knowledge and Wisdom

Knowledge can be acquired through study and hard work. Wisdom (*hikmah),* on the other hand, is the ability to apply knowledge to a particular situation to bring about the most desirable outcome. Almost everyone can acquire knowledge, but *wisdom* comes only through an inner enlightenment and by seeking sincere guidance from Allah (Bangash, 2000). Allah says, in Qur'an 2:129, that the Prophets (pbuh) were given both knowledge and *hikmah* (wisdom). Al-Qur'an 3:45-46 also indicates that Prophet Isa (pbuh) was honoured with articulateness and intelligence, and Isa tells his people that he brought them *Hikmah* (wisdom) (Qur'an 43:63). In Qur'an ayat 17:39, God Almighty explains what the word *hikmah* (wisdom) means, *"You shall not accept any information, unless you verify it for yourself. I have given you the hearing, the eyesight, and the brain, and you are responsible for using them. You shall not walk proudly on earth-you cannot bore through the earth, nor can you be as tall as the mountains. All bad behaviour is condemned by your Lord. This is some of the wisdom inspired to you by your Lord. You shall not set up another god beside God, lest you end up in Gehena, blamed and defeated."* Here, God is telling us that wisdom is in the Quran. It is wisdom that comes from Him and not from other men.

There are many instances from the Prophet's *Seerah* where his *hikmah* achieved results that his followers were unable to see. The most striking example of Prophet Muhammad's wisdom is the 'Treaty of Hudaibiyya' in the sixth year of the *hijrah*. The Hudaibiya treaty showed the Prophet's wisdom in accepting some terms of the treaty that his companion Omar ibn al Khatab had refused. It was later proven that these terms were for the benefit of Islam by the Qur'anic sura "Al-Fath" (The Victory) (Qur'an 48:1-29). These benefits, according to Welch (1992), included 1) inducing the Meccans to recognise Muhammad (pbuh) as an equal; 2) the cessation of military activity, which posed well for the future; and 3) gaining the admiration of Meccans, who were impressed by the incorporation of the pilgrimage rituals. Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 4*: Knowledge and wisdom have significant influence on leader-follower mutuality and subsequent decision-making quality.*

Taqwa (humility, moral conduct)

Taqwa is humility, where one is humble, conscious of Allah's presence and fearful of Him at all times. Not seeking a leadership position is part of *taqwa,* as portrayed by Prophet Musa (pbuh) when he answered the revelations from Allah. He sincerely admitted his inability to do it alone and requested for the Prophet Harun (pbuh), his brother who was fluent and better at speaking, to assist him. The verses in Qur'an Surah al-Qasas/28: 33-34 reads: *He said, "My Lord, I killed one of them, and I am afraid they will kill me; and my brother Aaron is more eloquent than me so send him with me to support me and back me up. I am afraid they will call me a liar."* Similarly, when Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) received his revelation, he was full of fear for the responsibility that God had decided to place on his shoulders. Any other person in his place would have been filled with pride, as he would have felt that he had become great. However, the Prophet was different; he could achieve great things but could take no pride in his achievements (Hidrat Mirza, 2005).

The *Seerah* of Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) also shows his personal honesty and integrity. Thus, he gained considerable popularity among the people and became known as "Muhammad al-Amin." The Arabs often entrusted him with their belongings and talked about his honesty and efficiency even before being commissioned as a Prophet. As a result of Muhammad's (pbuh) integrity, truthfulness, honesty, wisdom and efficiency in commercial trade, he also earned a great deal of profit and attracted Khadijah, a rich widow, to marry him. Thus, taqwa is an important leadership quality because the power and authority that leaders acquire can easily make them arrogant, leading to hatred among followers. thus the following, then, is proposed:

Proposition 5*: Taqwa has significant influence on leader-follower mutuality and subsequent decision-making quality.*

Spirit of sacrifice

Simplicity and self-sacrifice are other qualities that Islam urges, especially for leaders. A leader is a role model, and his behaviour has direct bearing on the conduct of others. If the leader is seen to be making personal sacrifices, then the followers will make even greater sacrifices. Similarly, leaders must have no personal or class interests. The Prophets never did anything to benefit themselves or their families. In fact, throughout their lives, they made great personal sacrifices for Allah and their companions. Prophet Ibrahim (pbuh), for instance, received communication from God to sacrifice his son Ismail, whom he loved so much (Qur'an surah As-Saafat 37:102-108). Prophet Ibrahim was willing to make a personal sacrifice for God and was honoured for his faithfulness to God. Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) denied himself even the smallest comforts of life while the rulers of Persia and Rome enjoyed great luxury (Bangash, 2000). The Prophet regarded such comforts as elements for people who wish to cling to this *dunya* (worldly life).

A spirit of sacrifice is another area in which the Islamic order is fundamentally different from today's predominantly secular Western systems. An Islamic leader and those in positions of authority make sacrifices so that the downtrodden will have more; ostentatious living is specifically discouraged. Islam encourages its adherents *to "Eat and drink [of what Allah has provided you] but do not be extravagant" (Al-Qur'an 7:31).* Similarly, it rejects gross inequalities in society that ultimately lead to conflict and violence. Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 6*: The spirit of sacrifice has significant influence on leader-follower mutuality and subsequent decision making quality.*

3.1.4   *Principal*

The prophet's character features not only "leadership as a personal quality" but also "leadership as an organisational function." The first connotes an extraordinary mix of personal traits, whilst the second pertains to the managerial propensity to marshal resources for effective decision-making within the organisation (Noor, 1998). Leadership as an organisational function consists of three principles: attunement, alignment and empowerment.

The three-loop orientation that combines alignment, attunement and empowerment in nation-building and organisational development is an approach advocated by some leading management gurus.

Alignment (Articulation of Vision)

Alignment is the direction-setting aspect of leadership. It is an inductive process that engenders a vision of greatness and fosters a sense of mission among an organisation's people (Noor 1998). Clear articulation of the vision and firm conviction of the leader are the primary requirements for any movement to bring about change. Those who are invited to join must know the ultimate objective.

For example, Prophet Ibrahim's (pbuh) vision was to spread monotheism and build a new nation where his descendents would live as a unified people with a belief in monotheism, concern for the helpless, and justice for all. Prophet Ibrahim (pbuh) emigrated, as related in the Qur'an surah Al-'Ankabut 29:26: *"And Lot believed him, and said: Lo! I am a fugitive unto my Lord. Lo! He, only He, is the Mighty, the Wise."* In another verse (As-Saffat **37**: 99), Allah Almighty says: "*And he said: Lo! I am going unto my Lord Who will guide me."* So, Prophet Ibrahim (pbuh) travelled from place to place to spread the name of Allah. Another vision of Ibrahim (pbuh) involved a place where people would be in peace, able to concentrate solely for the worship of Allah. Ibrahim's (pbuh) wish was answered when Allah ordered him to build the Sacred House, the Ka'bah. He had his vision fulfilled before settled in a town in Palestine, where he died and was buried. That town, Al-Khalil Ibrahim, (Hebron), is now named after him (Al-Qaradawi**)**. Ibrahim (pbuh) not only had a vision but was also able to communicate this vision to descendents living hundreds of generations later, via the "Abrahamic Religion."

When Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) started to deliver the message of Islam, it was clear and concise; there was no ambiguity about the worship of the One and only God, who has no partners, and Muhammad – peace be upon him - was the messenger of Allah. The vision was articulated in such a way that tribal and family affiliations were not only loosened but also broken. Those who wanted to carry on the old tradition because they would be its principal beneficiaries became its greatest opponents. This situation became evident in Makkah, where members of many leading families joined the new faith by braving the wrath of their kindred. Rejection of the existing order was an important part of the vision. The Prophet also made clear, through his own example, that there could be no cooperation with the existing *jahili* system. Thus, the goal was articulated in such a way that its recipients understood it clearly and were prepared to face any challenge, including separation from their families, to defend it (www.islamicthought.org/pp-zb.leader.html).

In the Prophet of Islam's leadership model, alignment refers to the *tawhid*, or the Paradigm of the Oneness of God, and this alignment is tempered by *Iman* (faith). Fully subscribing to *tawhid* implies that one truly believes in Allah SWT, has faith in Him and fears Him. The leader or manager who is spiritually aligned will always remember that he is vertically accountable to God Almighty for all of his actions. As such, he will continuously be mindful of the need to please the Creator and not do things that are construed to be negative; he will always seek to enjoin good and forbid evil (*'amr maleruf, nah'i munkar*). Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 7: *Alignment has significant influence on leader-follower relationship and subsequent decision-making quality*

Attunement

Together with the clear articulation of the vision, the leader must inspire and motivate people. The leader must attune people's indifference to interest and turn their pessimism into optimism, while motivating them to action for the realisation of the goal. Attunement is the *esprit d'corp*s, the will, the emotion, the passion and the compassion that together fire the process of goal attainment (Noor, 1998). Attunement garners the spirit of teamwork to prevail, with everyone contributing towards a meaningful level of performance. It enhances the communication process and enjoins all the members of the organisation to move forward in unison. The noble messenger of Allah was able to motivate people who not only accepted the message but were also prepared to sacrifice their lives for it. This level of commitment was not inspired by any enticements to worldly gains; their only reward, they were told, was in the Hereafter (Banggash, 2000). The Qur'an narrates the stories of many Prophets who delivered the message, though their people did not accept it. When Prophet Lut (pbuh) urged his people to abandon their abominable ways, there was nothing wrong with the message or with his articulation of it, but his people rejected it nevertheless. Thus, acceptance of the message is an important part of the mission. If the message is not accepted, the mission remains unfulfilled (www.islamicthought.org/pp-zb-leaders.html).

In the Prophetic leadership model, attunement refers to *ibadah* or daily acts of faith. By committing oneself to daily actions that enjoin good and forbid evil, the managerial leader will help foster a human environment of understanding and caring for each other's well-being. In time, when the daily acts of faith are done in unison as a *jama'ah* (congregation), the acts will constitute the team's "shared values in action" (Noor, 1998). Therefore, attunement will influence followers to achieve organisational goals. Therefore, the following is proposed:

Proposition 8*: Attunement has significant influence on leader-follower mutuality and subsequent decision making quality.*

Empowerment

Empowerment is the willingness to enable people with skills and knowledge to use their talents and energies to become increasingly effective. When people are empowered, they are able to solve work-related problems and make decisions, preferably as a team unit.

A successful leader is able to empower, guide and control change to achieve the stated objectives. Prophet Musa (pbuh) empowered his brother, Prophet Harun (pbuh), who was in charge of the flock (Al-Qur'an 2:92-93) during his absence, to receive the *Tawrat* and establish the *Shari'ah* for the Israelites. However, Prophet Musa's mission was temporarily sabotaged by a Samaritan; as the Qur'an says, *After he left, Moses' people adopted a calf made from their ornaments, a form which made a lowing sound… (Surat al-A'raf/7: 148).*

Often, organisations and nations falter in the face of stiff competition and while undergoing adjustments in response to new technology because they do not believe enough in the ability of their people to act independently for the good of their

employers or leaders. Such people feel powerless and unmotivated when their initiatives are not appreciated. But when empowerment is employed, people feel wanted and appreciated. People appreciate being given the opportunity to decide and the freedom to act; under these conditions, they will usually tend to do their utmost to achieve the declared mission. Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 9: *Empowerment has significant influence on leader-follower mutuality and subsequent decision making quality.*

3.1.5   Posture

In the process of decision making, the Prophets of Islam adopted the three basic postures of Islamic leadership: *syura* (mutual consultation), *adl bil-qist* (justice with equity) and *decisiveness*, in all of their dealings with his ummah and in the decision making process.

Shura and Hurriyyah al-qalam (Freedom of Expression)

Shura is a process involving mutual consultation that must be adhered to by those in positions of authority so as to ensure a sense of participation and fairness in problem-solving and decision-making. The Qur'an calls upon all Muslim leaders to consult those who are affected or are more knowledgeable and better informed about the issue at hand (Qur'an 3:159; 42:38). Allah says: *"And, those who answer the Call of their Lord' [i.e., to believe that He is the only One Lord, (Allah), and to worship none but Him Alone], and perform As -Salat (Iqamat -ai -Salat), and who (conduct) their affair by mutual consultation, and who spend of what We have bestowed on them" (Ash-Shura, 42:38).*

The most outstanding example of the Prophet Muhammad's (pbuh) *Shura* occurred on the eve of the Battle of Uhud (3AH). The Prophet accepted that the majority wanted to go out and fight, although he was of the opinion that the city should be defended from within. He did not impose his own opinion, as the Prophet felt that the followers' trust and confidence would be gained if their opinions were respected. The revelation by God Almighty serves as a strong reminder to all that consultation with others is obligatory. In the Battle of Ditch/Kandaq (5AH), the suggestion of the companion (Salman) to dig a trench as a defence mechanism worked well for the Muslims. This situation shows the spirit of *shura* was in evidence during the prophet Muhammad's (pbuh) time. Similarly, during the battle of Badr, Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) gave His companions *hurriyah al-qalam,* the freedom to express their opinions, and thus, they won the battle. It was narrated that Hubab ibn Mundhir, who was not a leading personality among the Companions, stood up and gave this opinion: *"O God's Messenger! If you were not ordered by God to be positioned here, let us be positioned around the wells and close up all but one of them in order to prevent the supply of water to the enemy. You set up your camp at the side of that one well (from which we will take water), and we will encircle you."* Muhammad accepted his view.

The story of Prophet Moses (pbuh) also teaches us that cooperation, compromise and encouragement are essential in warding off heedlessness. This can be seen from Prophet Musa's request for a companion to help him be better and to glorify Allah more. Thus, in many verses of the Qur'an, Allah admonishes His *um'mah* to remain together. Hence, is the following is proposed:

Proposition 10*: Syura and Huriyyah Al-Kalam have positive relationships with decision making quality.*

'Adl and Rahmah

'Adl (justice and equity) and Rahmah (compassion) are two other essential characteristics a leader must possess. Justice without compassion leads to tyranny, and compassion without justice creates anarchy (Bangash, 2000). The Muslim leader has to lead with a sense of justice and fairness to all of his followers regardless of their race, nationality or faith. The Qur'an commands all Muslims to be just and equitable, even when it involves those opposed to them (Al-Qur'an 5:08; 4:135; 7:29). Allah says: *"o you who believe! stand out firmly for justice, as witness lest o Allah, even against yourselves, or your parents or your kin, be he rich or poor; for Allah can protect both so follow not the lusts (of your hearts), lest you may avoid, justice, and if you distort your witness or refuse to give it, verily, Allah is ever well-acquainted with what you do" (An-Nisaa. 4:135).*

Al-Nawwas ibn Sam'an reported that the Prophet said, *"Righteousness is good character, and sin is what rankles in your heart about which you do not want people to know."* Additionally, Wabisah ibn Ma'bad said: *"I came to the Messenger of Allah (saw) who said, 'You have come to ask about righteousness?" 'Yes," I answered. He said, 'Ask your own heart for a fatwa. Righteousness is when the soul feels peace and the heart feels peace, and sin is what creates restlessness in the soul, and rumbles in the bosom, even though people give their opinion (in your favour) and continue to do so."*

When the Prophet consolidated the position of the Muslims in Madinah, he concluded a treaty (Al-Dhimmah) with neighbouring Jewish tribes for the defence of the city. Muhammad (pbuh) was recognised as the undisputed leader, judge and supreme Governor of the citizens of Madinah: *"Give (thy) judgement in accordance with what Allah has revealed, Be not influenced by their wishes ;and beware of them lest they make thee depart from some injunction given thee by Allah"* *(Al-Maidah , 5:49).* Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 11*: 'Adl and Rahmah have positive relationships with decision-making quality*

Decisiveness and Resolution

A leader must be decisive and resolute. He must demonstrate such qualities at all times because a decision delayed may be an opportunity lost. The Prophet himself showed great decisiveness at many critical moments in life, such as when dealing with the Jewish tribes in Madinah (the Banu Qaynuqa', Banu Nadhir and Banu Quraidha) after their treachery was exposed. The Banu Qaynuqa' were expelled from Madinah following the Battle of Badr because of their scandalous behaviour towards a Muslim woman in public. The Banu Nadhir was the next to violate the terms of the treaty during the Battle of Uhud, followed by Banu Quraidha that broke their treaty obligations by conspiring with the Quraish to undermine Muslims during the Battle of Ahzab (5AH). Thus, the Jewish menace in Madinah was eliminated. Only a leader with firmness and conviction could implement such a policy (www.islamicthought.org/pp-zb-leader.html).

Further, Prophet Muhamad, upon whom be peace, advised Abu Dharr, a very close companion who was weak in physique, not to seek a leadership position because such a task was not for the weak. Those who are given such responsibility must live up to its obligations (Bangash 2000). If they fail, they violate a great trust and are answerable for it on the day of Judgement. It is clear from the Prophet's *Sunnah* that decisiveness and firmness are important considerations for leadership; those who are weak are not fit for it (Noor, 1998). Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 12*: Decisiveness and resolution have positive relationships with decision-making quality.*

3.1.6   Synergy (leader-follower mutuality)

The fusion of these four elements of personal qualities, religious spirituality, posture and principals will produce the synergy of a leader-follower mutuality, one of the essential qualities of a leader. Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) achieved this both in Makkah and in Madinah. In Makkah, the people were persecuted, yet their loyalty was retained. In Madinah, the hosts (*Ansar*) were motivated to make great sacrifices by accommodating and caring for newcomers (*Muhajiroun*), as well as by offering protection for the Prophet. An additional challenge was to prevent any misunderstandings arising between the host and newcomers as a result of the sudden influx of such a large number of people in Madinah. There were troublemakers trying to create dissension in the Muslim ranks. The Quraish of Makkah regularly sent emissaries to the notables of Madinah, urging them to eliminate the Muslims. There were those, like Abdullah ibn Ubayy', who viewed the arrival of the Muslims as undermining their own leadership ambitions. The same was true of the Jews, who viewed the Muslims as undermining their monopoly on religious matters. Group solidarity was, therefore, extremely important for Muslims in the face of these challenges, though it was based on *iman* rather than on blood ties or tribal and ethnic identity. Similarly, mobilising resources to sustain the movement is another important task a leader must perform. (www.islamicthought.org/pp-zb-leader.html).

Leader-follower mutuality is important because it provides some degree of quality decision making. The higher the level of the leader-follower mutuality, the greater the willingness of the people to identify with the mission and their readiness to

make sacrifices for it; this situation leads to a higher degree of quality of the decision made to achieve organisational goals. Leader-follower mutuality is, therefore, an important consideration in the decision making quality.

Proposition 13*: The higher the level of synergy (leader-follower mutuality), the higher the quality of the decision made.*

3.1.7   Altruism

Altruism connotes the principle of living while having regards for, and acting for the good of, others, always showing compassion and concern (Webster's Dictionary). Altruistic behaviour conveys an attitude of caring and sharing, an unselfish concern for the continued well-being of others, a state of being mindful of the feelings of people around us while being considerate to their needs, and always striving towards a win-win outcome in whatever we do together (Fry 2003).

A good leader encourages his followers to serve others to get ahead in life. As a leader, one is bound by a position of divine trust to be responsible and accountable for executing justice, equity and consensus in all affairs of life. A leader may be a father, an *imam*, an administrator, a manager, a supervisor, or even an influential employee. Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) pointed out that everyone is entrusted by God Almighty to be a khalifah or a shepherd:

"Everyone of you is a shepherd, and' everyone is responsible for what he is shepherd of," (Sahih al Bulehari; and Muslim)

Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) was a proactive pioneer in getting things done for the cause of Allah SWT. To infuse iman or belief in his followers, he was forthright in his pronouncements about what was legitimate and what was forbidden of them. Additionally, he modelled himself through leadership by example, always setting the pace for others to follow. He always acted without displaying arrogance, but subjugated himself to the best interests of his *ummah* (community), remaining continually courageous but humble. In the process, Prophet Muhammad (pbuh) was regarded as a man of considerable integrity, with a passion to fulfil his mission and the compassion to help lead his people to the straight path.

As for Prophet Isa/Jesus (pbuh), he was a humble servant of the word of Allah. His truthfulness, love, justice and humbleness have been demonstrated in his model conduct of living. His peaceful disposition and gentleness had a great effect on the people while spreading peace, harmony, and blessings throughout the community. His goal was the well-being of the people. A study by Winston (2004) offers early and potential insights into Jesus' (Isa) decision making. According to Winston, although many of the decisions made by Isa were completed at levels directed by rules and laws or through a rational process, the decisions were made based on 'agapao,' an inherent love of others. Koenig (2007) also asserts Mark 10:42-52 in the Bible also addressed Jesus (Isa) as a humble and servant-like leader who was never boastful or arrogant. Al-Qur'an; *Surah* Maryam: 19/32 reveals the following: *"Jesus said, "He has made me obedient to my mother, and He has not made me arrogant and unblessed."*

Thus, leadership involves the process of influencing people to transform their way of life, at times through affirmative action, to achieve betterment. A change for the better could be achieved through modifying one's behaviour, one's circumstance, or one's environment (or any combination together) such that the outcome would benefit mankind in particular. Such a process signifies the basis of altruistic leadership (Noor 1998), which will enhance decision making quality. Thus, the following is proposed:

Proposition 14*: Altruism (altruistic leadership) will enhance the relationship between leadership behaviour and decision making quality.*

4.0   PROPOSED THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The Prophetic leadership model is developed from the great examples of 'Abrahamic faith' prophets (i.e., Ibrahim; Musa; Isa; and Muhammad- may peace be upon them all) and their leadership behaviours. It integrates the leadership of the Prophets, which comprises their personal qualities, decision making processes (posture) and managerial skills (principal). The model is expressed in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: This framework presents the full version of the model that includes leadership behavioural theory, social network theory and the outcome.

PROPHETIC LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR   SOCIAL NETWORK THEORY
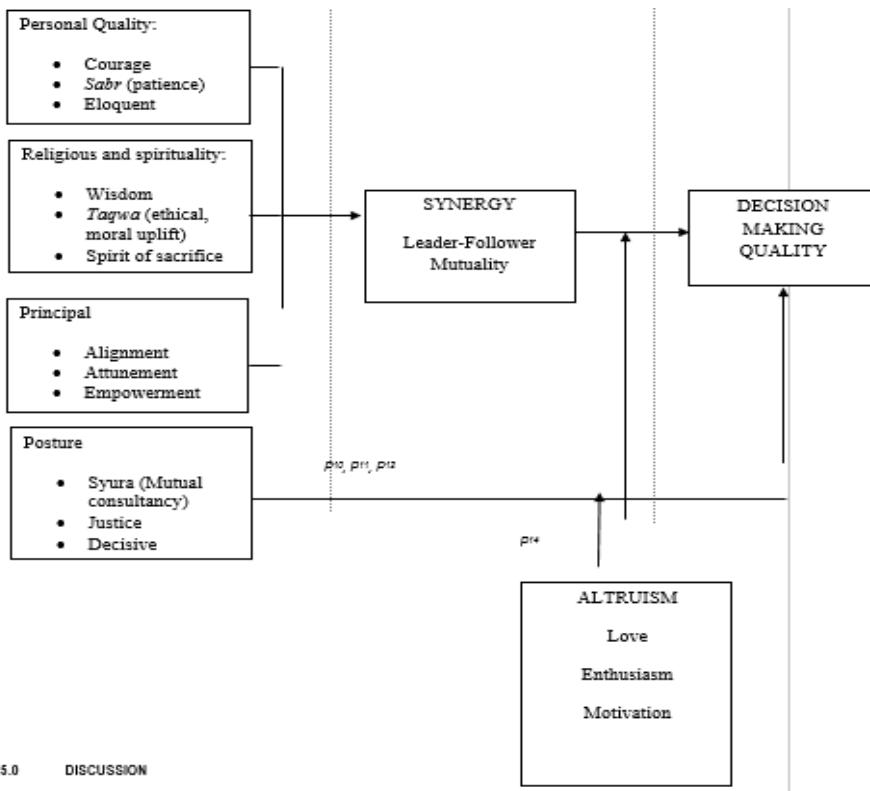
5.0   DISCUSSION

5.0   DISCUSSION

The evolution of leadership theory and practice has come to a point at which more integrative views are branching out, such as trait, transformational, spiritual, Islamic, and transcendental theories. The fundamental premise of this paper is to propose a normative integrated leadership theory called the prophetic leadership model. The starting point for exploring this idea comes from Noor (1998) and Bangash (2000), who proposed a model that described the Prophets' leadership behaviours to influence leadership effectiveness. The present authors extend the model by integrating the social network theory into leadership theory (i.e., the Prophet's leadership behaviour to the followers' minds), which influences leader-follower mutuality and the actual social network structures and relationships that are established. These social networks ultimately facilitate decision making quality, where the leader's ability to influence others will depend, in part, on the social network in which that leader is embedded, as well as on how positive the network is regarding the leader's personal qualities and managerial skill.

 Another rationale behind the concept of a social network is altruistic management. When we are good to other people, when we respect others, and when we are mindful of their needs and concerns, we are most likely to receive similar, mutual responses from them in our interactions with them. "Others" in this context includes our followers, as well as both the internal and external social networks. To attain and enhance decision making quality, the authors propose that altruism as a moderating factor in the decision making process (e.g., leader's posture) and decision making quality.

To achieve something worthwhile, as in attaining a quality decision, a leader has to grapple with a number of forces in a three-step approach. Firstly, he has to contend with himself and his followers. He has to determine his team's competency to handle the issues at hand, so as to ensure that the team's mission is accomplished. In the process, he has to inculcate love among the followers, to work with sincerity without prematurely anticipating the rewards as they are only administered thereafter (*akhirah*). Second, he needs to assess the motivation levels of his team members to keep their commitments

alive. Thirdly, he has to make certain that each member of the team contributes in terms of functions and roles, to keep everyone enthused and focused. The altruistic leader has to continually keep in focus the super ordinate task at hand, while at the same time being truly mindful of the specific needs and expectations of his people. In doing so, he has to rise to the level of his true potential. This is where personal quality, posture and principals all prevail.

While much work remains to be done in terms of sharpening the construct definitions of prophetic leadership and operationalising it, in the opinion of the authors, prophetic leadership is an important and provocative concept that holds promise for multi-paradigmatic and multi-methodological theoretical and empirical research.

6.0   DIRECTION TO FUTURE RESEARCH

As the study of prophetic leadership is in the nascent stages of development, many avenues to refine the construct and move from the conceptual phase to empirical, theory building, and testing phases await leadership researchers. Development and validation of a measure of prophetic leadership that allows researchers to distinguish the construct from similar constructs empirically are needed (Cooper et al., 2005). In addition, studies are needed that relate prophetic leadership and followership development to other fields, such as finance, politics, and organisational behaviour. Qualitative studies, such as retrospective cases of prophetic leaders employing phenomenon analysis may be particularly useful in identifying the construct dimensions of prophetic leadership. In addition, Eisenhardt (1989) made a persuasive case for building a theory from the case study research by including either single or multiple cases. Continued development of the theory is a central activity when building a new construct.

Another avenue for future research involves the use of critical incidents of prophetic and un-prophetic leader behaviours to produce typologies of such behaviours, which may be instrumental in defining the nomological network of the construct domain more precisely. Qualitative interviewing lends itself to the elicitation of significant life stories that have served as trigger events. These events can be followed by an examination of the transformative effects by portraying personal quality, posture and principles, which are hypothesised here to be dimensions of prophetic leader that will influence a follower's mind, motivation and enthusiasm for higher qualities in decision making.

Although much work remains to be done, the prophetic leadership construct is important and promising. The inner lives of the Prophets and their followers show different situation guides and motivates scholars' to scrutinise the leadership behaviours and styles of the prophet. They also propose a model at multiple levels of analysis, while also enhancing the organisational effectiveness and performance. Religious and spiritual identity is posited to be at the core of prophetic leadership, presupposing that both the leader and the followers exhibit positive selves and leader identities that are shared. Duchon and Plowman (2005) did indeed report a positive relationship between scores on a spiritual measure and work unit performance. Prophetic leaders enhance performance and motivation and a highly developed sense of how their roles as leaders carry the responsibility to act morally and in the best interest of others (May et al., 2003); they also enhance and deepen other followers' spiritual identities by creating conditions at work that nurture the human spirit.

7.0   CONCLUSION

Based on the above discussion, prophetic leadership development is the process by which personal quality, religious spirituality, decision making process (posture) and managerial skill (principal) converge and become unified in the prophetic leadership behaviour, which, in turn, is related to synergy (i.e., leaders-followers mutuality). Altruism as a moderating factor works toward the optimisation of performance and the establishment of an organisational climate that nurtures the human spirit at work, as well as positive and strength-based organisational cultures. In sum, religion and spirituality in prophetic leaders are drawn from the selfless ground of the human experience. Religion and spirituality recognise the emotional labour involved in the tasks and responsibilities of leadership, as well as the suffering and sacrifice that are integral components of prophetic leadership. The question of whether prophetic leadership leads to greater synergy between the leaders and the followers is yet to be tested for different organisational cultures.

The model of prophetic leadership introduced in this article includes leadership behaviour, synergy, altruism and decision making quality. The leadership behaviour encompasses personal quality, religious spirituality, posture and principle of a leader. Personal quality and religious spirituality are self defined as having courage, patience, eloquence, wisdom, taqwa and spirit of sacrifice. Posture reflects the decision making process as conceptualised by mutual consultancy, justice, equity and decisiveness. Principal is conceptualised by managerial skills, such as the dimensions of alignment, attunement and

empowerment. Synergy serves as a bridge between leadership behaviour and decision making quality, while altruism will enhance the relationships. Both synergy and altruism are embedded in the social network theory. The model proposes that prophetic leaders are based on spiritual, transcendental and Islamic behaviours and values that view their responsibility as *ibadah*. Their leadership behaviour, taken from the prophets, will lead to better decision making.

Much work needs to be done, particularly with regards to (a) achieving a greater clarity of construct definitions, (b) addressing measurement issues, and (c) avoiding construct redundancy. With respect to construct clarity, the key dimensions of prophetic leadership have been defined in the present study to create a theoretically based definition. However, the current definition of prophetic leaders is based on the Qur'anic verse and *seerah* of the prophet, unaware of the context in which the current situation operates. As according to Avolio et al. (2004), it is very broad and contains many diverse elements from diverse domains (e.g., traits, states, behaviours, contexts) that pose serious measurement challenges.

At the present time, the study of prophetic leadership is hampered by both a lack of construct clarity and the absence of reliable and valid instruments of prophetic leadership. Achieving construct clarity involves identifying the relevant construct dimensions, specifying the interrelationships among construct dimensions, and identifying the boundaries within which the construct elements are interrelated in a lawful manner (Dubin, 1978). The social sciences have a strange inability to recognise that a theoretical model must have boundaries, even if the boundaries are overlapping. Finally, the issue of construct redundancy involves the need to avoid overlaps between construct dimension of prophetic leadership and other values-based theories such as spiritual, transcendent or Islamic leadership. One of the important research challenges ahead is establishing the discriminant validity of the prophetic leadership construct. If discriminant validity cannot be established, then the question raised by Cooper et al. (2005) regarding the need for creating other leadership constructs becomes highly relevant. If the prophetic leadership construct is not unique (i.e., fails to demonstrate discriminant validity), time and effort may be more effectively spent using existing theories to address questions generated by prophetic leadership.

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Education and Social Reproduction in Schools

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Abstract

Education is important for all structures of the society. The structures of the society mainly classes are involved and tried to be educated in places which are separated deliberately for the aims. On the other hand, from society to society the aims and also the expectation can be changed. This article tries to explain and discuss the progressing of education as a perception for individual and society. The references will be found out according to the graduates those are the products of schools in the society and the education as a system for the classes in the structure of the society. As an instrument education needs to be given thought to on and reconsidered for the individual and social perspectives. Education is one of the main factors for the social reproduction in the society. That is a nature of the societies that they want to reproduce themselves as they are. So society cannot be separated from reproduction and education. Hence, in this paper, effort was made to establish the fact that education and social reproduction are the basic tools for cultural and individual function for the society. The paper asserts that education supports and helps social reproduction as one of the factors of socialization. For many years, in this way, education has done its duty in the society as a tool with its all stages formally or informally. The paper posits that social reproduction always goes on with its tools in the society. However it can be underline that education as a tool is changed and perception on education is considered in different ways for cultural and individual functions.

Key words: education, social reproduction, schools, society,

1. Introduction

Education is a global system all over the world. Countries mainly governments and societies try to get more educated people according to their programs and need. The programs consist of the goals and aims. These programs are formally followed and taken place in school environment with classrooms by professional teachers. During the teaching and learning process, it is important that academic skills are tried to be developed, transferring of knowledge is focused and gaining the values is spread among the members of society. Education is a tool for national improvement with transmitting and maintaining culture for development and technological advancement (Ekanem&Ekefre, 2013). These activities and plans generally take places in schools. So schools are the most important centers for educating new members for the societies. Mainly schools are the places for the state to sell on the education program of the government and for the citizens to gain knowledge, abilities, success and their future with academic abilities (Brown, 2010). With this point education has two functions to accomplish from both sides. These are individual and cultural functions (Huitt, 2004). These two functions help and support the states and societies plans and wishes to reach their targets. Also the families have their positions in social structure part and try to get a better life or stable statues for their children with the education system. The nations are changing but every nation reaches a new better point with the development by getting new resources and products (Oshita, 2009). That is the school to get the social reproductions with its all functions through cultural reproduction in the societies (Bourdieu&Passeron 1990; Harker, 1990).

2. Education and Social Reproduction

Education plays visible role with all stages to socialize the nation in all societies. Society has institutions and those make society a dynamic, complex and alive organization. These institutions are family, education, media and peers etc. (Coser, et. al. 1987).). They socialize the members of the society by passing the social and cultural owned which society has. Social reproduction uses the same tools and equipment that society has to perpetuate its dynamic function. That is society wants to keep and continue itself by reproducing as it is. So education is one of the most powerful social institutions to reproduce the nation according the social system. Education reproduces the new members to statues, roles, jobs, positions and places. From the sociological view, social reproduction system works from reproducing the labor, relations, products, social functionalism to knowledge (Sezal, 2002; Dönmezer, 1994). However education has a great effect on the society because

of controlling the young generation from the beginning of their lives (Wilson&Wyn, 1987). As an institution education decides the future perspective of those young generations with supporting social reproduction. Generally the National Policy on Education has objectives for the nations that enable attitudes from individual to society that include (Ekanem&Ekefre, 2013):

- Faith in the power of human knowledge

- Respect for the worth and dignity of the individual

- Faith in man's ability to make rational decisions

- Moral and spiritual values of interpersonal and human relations.

- Shared responsibility for the common good of society.

- Promotion of emotional, physical and psychological health of all children.

According the aims of education system the young generation morally and culturally rising up under one umbrella of the values and knowledge as a society. It is a functional process with the institutions in the society. It is functional because the process goes nation to nation that's why social reproduction is neither perfect nor complete (Harker, 1990), with its all process it is a journey to the future.

3. Changing Perception on or with Education in Social Reproduction

From the beginning of 20ᵗʰ century education as a formal system has been proceeding with all stages and grades. Education has a dynamic function and alive with its consequences in communities. The time and the members of the nation's change but education as a function of society has still been going on with renewing and social reproduction in all periods of the centuries. As an instrument education shows effectiveness and improvement with its positive and negative perceptions and impacts in the societies. According to social reproduction the process goes on as well. May be from one point, it is not important that education brings positive or negative reproductions in side of the society. Because the main point is social reproduction is going on and it is a need to be existed for a society.

On the other hand perception on education has been changing with the last nearly two decades. There was an understanding that education makes human a person or an individual with his intelligent mind, moralities and behaviors. But today education is mainly not to educate people. It is something to have a diploma or a job. It was an *instrument* to make life better with educated people, but now it is an *aim* to get life or to live in the society. From this view for people, education is not need but an obligatory to live and continue their life in the society. Because of having a diploma means a place or status in the society. Values, moralities and educating are getting less important for people. By thinking to survive in the society people are ready for getting what they are given to educate. So the countries' people can be shaped according to their education system (Haase&Charlton, 2008). As a result of this the citizen wants what tries to be given to him/her, with his/her wishes but considering with anxiety, by knowing if he or she has not an educational certificate means trouble in the future. People are struggling to get higher statues in the society but not mainly to be an educated person.

Another point is on learning. A general description for learning is changing behavior, mind and understanding. But today memorizing is getting more important than learning which means "if you don't learn and use you will forget." Therefore theoretical knowledge is getting more visible but practicing is invisible. Researches show that a person learns more when he/she does something which means applying the knowledge by practicing it. More practicing means more learnings or vice versa.

Next point is about personal development. A person develops year by year psychologically, physiologically and biologically. But in education system the knowledge is important. A person is tested for these knowledge how much he or she knows. The potential, abilities or emotion of a person is not so considerable. It can be said they are important but through knowledge, they try to be understood. The assessment points are generally on competitiveness, efficiency and rationality (Haase&Charlton, 2008). A person cannot be known only with those terms (Illich, 1973). If a person gets more education on competitiveness, efficiency and rationality or think only about them with giving fewer moralities, he/she can become more dangerous (Brown, 2010).

Also with multiple choice exams a person's knowledge can be learned but psychology cannot be understood -if it is not a psychological test-. For example students attend universities after a multiple choice exam. He/she has a right to study one of the educational departments and will be a teacher. There are not any evidences that he/she is psychologically well. A

person may have a psychological problem like stress, neurosis, hypochondriasis, factitious disorder, paranoia, manic-depression, or narcissism etc. But passing the test is enough. If there is… he/she is going to be a teacher in schools and teaching and learning processes will be leaded by him/her. Only having multiple choice exams cannot identify the situation especially for some jobs. Some jobs candidates need to be paid more attention specifically those are relating, dealing or working with people. Especially teachers they are going to build up and raise the nation of the country, mainly teach our children.

The other point is memorizing the knowledge for a test or for an exam hours. But those knowledge cannot be applied or use for the other times. To memorize or to know for that period is enough it doesn't matter it will be applied or used again. For example; a foreign language test in secondary or high schools, everybody knows that they don't use or learn this language but thousands of exams are written. The students know that there is not any learning here, the memorizing is for that test. If they pass they won't speak or use practically in their life. Another example is from the exam which helps students to attend the universities. In high schools especially for social departments' students also learn more mathematics but some departments need may be the basic part of mathematics. In this case the students who are going to attend social department also must learn the subjects but they won't use them after passing the university exam. For other courses and subjects can be find many example like this. The question is "If I don't use it in my life why do I have to memorize it for a period of time?"

Related to this point is potential or abilities of the students can be ignored or killed by the system. For example a student is very well in physics but have some problem with history or vice versa. May be with his/her potential is able to be developed and can be a scholar or inventor. But he/she has to study or separate his/her time another course even can be dislike or hated by him/her with the psychological problems. So the abilities are atrophied by the system in which they are. For those students who have potential and abilities and have bright future can be some flexible norms. Otherwise the system tries to equal everyone irrespective of his/her potential and ability (Illich, 1973).

One more point about getting more knowledge but not using and producing anything is becoming a problem in the society. Because people can be intellectuals or know much knowledge and terms but if these ideas are only for debates, showing the intelligent level to others or talking but not producing anything for the society, after some time the society's members cannot find a technical person to fix home appliances, their cars and their clothes. The society needs both of them intellectuals and producers. If the majority of the people are intellectuals it means more than producers, there will be much talked about but little work to be done (Neil, 1960).

The last point is about the society's development and problems. It is normal that with more educated people life standards and living styles of the societies will be higher. It's normal that the individual's and sociological problems will be seen and consider less and less by the higher educating level of the societies. These educated societies' people can be more creative, have aims for the future and solving the problems in the society can be easier. It is interesting and need to be paid attention that the education level in the societies are getting more and more but the problems are increasing directly proportional. Some sociological problems are; divorcing, children abuse, using drugs, and inequalities in education system and in societies etc. Although the education systems are developing with technological equipment, these problems are getting more and more in modern societies and the societies, individuals must cope with them.

4. Conclusion

According to some sociologists we are not born as humans, society makes us human. So the human will be a person and an individual with his/her specialties among the people. For this aim the education can help person as an instrument to be an individual in that specific society. But the education should be an instrument, a tool as a perception not an aim to reach and finish learning and do everything. Otherwise education system is only developed the heads but not hearts, personalities and moralities.

Those are some criticizing about the education system. There can be found other negatives or many positive parts, too. But the social reproduction goes on inside of the societies and the people try to cope with their problems in daily life. How the perception of the people inside of the society about the things, approaches, life styles and education system, the social reproducing spread over the society as it is. So the society should x-ray and reorganize its education system. The programs will go in schools and the new aims and targets can be applied. Social reproducing in schools can help and change the perception of the people in the society. That is everybody passes on his/her way from the school environment and gets in to the cultural and individual functions.

The education level of the world is getting higher and higher in each year. But respect and tolerance among the people are getting less and less. The question is "What education is for, Is it an aim or a tool for human life?". Nowadays this question needs to be answered.

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Efforts to Elevate Al-Quran Studyamong the Visually Impaired Group in Malaysia: Challenges and Proposals

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Abstract

Reciting and familiarization with al-Qur'an is very much urged on the Muslim ummah, whether they are typical or disbled people. Based on innovative research and current technological advances, it is now possible to provide this opportunity and facilities of education, including in al-Quran studies, to visually impaired people. There are some previous research and innovations, including the invention of a portable electronic panel known as Electronic Braille (e-Braille) al-Quran Teaching Aid (N.A.Abdul Khoni 2010), research on vibration of al-Quran in Braille code (Abdallah M.Abualkhishik (2010) and research through Google Speech API (Samir, 2013). This research proves that al-Quran studies among the visually impaired are increasingly gaining the attention of many parties, especially among the academicians. In Malaysia the Special Education program implemented for the visually impaired is part of the National Education Policy. However, this program poses certain challenges for secondary schools in Malaysia, including the issues of infrastructural needs in support of teaching and learning of Islamic Education and the lack of teaching aids from extensive sources. The course module materials for al-Quran teaching in Braille are too scanty and textbooks for Islamic Education are not in Braille. A paradigm shift is required to overcome the challenges, particularly involving social engagements of smart partnerships among the authorities. Malaysia should emulate the excellent examples of other Muslim countries in dealing with issues involving the visually impaired, such as Jordan which was awarded the Franklin Delano Roosevelt International Disability Award for her success in placing issues of the disabled at the top of the national agenda. The "investment in humanity" policy which is an effort to compete with resource-rich neighbouring countries explains how Jordan is able to solve the needs of her disabled in comparison to her neighbours (Muslim World Issue, 2006). Meanwhile Iran has succeeded in publishing and distributing copies of Quran in Braille to other countries through the application of new technology. This Braille Quran is recognized as the best during the Braille Quran International Seminar in Turkey. Hence the purpose of this article is to discuss several important solutions to elevate al-Quran studies among the visually impaired in Malaysia.

Keywords: Quran studies, Braille, Special Education, challenges

INTRODUCTION

Al-Quran studies undoubtedly play an important role in developing the Ummah. Hence, al-Quran studies need to be given due attention and focus in national education development in order to ensure the best impact on the process of building the Ummah. Even so, not every Muslim is blessed with good eyesight to study al-Quran. There are those who are congenitally blind or have lost their total or partial eyesight from accident or mishap. Such special needs people may only hear the holy verses recited before committing them to memory. As for those with a strong memory, they may memorize all 30 chapters of al-Qur'an. Visually impaired people are also human beings created by Allah SWT to worship Him. Thus, even though they may be handicapped in terms of sight, they also have needs and are similarly obliged to learn and glorify al-Quran as other Muslims. Hence, Braille Quran is the best solution for them to learn al-Qur'an and understand it.

Islamic history shows that al-Quran has given a respectable career to the visually impaired in the Muslim world. Many among them have completed memorization of al-Qur'an and made a career being a Qari (Quran reciter), for which there is a good market (M.Abdel Haleem, 2001). A Qari is not only needed at funerals, commemorative ceremonies, Maulid (Prophet Pbuh) processions but also for Quran weekly activities at home. Likewise, a Qari is needed on the opening of new

buildings and events such as seminars. History also shows that each mosque had a permanent Qari. In fact, technological development enables recitations to be recorded on tape and video, and the opportunity to be an international Qari.

EFFORTS TO ELEVATE AL-QURAN STUDIES AMONG THE VISUALLY IMPAIRED DISABLED IN MALAYSIA

In Malaysia, Braille Quran was first taught in the year 1952 at Princess Elizabeth Special Education National School, Johore Baru. In the decade of 50-60's, efforts were focused on introducing in Braille, the basic *hijaiyyah* letters, vowel signs and so on. Through the Malaysian Society for the Blind, the project Braille Quran was launched in the year 1980 and funded by an Islamic Welfare Organization, PERKIM. This project took 5 years to complete and succeeded in producing two master copies, in Arabic and Malay languages. This special needs group was never marginalized in the world of education. It is proven in the inclusion of the Department of Special Education in the National Education Philosophy. Special education is also provided for school students (Education Act, 1996) A special school is one which provides special education as specified by the regulations under Section 41 of Education Act In school, the visually impaired group may learn more formally as does the typical group. Further, in the year 1983 the Ministry of Education had set up a Committee for al-Quran al-Karim Braille Code with the purpose of creating a consistent and systematic code to produce and learn al-Quran in Braille in Malaysia. This effort took 15 years and finally a Wasilah Braille Code for recitation of al-Quran al-Karim began to be printed by Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (DBP) in the year 1998.

The fate of the visually impaired disabled gained increasing attention of various parties in the government, NGO and volunteers. Efforts and interest to help this group through the establishment of more schools at once recognizes the efforts of volunteers until the materialization of Implementation of Education Policy under Declaration 169 (Mustaffa Abdullah 2010). Next in the year 2013, the Department of Islamic Development of Malaysia (JAKIM) in collaboration with Islamic Sciences University of Malaysia (USIM) and NGO of the visually impaired succeeded in developing the method of Standard Writing of Braille Quran Malaysia based on Rasm Uthmani and is expected to be published sometime this year 2015 (Noor Najihan and Kauthar, 2008) Jakim through its Publication Section has succeeded in holding a workshop, Development of Standard Writing of Braille al-Quran of Malaysia, comprising of representatives of USIM, Ministry of Interior (KDN), Society for the Visually Impaired of Malayisa (PERTIS), Organization for Development of the Blind Malaysia (PPOBM), Braille Society of Malaysia (PBM) and JAKIM. Muslim visually impaired special people also have the same instinct to learn al-Quran as typical Muslims. Hence, various steps have been taken by the authorities and NGOs to elevate al-Quran studies in Braille among the visually impaired disabled, such as the giving of free copies of Braille Quran, holding classes for learning Braille Quran, holding events for recital (musabaqah tilawah) of al-Quran for these special people and conducting related academic research.

      1)   Free copies of Al-Quran in Braille

Al-Quran in Braille is *mushaf* of al-Qur'an which uses the Arabic in Braille code to represent *hijaiyyah* letters, vowel signs such as *fathah, dammah,* and *kasrah* as well as symbols of *shaddah, sukun, mad* and so on (Ahmad Kamel et.al 2009). It is written and read from left to right, letters and vowel signs are written together, that is, letters are marked with vowel signs, and only *shaddah* sign is written before a letter. Braille Quran is specifically created for the visually impaired to read al-Quran. Technological advances have enabled the blind to read al-Quran in Braille created for them. This system of raised dots is benefitting the Muslims among the visually impaired. Many of them are able to learn al-Quran on their own without assistance. However, the dream to read al-Quran in Braille is only achievable for those who can afford it as the edition costs between RM200-300 per copy (Siti Maisarah, 2011). As it is expensive, not every visually impaired person can afford to purchase a copy. Thus, the generosity of parties who give free copies of Braille Quran is a blessing for which those in need of it are grateful. Among those who have come forward to give this assistance are PERTIS, POBM, State Islamic Councils, NGO, social activists and generous philanthropists.

In Malaysia, the development of Braille Quran was initiated by the Society of Visually Impaired Muslims of Malaysia (PERTIS) and it is the only organization which has been entrusted by the first copyist of Braille Quran in soft copy, Muhammad Lee Abdullah, to implement publication and printing of Braille Quran in the beginning from the year 1998. The Braille Quran was then verified by JAKIM and approved by the KDN. According to the Deputy President of PERTIS, Zamzuri Ghani, each Ramdan month, the society receives many orders for Braille Quran, including for nation-wide distribution to the disabled, in addition to contributions for mosques or those in need of it. Clearly, Braille Quran is sold at the price of

RM200 but usually for PERTIS members who are visually impaired disabled, it is given free of charge. It is the aspiration of PERTIS to give away a copy of Braille Quran free to every blind person so that they may be knowledgeable about al-Quran (Siti Airunnisa Alaui. 2015). According to Puan Seri Norma Hashim, a social activist, many among the visually impaired cannot afford to own a Braille Quran. Hence, she feels the call to donate copies of Braille Quran to those who need it (Fatin Hafizah Mohd Shahar. 2014).

In addition, there are other NGOs such as al-Fitrah Foundation which is a branch of International Union of Braille Quran Services (IBQS) in Malaysia. This body mobilized the Braille Quran Initiative such as encouraging public contribution through purchase of al-Quran for the visually impaired. They also print Muqaddam and Surah Yasin other than al-Qur'an for the visually impaired to use. This pro-active attitude is clearly seen in efforts to share quality information such as readers, reports of Braille Quran seminars, Tafseer project and so on (www.braillemalaysia.com). This year, IBQS will be hosting the Second International Meeting on Braille Quran in Istanbul from 24th to 29th August, 2015. The event will be opened with an inaugural ceremony where Turkish officials will be participating. The inaugural ceremony will be followed by the academic part of the event. This year our academic partner is Yalova University, Faculty of Islamic Sciences. The academic part will cover 3 academic papers and a key-note speech by a very well-known professor in the area of Islamic Sciences. The title of the academic part this year is "Understanding the Concept of Disability in the light of the Holy Quran".(www.kitaba.org)

The Malaysian government is increasingly active in efforts to improve religious education among the disabled group and such efforts show positive development. In Malaysia, there are some states which hold Braille Quran classes. These classes are organized by PERTIS. To date, the states of Terengganu, Kelantan, Pahang, Kuala Lumpur, Negeri Sembilan, Kedah and Perlis are involved in the program of Braille Quran studies (Siti Nor Azimah, 2014).

Braille Quran class is for the purpose of giving exposure to the method and technique of reading Braille al-Quran for the visually impaired. Braille al-Quran has certain codes which have to be learnt and memorized before reading it. In order to realize this effort, the Trengganu State Religious and Malay Customs Council (MAIDAM) allocated an annual amount of RM285000 for the disabled to study Braille. The MAIDAM Senior Director, Department of Dakwah, Education and Mosque Management, Datuk Samsiah Awang said that the provision is channelled directly to PERTIS Trengganu which is responsible for managing the class thrice a week at Seberang Takir. So far, almost 50 students have benefitted from these classes which are well-received by the disabled throughout the state. In Kuala Lumpur, PERTIS holds classes for its members every Saturday or Sunday at the building of the Malayisan Organization of the Blind (MAB), Brickfields. Membership has reached 70 blind persons (Noradila Mahamad. 2014).

2) al-Quran Tilawah Event

Efforts to elevate proper reading of al-Quran by the visually impaired are intensified through the organizing of the Braille al-Quran Tilawah Event. Such an event gives the opportunity to this special group to participate in it. For Norasyikin Baharudin, 36, being visually impaired is not an obstacle to recite al-Quran. She never missed participating in the Braille al- Quran Tilawah Event organized by the Department of Social Welfare (JKM). The Director of Negeri Sembilan JKM, Abdullah Hanafi said that the purpose of the program is to attract the interest to read, understand and familiarize with al-Quran as well as inculcate Islamic values and Islamic practice of entertainment (Sinar Harian, 2013).

Being visually impaired also did not hinder Mohd. Qayyim Sarimin, 14, from clinching the championship thrice in a row in the al-Quran Tilawah category of the 2013 National Level Interschool al-Quran Tadarus Event (MTQSS). Congenitally blind Qayyim, who represented the state of Kelantan and recorded a meaningful success, has participated in the annual program since the year 2010 (Mohd Naim Aziz. 2013). His success which has made him the pride of the special needs people, proves that Braille al-Quran facilitates this special needs group to acquire worldly knowledge as well as of the hereafter so long as they do not feel marginalized or disadvantaged by their handicap. This is because. Allah SWT gives them a special place in addition to manifold reward if they are sincere in their devotion to Him.

3) Conduct Study and Research

There is much research concerning Braille al-Qur'an Braille in Malaysia. One of these is a modular study by Muhammad Mustaqim Mohd Zarif et al (2014) entitled *Towards an Uthmanic Model of Quran Orthography in Braille*. The aim of his paper is to propose an Uthmanic model of Quranic orthography in Braille. It focuses on the chapter of Maryam as its sample

and applies the qualitative methods of textual and comparative analysis on the revelational criteria of Quranic orthography and the limitations of the Braille writing system. This results in a more standardized and adaptable model of Quranic orthography in Braille with minimal changes in the use of vocalization and other diacritical marks of the Quran. Currently, this model is proposed to serve as a basis for the development of a national standard of Quranic orthography in Braille by the relevant authorities in cooperation with the visually challenged organizations in Malaysia. Another study is on the implementation of Braille Quran learning, Module of Teaching Braille al-Quran: A Preliminary Survey by Norhasrina Ibrahim (2014). Yet another is by Ahmad Nowawi et al (2002) entitled Implementation of Learning al-Quran using Braille Writing for Visually Impaired Students at Princess Elizabeth Special Education National School, Johor Bahru. This research focuses on three aspects: using teaching aids, achievement and method of teaching and learning. The research instrument used is questionnaire and findings show that use of teaching aids and method of teaching and learning play an important role in improving student achievement.

There is also a study concerning an instrument which aids in learning Braille Quran, by N.A.Abdul Khoni et al (2010) entitled A Novel Development of Electronic Braille al-Quran Teaching Aid. This research describes the development of a portable electronic panel that helps in teaching the visually impaired to learn and read Al-Quran, named Electronic Braille (eBraille) Al-Quran Teaching Aid. The eBraille Panel comprises of an outer case, Braille cell, jacks, Perkin keys, functionality keys, navigation keys and sound keys. The panel has an ergonomic characteristic that gives comfort to the user while using the panel. The panel is portable and it can be connected to a computer and the teaching process can be done by controlling on the computer or the panel itself. As the teacher types the character, it will be displayed to the student's panel via wireless connection. The main advantage of this research is to allow teaching the visually impaired in more effective ways. The delivery of lesson will be more efficient and the teaching and learning process can be done in just a short time.

Another study by Noornajihan Jaafar et al (2014) identifies the most qualifying characteristics of an educator (*murabbi)* for teaching special children. He outlines eight elements of the Murabbi model for special children: Rabbani thinking, mastery of knowledge and generous, positive personality, educates from the heart, possesses teaching skills, effective communication, self-motivation and continuous training and education. In another study, Norakyairee Mohd Raus et al (2013) analyzes current issues and challenges of teaching Braille. This research involves the instruments of observation and interview. Findings show that there are some issues and challenges which require the support of all parties in order for the concept of the beauty of religious living among Visually Impaired Special Needs Students (MBK) to succeed.

CHALLENGES AND PROPOSALS FOR BRAILLE QURAN STUDIES IN MALAYSIA

It is indeed undeniable that there are many challenges in Braille al-Quran studies in Malaysia. These challenges may be fundamental or ancillary. The fundamental issues involve teachers and classes, infrastructure and teaching aids. According K. A. Razhiyah (2010), there are also some teachers who volunteer to teach special education classes not because of interest, but only to flee from the mainstream workload. They assume that in Special Education classes there are not many tasks to do. He added that the syndrome of going back to their hometown, lack of option, and additional allowance, are reasons why some teachers are drawn to this field. It is not surprising there is a request to return to mainstream schools as a teacher or transfer due to academic exchange. This fact is supported in a study by Norhasnira Ibrahim et al (2014) which finds that the main problem faced by teachers is that they do not know basic Braille and al-Quran Braille code because of no exposure during teacher training.

Al-Quran classes for typical people are numerous, but lacking for this special needs group. Only a few states provide Braille al-Quran classes. Infrastructure and needs for ths special group in mosques, particularly in the field of al-Quran are seriously lacking, or can be said to be non-existent. There is no Braille al-Quran available in mosques for their use, no special al-Quran classes for them, no tajwid reference materials in Braille to facilitate their understanding of tajwid rules in order to master recitation of al-Quran or even any translation of al-Quran in Braille (Hajarul Bahti Zakaria et.al, 2015).

Likewise, Special Eduaction programs in secondary schools in Malaysia still lacks infrastructure to support teaching and learning of Islamic Education and Teaching Aids from extensive resources (Mohd Hanafi et.al 2009). The course module reference materials for teaching al-Quran in Braille writing are too scanty. Islamic Education textbooks are also not written in Braille in comparison to textbooks for other subjects. These limitations make it difficult for teachers and visually impaired students to implement the process of teaching and learning al-Quran. All these essential matters require due attention and

focus in order to ensure continuance of dakwah towards the visually impaired group, particularly in the field of al-Quran studies.

Hence, in order that the problem may be resolved and pro-active steps may be taken, a few proposals are submitted below:

1-The authorities need to provide and increase teaching aids to encourage students so that they can make references on their own. Familiarization with al-Qur'an is highly demanded of the Muslim community whether they are typical or disabled groups. One study in the form of a social engagement to assist in this regard entitled *"Pembinaan Modul Braille Hadis 40 Imam Nawawi : Ke Arah Memartabatkan Program Pendidikan Khas di Malaysia "*(Constructing Braille Module of 40 Hadith by Imam Nawawi: Towards Elevating the Special Education Program in Malaysia) is conducted by researchers of the National University of Malaysia (UKM) and funded from FRGS/1/2014/SSI03/UKM/02/5. This research is a collaboration between UKM and PERTIS.

2- Innovative research and current technological advancement require scientists, particularly academicians, to fulfill the educational opportunities and facilities for the visually impaired group, including in al-Quran studies. One such research is by Abdallah M Abualkishik et al (2010) entitled "Quran Vibrations in Braille Code". The aim of his research is to build a system which translates Quranic surah into Braille symbols including new vibrations. The existing system is inadequate because there are no specific vibrations in reading al-Quran such as required for *Izhar, Idgham, Ikhfa', Iqlab* and *Qalqalah*. Hence, his research aims to build a system which translates specific vibrations into Braille symbols.

3-It is hoped that more NGOs and noble-hearted volunteers will come forward to help the visually impaired by providing facilities and other necessities, especially Braille al-Quran. This is because the Braille Quran is like a beacon of light for them to learn al-Quran. Datuk Mah Hassan Omar, President of the Braille Society of Malaysia hopes to give at least one copy of the Braille text of al-Quran free of charge to each family or place one in each mosque in the country. This is a challenge to the government, the private sector and society as a whole to think of their status and help this special needs group to acquire adequate knowledge (Siti Maisarah Sheikh Rahim, 2011).

APPRECIATION

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Public Sphere and Collective Action. the Portuguese Movement of the "15th September"

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Abstract:

Considering the social events and collective protests that have emerged in the international and national public sphere and more specifically the movement "To hell with the Troika! We want our lives!" – a social movement that started in June, 2012, against the Troika and the measures of the Portuguese Government, and which was responsible for the organization of the demonstration of the 15th September 2012, in Portugal, as well as in other cities in the country and in Europe, spreading in social digital networks and leading to subsequent public demonstrations, we propose a study concerning the current protest movements and the new forms of public mobilization, once activism has increased in electronic links (net activism) and on the street. Revisiting the conceptions of public sphere as a common space related to the notion of living-together, as publicity and visibility (Arendt), as a form and an event (Quéré) and as a space of meeting, accessibility and movement (Joseph), we, thus, intend to discuss the following issues: the public space as a place of collective action (Cefaï) and civic mobilization (Rouet); the importance of digital social networks in the new forms of communication – in relation with the modern public space (Habermas) - and the analysis of the movement of the 15th September in the light of Tillly's perspective on social movements. It is also our aim to understand whether these new forms of organization, mobilization and acting in public are distant, or not, from traditional social movements and if we are facing the emergence of new public spaces.

Keywords: public sphere, social movements, collective mobilizations, digital networks

In the past few years, social movements have displayed a set of characteristics that are different from the conventional patterns of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries' collective action movements. The discussion around social movements started in the nineteenth century, with the formation of the labor movement. Protests lost their spontaneity and depoliticized character, typical of pre-industrial societies, and became organized and politicized – there were planned and politicized demonstrations and strikes, claiming for economic, social and even political benefits. In the mid-twentieth century there were movements based on universal values, such as the environment, autonomy, identity and peace; the focus of protest was no longer centered on labor and materialistic issues. Though these movements had no party affiliation, they had political objectives, trying to sensitize public opinion.

The right to protest has been recognized throughout contemporary European history, allowing citizens to use new forms of mobilization to claim rights or simply to express their opinion in the public space. If collective action movements such as strikes and demonstrations were once banned and seen as public disorder, over time they have become granted rights, leading to the emergence of new forms of contestation in the public sphere. Inversely, since the beginning of the twentieth century, parties and trade unions have been losing their leading role as far as the organization of demonstrations and strikes is concerned. Scheduled collective actions, conducted by specific actors, have been replaced by new forms of social action that use social networks (Twitter, Facebook, YouTube, etc.) as a means of mobilization and they often have no leaders, organization or headquarters. These social movements do not claim more rights; they defend the existing ones, so that full citizenship, freedom of expression and the right of participation in political, economic, social and educational life remain granted rights.

The Portuguese movement of the 15th September 2012 – "To hell with the *Troika*! We want our lives!" – clearly illustrates this new form of protest, motivated by the dissatisfaction of Portuguese citizens. This movement joined thousands of people,

protesting against the government's policies and claiming a new political, economic and social model. In several cities across the country, the Portuguese, as citizens, while people belonging to a community, intervened in the public sphere and expressed themselves on issues that concerned them, such as the crisis, unemployment and exploitation.

This movement has led us to reflect on the current protest movements and new forms of collective action and public mobilization, at a time when activism is done in electronic links (net activism) and on the street. We will, thus, start with the presentation of this movement, we will look at the public space as a place of collective action and civic mobilization, we will try to understand if we are facing new forms of mobilization and acting in public and whether these are distant or not from traditional social movements and, finally, we will look at the importance of social digital networks in new communication methods and new forms of activism and public protest.

1. The Movement "To hell with the *Troika*! We want our lives!"

On the 15th September 2012, there was a major demonstration in Portugal. The protest occurred simultaneously in about forty Portuguese cities and also in Paris, Berlin, London, Brussels and Barcelona. This movement was organized by a group of citizens as a reaction against the crisis the country was facing as well as against the measures politicians were taking to solve it.

On the 6th April 2011, the Portuguese government, headed by the former Prime Minister José Socrates, asked for external help to solve the country's financial crisis. The failure to pay the public debt, to lower the public deficit, and the need to obtain funds to inject into public companies that were technically bankrupt led the country to sign a memorandum of understanding with the *Troika* (the International Monetary Fund, the European Central Bank and the European Commission). Since then, both the economic difficulties and political instability increased and it was necessary to carry out early elections.

In the elections of the 5th June 2011, the Socialist Party (PS) was defeated. The Social Democratic Party (PSD) won, but without a majority in parliament. The elected Prime Minister, unable to govern in such adverse circumstances, made a governance agreement with the Popular Party (CDS-PP). The new Portuguese government decided to strictly follow the terms of the bailout program defined by the *Troika*, which led to great austerity measures. The fiscal restraint led to a general increase in taxes, contradicting the electoral promises. There were cuts to social benefits, salaries, pensions, subsidies and tax benefits, and there was an increase in VAT, rising the prices both of essential and superfluous goods, and consequently causing great economic difficulties for the population.

This context of difficulties and the widespread dissatisfaction led to the creation of the platform "To Hell with the *Troika*! We want our lives!". It was a spontaneous, horizontal movement, with no political affiliation, which quickly disseminated in social networks as a movement of ordinary citizens, from distinct areas and political persuasions. Its purpose was to channel popular discontent, while organizing a major national demonstration of democratic citizenship, so that the Portuguese could protest against the severe austerity measures.

In their manifesto they claimed:

"We must do something extraordinary. We must take the streets and squares of the cities and our fields. We must join the voices, hands… We must do something against submission and resignation, against the bottleneck of ideas, against the dying of the collective will. We must call upon the voices, arms and legs of all people who know that the present and the future are decided on the streets. (...) The sacking (loan, help, rescue, names that are given to it, depending on the lie that they want to tell us) came together with the application of devastating political measures… The austerity imposed on us destroys our dignity and our life, it does not work and destroys democracy. We must overcome the fear that has been skillfully widespread and, once and for all, realize that we have almost nothing to lose and that the day will come when we will have lost everything because we have shut up and given up. (...) They divided us to oppress us. Let us join together to free ourselves!" (queselixea*Troika*blogspot.pt 15th September 2014)

Despite the fact that the 29 subscribers of the movement presented themselves on the internet as a group that was not organizational nor had any party affiliation, the original idea for the movement seems to have come from inside the organization "Inflexible Precarious" (IP). According to Rui Marçal, Marco Marques, Myriam Zaluar, Magda Alves and Tiago Mota Saraiva, all activists of the IP (Tiago Saraiva is also a member of the PCP), were the mentors of this movement. The plan of these activists was to "mix people with a profile of activists with anonymous activists in order to mobilize more

people" (vice.com/ptauthorruimarçal - August 8, 2013). The role of these four elements was to gather people, ordinary citizens, not embedded in organizations, who shared the same goals, in order to achieve a consistent group of anonymous protesters. This initiative was carried out outside the IP and the first meeting, which occurred in mid-June, took place at the home of one of the activists. The Prime Minister himself would give the demonstration proponents the idea that would serve as a motto to convene the protest. In July of that year (two months before the local elections), the Prime Minister used the phrase "to hell with the elections" in a speech, during a dinner of his parliamentary group (PSD) at the Assembly of the Republic. This same sentence was reused to create the slogan "To hell with the *Troika*! We want our lives!", which would turn against the government.

The group meetings were intensified and, in mid-August, João Camargo, a member of the IP and the leader of the party *Bloco de Esquerda[1],* joined them to coordinate the movement (vice.com/ptauthorruimarçal). The main worry was to increase the number of subscribers and to prepare the protest, expecting the logistical support of the IP. The date for the public mobilization was set, considering the moment when "the social divide" would be at its maximum, close to the presentation of the first package of the austerity measures. This way, and according to João Camargo, a "moment of rupture" would be created (vice.com / ptauthorruimarçal). A large demonstration took place on the 15th September 2012, as the group had planned. On that day, about a million Portuguese were on the streets of their cities to demonstrate themselves. It was the biggest protest that occurred in the country after the revolution of the 25th April[2].

In Lisbon, more than 500 thousand people joined the movement. The concentration started at the *Praça José Fontana* and ended at the *Praça de Espanha*. There were thousands of people at the square, the music was echoing and was interrupted now and then by the speeches delivered by some of the participants. At five o'clock, the protesters followed the planned path, with their clenched fists in the air and bearing the national flag, or posters, in which one could read the phrases that expressed their emotions: "thieves"; "the people united will never be defeated"[3] (*Diário de Notícias* [DN] 15/09/2012). Along the way, they passed by iconic locations such as *Saldanha* and the *Praça da República*. The fact that the movement ended at the *Praça de Espanha* was not occasional. Besides being an area with considerable dimensions, allowing to safely accommodate the many people who were there, therein lies the official residence of the Spanish ambassador, the country where protests against austerity would occur synchronously. On the 12th, in the text with the itinerary that had been published on Facebook, the group had referred to that they wanted the movement to be an "Iberian protest". In the city of Porto, the *Avenida dos Aliados* was also full of people who shouted slogans against austerity. In other adhering cities, the scenery and action were identical.

At a press conference in Porto, on the same day of the demonstration and just before the protests, the organizers reinforced the fact that the movement was spontaneous and nonpartisan. João Lima, one of the demonstration subscribers, stated that they did not want a protest with protagonists of political parties, trade unions or other organizations. The goal was to unite the Portuguese so that they would say "Stop!" to the austerity measures announced by the Prime Minister (*Jornal de Notícias* [JN] 15/09/2012). These people believed that the political inflexibility was "sinking" the country and that other measures should be taken. Therefore, they proposed solutions such as:

The renegotiation of the Portuguese debt, the negotiation between the Government and the oil companies for dropping the prices to stimulate the economy and ease the wallet of the population, increasing the rigor in terms of public asset management. (JN, 15/09/2012).

The indignation of about one million people was not totally ignored by the Government. The contribution to social security[4], one of the most controversial measures of the executive, turned out to be reviewed.

The movement did not end with this demonstration of the 15th September 2012. In 2013, there were two other major demonstrations: one on the 2nd March, under the motto: "To hell with the *Troika*! – the people have the power"[5]; the other

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[1] Left-wing political party, founded in Portugal, in 2000, by the merger of some political parties and other movements.
[2] The Portuguese revolution of the 25th April 1974 marked the end of the fascist regime and the establishment of democracy in the country.
[3] A slogan that marked the period around the 25th April revolution.
[4] It is a body set up by the Portuguese State that is constituted by the Providential System and the System for the Social Protection and Citizenship.
[5] This slogan also marked the period around the 25th April revolution.

on the 26ᵗʰ October "To hell with the *Troika*! – there are no dead ends". The repertoire of social criticism intensified, as well as the demands for the solution of the economic and social problems.

This movement has raised many issues, namely the perception that if we are facing new ways of mobilization and acting in public, we must consider the repercussions these will have in the context of the contemporary public space.

2. Public space, collective action and civic mobilizations

In modernity, the public space was understood as a place of communication, discussion, a place of dissemination in the sense of *making public*. According to Habermas (1962), practical, moral and political issues are discussed in the public space, according to a communicative rationality, aiming at a mutual understanding; the public discussion follows the *principle of publicity*, which is a normative principle. It is in the public space that the democratic communication, the public opinion and the collective will are formed.

With the invasion of the modern public space by the mass media (press, radio, television), mass culture and cultural industries, the public space has expanded and has become democratized and massified. This resulted in a degradation of the debate and discussion of ideas in public places, as Habermas argued (1962); nevertheless, the forms of the *public* have been reactivated through collective and civic mobilizations, movements and forms of association (feminism, environmentalism, or gay, students, counter culture, and alternative movements, etc.) that occurred during the twentieth century and have marked the first decades of the twenty-first century. The public space has been multiplied or fragmented in plural public spaces, especially since the 90s, partly because of the new communication and information technologies. Habermas (1992) argues that the unitary and deliberative figure of the modern public space has been replaced by a fragile network of plural and unfinished public spaces, with permeating borders, places of discursive production of meanings, identities, productions and dissemination of convictions and ideas.

This network of public spheres may also be analyzed through the prism of contemporary historiography (Fraser, 2003), with its critique of the bourgeois model for the modern public space, considering that it is based on exclusions (of gender, or in training processes of social classes). Contemporary historiography understands that there are competing public spaces, non-liberal and non-bourgeois, alternative public spaces that are propitious to the plural and heterogeneous publics or "counter-publics", which have challenged the norms of the bourgeois public space, developing new lifestyles and political behaviors and new forms of public discussion.

Considering the 15ᵗʰ September movement, we believe that the current fragmentation of the public space coexists, almost paradoxically, with mobilizations that occur at an international level, and that may reach planetary proportions, displaying diversity and heterogeneity in terms of actors and publics. Therefore, it becomes relevant to understand whether the creation of a collective action of protest around a problematic situation was at the origin of this movement, establishing a public space that is not only global or universal[1], but unique and diverse at the same time, with new forms of collective mobilization and acting in public. It is, thus, important to analyze the notion of collective action.

Collective action can be understood as the set of coordinated conducts of a group in order to achieve common interests. Its collective nature results from the fact that it is developed by collective actors that are the subject of such actions (associations, trade unions, committees of citizens, opinion movements, fans of sports clubs, strikers…). In the scope of the analysis of the construction of public problems, Gusfield (1981) considers that the collective action is a way to treat, solve or modify problematic situations, and that the public action is one of its modalities. Public action is the collective action of public powers, institutions or social movements that is developed in public arenas (publicizing places of events or problems: the media, the courts, etc.) or in public scenes (places of visibility and exercise of public action by collective actors – citizens, associations, institutions, commissions, etc.) in response to problematic situations. In that sense, certain problems, in terms of their construction as public problems (Gusfield, 1981), follow the mobilization and participation in public actions (demonstrations, strikes, petitions, vigils, etc.) or the social movements. This is the case of the movement "To hell with the *Troika*!" that comes as a response to determined social and political issues, which have created a certain problematic situation and a field of collective action and public mobilization, fostered by a common interest - the Portuguese government's austerity policy - which, and as we have seen, has lasted in time.

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[1] Habermas, who considers modernity as an unfinished project, argues that plural public spaces refer to a universal public space.

The demonstration "To hell with the Troika! We want our lives!" aims to lead the Portuguese to say "Stop!" to the "the austerity measures announced by the Prime Minister" (JN, 15/09/2012);

The signatories of the protest have said that today's event aims to be the" beginning of a peaceful popular uprising against the "criminal and the sacking" policies and an opportunity for everyone to say "Stop!" (DN, 15/09 / 2012);

The demonstration ("To hell with the Troika! There are no dead ends!", of the 26ᵗʰ October 2013, which preceded the approval of the state budget] intends to demonstrate, "once more" that the Portuguese "do not agree with the intervention of the Troika, with the measures adopted by the Government and the State Budget for 2014", as referred to by Joana Campos, one of the promoters of the protest, to Lusa Agency (RENAISSANCE online 26/10/2013 9:53).

Sharing this interest, which won intelligibility and visibility with the manifesto "To hell with the *Troika*! We want our lives!", the subscribers and people who protested on the streets for the first time[1], together with other people with affiliation to political parties and trade unions (like the CGTP), social actors and diverse publics, of different ages and social political and cultural backgrounds, demonstrated as a unified group. Actually, the organizers of the movement insisted in clarifying that the mobilization was not linked to organizations and that there was plurality and heterogeneity in terms of participation.

However, there was the creation of a "common space", which is a condition of the public, according to Hannah Arendt (*The condition of modern man*, 1958). That is, the common space of "living together", according to the author, is the sensitive medium and the space of visibility where the actions and words, the agents and the events accede to their existence, acquire the traits that identify them and open themselves to public judgment. The public domain is, thus, the place of what is "common", of what appears and is visible; as Arendt proclaimed, it is the place where everything should appear because "being and appearing coincide" (1988: 89) . The public space is a "public scene of apparition", where things are seen and heard, it is the space where everything "appears in public and can be seen and heard by everyone".

The demonstration involves the act of becoming public; it involves visibility and publicity. From the moment it started, the movement "To hell with the *Troika*!" had huge visibility and publicity due to the unusually high number of participants, to the new technological mediations, which were used in the mobilization of the actors, and to the traditional media (press, radio and television), which reported the news.

On the other hand, the category of visibility in the urban public space is bound to interactions and interpersonal relationships, as rituals and topological realities. As Isaac Joseph (1995, 1999) sees it, the urban public space has structural characteristics of mobility, accessibility and impersonality, and the mobility and visibility exist in the spaces that are accessible to anyone (street, park, railway station, shopping arcade, market, etc.).

Public spaces are subject to experience, representation and action regimens; they are places of physical co-presence, mutual visibility ("visibility arrangements"), meetings, circulation, communication, language, vision, observation and perception. Joseph argues that the urban culture is a dramatic culture, in which the scenographic dimension of the urban spaces is important (1999: 24). As in other public mobilizations, these were characteristics which marked the demonstrations of the 15ᵗʰ September: streets and squares were occupied by bodies, movements, displacements, "visibility arrangements", languages, rituals, staging; people were there to be seen and heard.

The essence of the events and of what is lived in the public space is emphasized with the demonstrations, and it is in the public space that the configuration of the actions takes place, acquiring form and meaning. Quéré (1995) refers to the public space as "form and event," or "*mise-en-forme*", "*mise-en-sens*" and "*mise-en-scène*" of the social. To that extent, we may consider that it is in the public space that the civic mobilizations and demonstrations emerge, acquiring repertoires of action and discourse. However, we must understand whether these new forms of mobilization and acting in public are distant, or not, from the traditional social movements.

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[1] "'We have received many contacts of people saying that it is the first time they attend a demonstration, in some cases with their family'. (PÚBLICO, 15/09/2012).

3. The 15th September 2012: a social movement or a new way of mobilization and acting in public?

During the twentieth century there were different theories related to social movements, in which the analysis of collective action was polarized around the classic paradigms of the Chicago School, the theory of Resource Mobilization and the theories of the New Social Movements (Gohn, 1997).

Charles Tilly (1981) assumed that social movements require historical understanding and tried to interpret them within the convergence between sociology and history, following Braudel's concept of "*longue durée*", to capture their permanence or change, immobility or innovation. His diachronic study of these phenomena, since 1750, led him to introduce the concept of "contention repertoire" (1977). According to Tilly, a "repertoire" is a "set of forms of action" (Tilly, 1978: 156); each epoch has its own structures of mobilization and action, often forged from the oldest actions (1995: 27-28), and the modification of political and social structures results in a change of the "repertoire" (Tilly, 1995: 35).

First we must reflect on the concept of movement. Tilly argued that a social movement was associated with the collective action process of a particular social group and the way this same group, through public demonstrations, acquired consciousness and power (Tilly, 1978); hence the relation of the concept to the industrial society of the West and the rise of the labor movement (it was organized, it had a program and a context). However, Eric Hobsbawm (1978) showed that there were pre-industrial social movements, which he designated as "archaic" or "primitive" movements, because they were spontaneous, sporadic, localized and apolitical[1]. These forms of action were limited to the constraints of the historical moment. There were changes in the forms of collective action, but only in the nineteenth century, with the great economic and social changes that occurred during the industrialization.

Due to these permanent mutations and proliferation of collective actions in the turn of the twentieth century to the twenty-first century, Tilly considered it necessary to clarify that not every collective action corresponds to a social movement. The social movement is a kind of protest that goes beyond the mere occasional protest. Thus, in his work *Social Movements: 1768 - 2004*, he concluded that only a movement that displays a combination of certain elements, which result in a certain "formula", can be considered a social movement.

This formula combines three elements: 1) Campaigns, collective claims directed to target authorities; 2) Repertoires of action, which include a set of claiming performances such as demonstrations, public meetings, marches, petitions, statements to the media, etc.; 3) Demonstrations of WUNC (worthiness, unity, numbers, and commitment), that is, concerted public representations to demonstrate respectability, unity, numbers and commitment on the part of the elements of the movement, members and/or followers of the cause in question.

Does the 15th September movement display the elements that constitute a social movement? The "campaign" presupposes everything that precedes the action, which allows to sustain the motivations of the movement, giving it consistency. Within this context, we must consider all mobilization actions of the group responsible for the manifesto against the *Troika*, which circulated in social networks, as well as in traditional media, through the interviews of the movement subscribers. The protest had a very specific goal: to end the austerity that the government had imposed on the Portuguese people, by accepting the presence of a supranational entity - the *Troika*. All actions of this campaign eventually establish a relationship between the group of proponents, the group of demonstrators and the government, which resulted in the acceptance of the demands of the protest – the review of the single social tax.

Regarding the "repertoire", or action strategies, there were public meetings, demonstrations, and statements to the media. The movement did not end on the 15th September; other events were held throughout the year 2013, including participations in other events organized at national and international levels, which shows that there were claiming performances within the movement "To hell with the *Troika*". As for the "demonstration" WUNC, the respectability of the actors was ensured by the heterogeneity of the people who participated in the movement, in terms of age, social class and ideology, showing intergenerational and motivational cohesion. In addition, there were nonpartisan subscribers with recognized public merit, as the composer António Pinho Vargas or the actress San José Lapa. There was an impressive number of protesters. One million people on the streets can only mean unity and identification with a cause. The commitment was certified in subsequent actions. On the 13th October 2012, promoters and demonstrators of the 15th September movement integrated the international protest *Global Noise*. In 2013, they promoted two major demonstrations, one on the 2nd March and another one on the 26th October, they attended the trade union (CGTP) demonstration on the 4th July, they organized small actions,

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[1] We also find "pre-industrial" movements in Portugal in the nineteenth century. (Silva, 2013).

such as the protest at the residence of the Prime Minister and boycotts during official government acts, singing emblematic songs of the 1974 revolution, which shows a continuity plan and the responsibility of the activists.

It seems that the movement "To hell with the *Troika*" gathers all elements of Tilly's formula and also what Tarow (1998) and then Tilly (2004) named as modular character. The adoption of strategies and the innovation and the sharing elements that were seen in other movements and contexts were transposed into the Portuguese reality, with no loss in terms of national uniqueness.

This movement was similar to other international movements, sharing the same type of innovations, including network mobilization, horizontal organization and the role of the "collective". However, these features that correspond to new forms of mobilization and acting in public can also constitute an obstacle in terms of the effectiveness of the social movements themselves. Cefaï (2005: 135) argues that the coordination between these different "collectives" is problematic. He considers that as they are very heterogeneous in their forms and resources, organizations, strategies and ideas, they are also too disperse to maintain a focused goal and countervailing centers, and they often do not have other ambition than to inform, report and claim. According to Gohn (2014: 13), the "collectives" are based on various sources, depending on the group they belong to, and therefore there is not an ideological or utopian hegemony, they are motivated by a sense of dissatisfaction, disenchantment and indignation against the economic and political context.

We can conclude that the movement of the 15th September maintains some characteristics of former social movements, but it also incorporates new "repertoires", considering the form of mobilization and collective action, and is fostered by the will to change[1]. We must recognize the importance of social digital networks in the new communication methods and new forms of activism and public protest, both in the case of the 15th September movement and in other civic mobilizations of the twenty-first century. The new technological mediations widened the dimensions of visibility and communication.

4. Social networks and new ways of activism and public protest

With the new social digital media, there is a multiplication of mediated contacts and the connections intervene as elements of immediacy, expansion and unlimited diffusion. The public sphere is pierced by technological mediations and becomes a borderless networking space, considered as a "space of flux" (Castells, 1999), despacialized, deterritorialized, fluctuating, "suspended", "out of soil "(Paquot, 2009: 106), anchored in speed and time (Virilio, 1988, 2004). "It's time - warns Paquot – that now ensures the 'public' the quality of this 'space' of virtual democracy" (idem, ibidem). On the Internet there are different relations in terms of space and time. There is simultaneity, immediacy and real-time communication that blurs the distances and simulates proximity.

On the Internet and other mobile connection devices (tablets, smartphones, notebooks etc.), the possibilities of expression and exposure of words and images, mobilization, dissemination of messages and adhesion have expanded almost limitlessly and are used for new civic mobilizations of protest. These can be initiated online, be extended to any other territory, go to the street with direct transmission of images, sounds and speeches, and be reported in real time. That is what happened on the 15th September:

"Today, the slogan was not to stay at home. The protest that happened around the country, which has spread to other parts of the world, was convened on Facebook and on Blogger under the motto "Demonstration: To hell with the Troika! We want our lives!"

'Fotos da Manif' was the Facebook page that was set up for the protesters, on the spot, to send their photos to. The photos are immediately posted and Negócios Online has compiled some of the many images that have been and are still being sent. (...)

On the wall of the same Facebook page, the German Kabelbrand Höllenfeuer, while sending photos, wrote, around 11 p.m.:. "Hello. We (international people worldwide) held a solidarity action today in Berlin, opposite the Embassy of Portugal

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[1] As Gusfield mentioned, (1994: 108) social movements "more or less deliberately, try to produce changes in political or institutional aspects of society. On the other hand, they are signs that indicate that an aspect of the social life is being analyzed and that there are other alternatives".

to support the resistance movement in Portugal." (15th September 2012, 20:11, Jornal de Negócios Online | *negocios@negocios.pt*

www.jornaldenegocios.pt/.../fotogaleria_manifestaccedilatildeo_de_15_d).

The call for the demonstration of the 15th September started in the social networks, with citizens/users inciting the mobilization in Lisbon, and immediately spread to other parts of the country, as well as it echoed in European cities and in Brazil. The media that were used and the terms of the mobilization changed.

With the net activism, which is based on a new type of action in connected digital networks (Di Felice, 2012), according to a new kind of reticular sociability that develops in social networks, there is the absence of leaders and structured social organizations to convene and coordinate the protest. But it is also the logic of the event which changes, in that the bodies, faces, spaces, words and gestures are transported to the digital platforms in real time, in the dynamics and instant of their occurrence, acquiring visibility and unlimited advertising.

Actors/users, devices, technologies, networks, databases are involved in these mobilizations, providing new ways of inhabiting the urban spaces. The *e-metropolis* ("*metrópoleletrônica*", Di Felice, 2012) is, according to the author, a meta-geographical space, livable through continuous informative and perceptive displacements, thanks to electrical circuits of networks and communicative fluxes, creating new forms of citizenship and new informative forms of appropriation, use and displacement. With the new technologies and social networks, new communication settings of sociability and collective action emerge, and each is required to maintain different roles: user, viewer, producer and receiver. Within this framework, the procedures for public mobilization are diverse, in the sense that any person may organize or join any petition or manifest online, mobilize or be mobilized to participate in a demonstration, create a solidarity action anywhere, send and receive messages and images.

Final considerations

The dissemination of information and communication technologies, social networks and the emergence of transnational protest phenomena associated with the economic and financial crisis, globalization and multiculturalism have resulted in the emergence of new political practices of participation and mobilization, such as the events of 2011 – the largest spontaneous demonstration not linked to political parties called *Geração à Rasca*[1], the 2011 protests in Spain, named by the Spanish media *Movimiento 15-M* – the *Indignados*, which took place in some European capitals, and the movement Occupy Wall Street. With the use of social media, new forms of occupation of public spaces are established to protest against the absence of public and political rights or against economic and social inequalities (Tahrir Square, Gezi Park, Occupy Wall Street, Puerta del Sol, etc.).

Current social movements or civic mobilizations, in response to political, economic and social contexts, in which they are triggered, have incorporated new performances of operation, without losing characteristics of former movements, and have introduced various forms of interaction and communication devices, technologies and networks. Social actors and citizens have realized that democratic citizenship is not limited to the liberal view of political rights and representative democracy and have used the right to protest both online and on the street, as a way of civic participation and political claim.

In short, the economic crisis and the political institutions' legitimacy, the dissatisfaction with the austerity measures and the concern for the future have been the source of the mobilizations, and the centers of protest have been the same of the past, the squares and streets, the traditional places of solidarity and public expression. We can consider that the movement of the 15th September represents the current trends of the international protest against the harmful policies, organized by ordinary citizens who develop interactions and online protest actions and on the street. This means that even in the digital age, the protest and the collective action remain linked to the public sphere and the streets (the movements above mentioned gained visibility on the streets), but with the support of new technologies of communication and information. These movements are characterized by the use of technological mediations and net activism and, at the same time, they keep the usual scenic dimension of physical co-presence and collective action of the street protests.

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[1] *Geração à Rasca* was the name given to a series of demonstrations that occurred in Portugal and other countries, on the 12th March 2011.

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Indonesian Online Tourism Promotion: a Rhetorical and Discoursal Look

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Abstract

The new media offer a much wider opportunity for international recognition including the promotion of tourism destination in Indonesia. This study aims at exploring the ways tourist destinations in Central Java, Indonesia are promoted on the website done by five different online promotion developers. There were 20 online promotional texts scrutinized to see their typical characteristics using theories of Critical Discourse Analysis proposed by Dijk (1998) and Kress (2010). The research findings reveal that generally the online promotional texts were constructed as descriptive genres most of which were composed in simple and compound sentences. There were relatively limited numbers of complex sentences employed. The mental model of the texts typically shows a great concern to the history, philosophy, cultural myth and geographical location of the tourist destinations under discussion. Typical use of imperatives commonly found in advertisements seems to be hardly available. Likewise, rhetorical questions that function to engage readers are unlikely existing in the online promotion of tourist destination of Central Java developed by the Indonesian government and other private agents. In contrast, the online promotion of tourist destination of more developed institutions like the Singaporean and Malaysian government makes use of recount genre that functions as a testimony. For a thicker description of findings, in-depth interviews with English speaking tourists were also conducted.

Keywords: tourist destination, rhetorical question, testimony.

I.   Introduction

With the coming of the new media, business florishes dramatically including the hospitality industry in Indonesia. The www.emarketer.com reported in 2014 that internet users all over the globe will hit the peak of 3 billion in 2015 and nearly half of the world's population will have regular access to the web by 2018. Additionally, the Indonesian internet users will reach the top five overtaking Japan by 2017 showing how significant this new media for business, official and private communication purposes. Hasbrouck (2001) argues that the development of information is parallel with the development of people's movement, power and money. Historically, the global electronic web was believed to be initially drawn from the rapid expansion of the travel industry.

With respect to tourism industry, the Indonesian government set up a target of 7 millions tourists visiting this country in 2014. For that reason, promotion of tourist destination to foreigners using the language that attracts and motivates them is considered crucial. The language that persuades, reaches out and engages the prospective visitors is assumed to have an important role, not only to attract but also to motivate, to convince and to booze the tourists' curiousity.

This article aims at exploring the Indonesian online tourism promotion made by 5 online promotion developers namely, Ministry of Tourism of the Republic of Indonesia, Tripadvisor, www.eastjava.com, Budha Dharma Education Association 1996-2012, and Lonely Planet. 8 validated online texts among 20 available online texts were selected for the primary data and tentatively 4 English speaking informants were requested to look at and read the online tourism promotion texts. Since the study is still in progress, other four informants of much younger age group will be interviewed and an additional focus group discussion with the stakeholders will be also conducted. Theoritical insights were drawn form theories proposed by Dijk (1998) and Kress (2010) and used as analytical lenses.

II.   Related works and their relevance to the current work

Some works are considered relevant to this work among others are Novalina (2008) who studied the role of tourist promotion in the Ministry of Tourism and Culture Bandung District to motivate tourists to visit Bandung and the sorroundings. However, this study did not address the significant role of language in promoting the destination. Another closely related study may

be the work of Muhammad Arifin Bin Salim, et.al (2012). This study was done as a review of literature using online database by employing 3 keywords namely, tourism, tourism discourse and language of tourism. The previous work certainly differs from the current work in terms of nature of the research and data collecting techniques inwhich the present study is etnographical. In terms of effectiveness of the online promotion, the work of Kim and Fesenmaier ((2008) might be relevant to this work in the aspect of persuasiveness of the destination websites but not the language to express the message inwhich the researchers investigated users first impression and quick judgment on the online texts.

Seaton & Bennet (1996:179) state that promotion and tourism has particular objectives. They argue that '*Effective promotion starts, like any other marketing activity, from an analysis and clear formulation of strategic objectives. These involve: (1) identification of the target audiences to be reached; (2) identification of the communication goals to be achieved with each; (3) formulation of messages designed to achieve the goals; (4) choice of media for delivering the messages effectively to the designated audiences; (5) allocation of a budget to achieve the production and delivery of the messages; and (6) evaluation mechanism in terms of sales, direct action or communication measurers'*.

Considering the objectives of tourism promotion proposed by Seaton & Bennet (1996), the current work especially focuses on the third objective namely, formulation of messages designed to achieve the goals. In this respect the study is done by looking at the way the language of online tourist promotion is formulated in order to persuade, motivate and change behavior of the prospective tourists.

III.   Research Method

Under the research method, some sub-topics are set namely, research design, data and data resources, data collecting technique, data analysis, validity and reliability of data.

III.1.   Research design

The present study belongs to descriptive – qualitative and etnographical type of research. Descriptive refers to an objective representation of phenomena investigated by the researcher. The phenomena being investigated are the English expressions and their persuasive elements used in the online tourism promotion in Central Java, Indonesia, the verbal convention and effectiveness of language use in the online texts. The etnographical qualities of the study were drawn from the observation and in depth interviews with the informants as users of the online tourist promotion.

III.2.   Texts used

The texts used were online tourist promotion texts on the websites made by 5 tourism promotion web-developers namely Ministry of Tourism of the Republic of Indonesia, Tripadvisor, www.eastjava.com, Budha Dharma Education Association 1996-2012, and Lonely Planet. Actually, there are 22 Indonesian online promotion texts on the web that promote Central Java. However, after validated, 12 texts from the Indonesian web developers were selected and other 4 online texts developed by the Malaysian and Singaporean web developers were used as cross-checkers.

III.3.   Data and data resources

The primary data were words, phrases, clauses and sentences drawn from the online tourist promotion of Central Java destination. Besides, the secondary data were information taken from observation and indepth interviews with 4 foreign visitors from USA, Australia and Chille. The informants were professionals and selected based on their age group as different age-group is assumed to have different expectations on how the online tourist promotion should sound and look in order to persuade them to visit the destination.

III.4. Techniques of collecting data

Taking into account the nature of the study as a descriptive- qualitative and ethnographical study, the technique of collecting data is presented as follows:

a.   Data were collected from online tourist promotion texts developed by 5 Indonesian website developers.
b.   In depth interviews in a semi-structured way were carried out to get reliable and comprehensive information from the informants.
c.   Informal observation and talks were done with members of the freelance tourism community who upload new destinations on the Instagram.

III.5. Data and data analysis

The source data of this study were Indonesian online tourist promotional texts focusing on Central Java destinations. Additionally, the primary data of the study were words, phrases, clauses and sentences in the online texts while the secondary data were information collected during the in depth interviews witth the informants. The data analysis was done using the macro, micro and super structure analysis proposed by van Dijk (1998) and multimodal perspectives advocated by Kress (2010).

III.6. Validity and realibility

Validity of the source of data for the study is obtained based on the face validity in which the online texts were taken from the Google search engine with the keyword of 'online tourism destination in Central Java'. To add, the reliability is achieved by making sure that 'the findings obtained are consistant with the data collected' (Merriam, 1998:206).

IV. Results of the study

The general assumption drawn by viewers from the online tourist promotion developed by the Indonesian Ministry of Tourism (http://www.indonesiatravel/en/discover-indonesia/region-detail/32/cen) is the opinion that central Java is rich in culture (Sentence 1 &3), has an extensive network of good roads and railways that link major cities and villages (S 9, 10, 11), uses culinary specific to every city as one of the main attractions (S 16, 17, 18, 19). In terms of rhetorical structure, the producer of the online text employs a strategy of describing the historical background of Central Java since the Hindhu, Buddhist and Islamic reigns (S 1-5), the Dutch occupation (S 6,7) and the Indonesian independence (S 8-27). Textually, the online promotion is constructed from 20 simple sentences, 8 compound sentences and 1 complex sentence. Syntactically, those sentences are developed using pre and post modifiers in the form of noun and adjunct phrases. At first impression, the online promotion text looks short and simple but lacking of substantial information seeked by the foreign tourist like suggested by informant 2 below.

'I didn't find this is very useful as a matter of fact I try to do a lot of online research before I am coming here...there is a small number of information and the information is very basic and the photos...it's hard to get the sense of how beautiful it is.' (interview conducted on Sunday, June 21, 2015).

Contrary to the 2 nd informant, the 1 st and the 3 rd informants found the information in the online promotion help them to have an initial knowledge of the destination and the photo of Borobudur temple creates a 'mystical feel because it helps viewers to enjoy the atmosphere of some sanitized place that facilitates an escape from routine' (interview conducted on Friday, June 19, 2015). The 4 th informant even highlights how inportant pictures or photographs have been for prospective tourists to come and visit the destination: 'of course photos are the first thing I am looking for before coming here' (interview conducted on Sunday, June 21, 2015).

The imperative construction typical to advertisements and modalities showing obligation are used in a very limited way for example '**be sure** to visit...' (7); '**try** the lumpia...' (8); ' if you like religious objects, you **should** visit...' (10); 'you **could** trace...' (10). Likewise, the discoursal strategy employed has been creating a mental model of mixing history, culture, tradition and panoramic views as the main point of tourism attractions and that the text is presented descriptively and

informatively with minimal engagement between the text producer and the online promotion viewers shown by the absence of rhetorical questions and limited *gimmick* expressions to reach out the audience.

The second online text developed by the Budha Dharma (http://www.buddhanet.net/borobudur) uses the historical perspective to pass on information about Borobudur temple (S1-3 and S10-13) embedded by physical structure of the temple in between. Since the online promotion text offers a particular object to visit, therefore a descrption of its historical background and phyisical appearance is presumably considered significant by the text producer. Likewise, the online text is constructed descriptively with relatively equal use of simple and compound sentences. The engangement between the text producer and the text consumer seems distant as the former provides information and the latter consume the information. It therefore lacks of persuasive values.

The third online text was developed by lonely planet. com and is available at www.lonelyplanet.com/indonesia/central-java. The mental model induced by the text producer makes use of factual appearance of Jakarta city as a modern place with traces of Javanese historical tradition. The ideology behind the text construction is presenting Jakarta as a mix between Java's past and future. In its linguistic realization, the text producer employs bombastic words to attract readers/viewers like '*fair share* of charm', '*bombastic* tourist centres', '*intriguing* fusion of Java's past and future', 'the *stupendous* Borobudur and Prambanan temples', 'this *stunning* island'. Syntactically, the text is composed of 3 simple sentences and 2 compound sentences and 1 complex sentence. Eventhough the online text is descriptive but the way the text producer constructs the sentences is made more variative.

The following online tourist promotion text to be scrutinized is the one developed by www.eastjava.com that describes about Dieng plateau. Similar to that of the second text, this online text is dominated by nominal sentences in which it has 22 simple sentences, 2 compound sentences and 3 complex sentences. In terms of discoursal strategy, the text describes the geographical location of the tourist site in terms of latitude and panoramic views.

With regard to the physical appearance, the online tourist promotion text developed by tripadvisor.com which is available at the http://www.tripadvisor.com seems to be completely different from the rest of the online promotion text explored in the study. There are two significant things that the developer inovates namely the use of reviews from visitors which are rated based on the categories of excellent, very poor, average, poor and terrible. Additionally, the reviews are functioned to provide testimonies to the prospective tourists. Even, they provide question and answer corners to address queries from visitors to the web master. Though some descriptions of the destination are almost always existing in the testimony however, the employment of modalities showing obligation is dominant. Some others use *if clauses* to create a more persuasive impression and direct invitation.

V. Discussion

The study has shown that the Indonesian online tourist promotion texts though provide important historical information of the tourism destination which are seeked for by potential tourists, they ought to have more comprehensive and up-dated information. In order to maximize their persuasive values they need rhetorical strategies which not only inform and describe but also invite, motivate and persuade these prospective tourists to make decissions for a visit. Beeton et.al (2005) argue that verbal messages needs to be deliberatedly manipulated to affect the hearts and minds of the audience. This argument therefore lies a strong ground for more energized verbal messages which can affect the hearts and minds of the potential tourists to make a favorable decission to visit the destination. In that case, a more substantial modification is needed to create a more persuasive online tourist promotion to the Indonesian tourist destination especially the Central Java online tourist promotion.

Furthermore, sophistication on the construction of the verbal messages needs to be improved in order to have a more natural and persuasive messages by reducing the dominant use of simple sentences. In terms of content however, the informants suggest to update the information on the online tourist promotion and provide list of events. Besides, an addition of testimony and review of the toursist destination might help potential tourists to make up their mind.

Likewise, the Indonesian online tourist promotion developers might be able to learn from Singapore and Malaysia in making their descriptive texts of online promotion sound more motivating using more variative construction of English sentences. The employment of gimmick language and rhetorical questions to attract and persuade audience needs to be considered.

In the visual presentation of the online tourist promotion, what the Indonesian developers can adopt is the use of three colummns picture and rubric which are more practical and efficient to get the information with.

VI.   Conclusion and implications

After looking very closely at the Indonesian online tourist promotion produced by 5 websites developers, a conclusion can be drawn as follows:

1.   The Indonesian online tourist promotion texts generally are drawn from a mix of history, culture, tradition and panoramic views as their point of attractions.
2.   The texts were typically descriptive and informative in nature. Consequently, they were less persuasive.
3.   Syntactically, most of the Indonesian online tourist promotion texts were constructed in simple sentences and compound sentences. Only a small number of complex sentences are used.
4.   A substantial modification needs to be made in terms of comprehensiveness, up-dated information, writing style, discoursal strategies, visual presentation.
5.   The employment of rhetorical questions for persuasive purposes, reviews of destination, testimonial discourses and questions & answers forum needs to be seriously considered.

The above conslusions bear some implications on the modelling of persuasive online tourist promotion texts acceptable to users. Additionally, the websites developers need to equip themselves with the knowledge of persuasive language to improve the quality of their jobs. Finally, various studies related to online tourist promotion should be encouraged.

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Appendixes
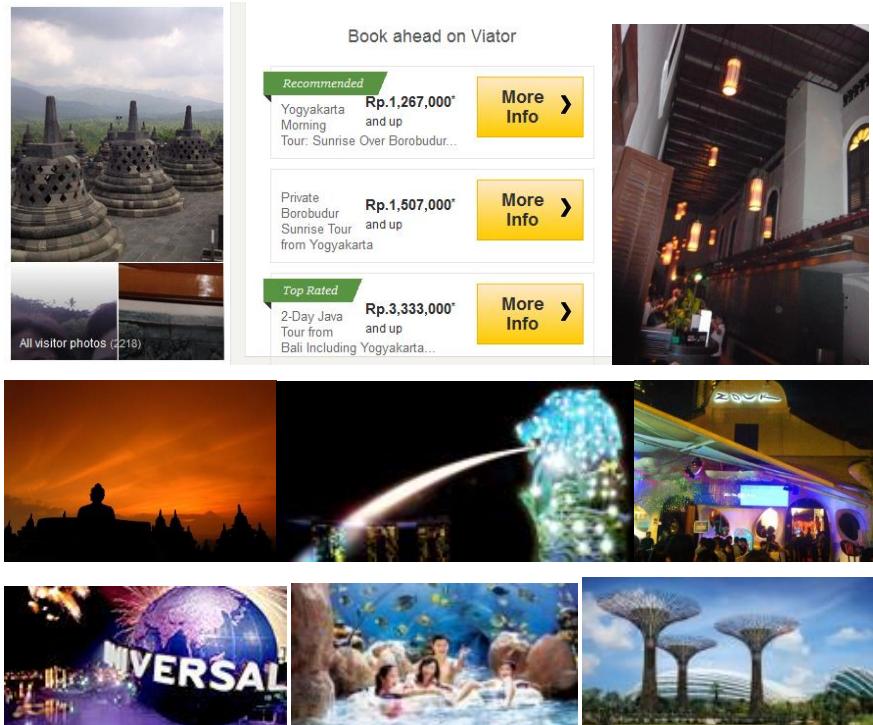
Challenges for the Local Governance in the Republic of Kosovo

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Abstract

This paper will deal with the challenges of local government in Kosovo from the time of international administration of UNMIK (after the end of the war) up to the construction of democratic decentralized system of local government, difficulties of political changes and human and financial resources. After the war ended in 1999, Kosovo was placed under international administration. Kosovo was faced with multiple challenges such as poor economy, transformation of state planned economy to a market economy, the low economic development, political transformation from a socialist system to a democratic system and the transfer of power from the provision Institutions of UNMIK to the independent Kosovo institutions. The aim of this paper is to analyze and tackle challenges of local government such as the lack of legal regulations and approval for local government, the establishment of new municipalities, reform of the local governance, the establishment of the association of municipalities distinguishing association of Serb majority municipalities in Kosovo. What was the role of the international community in the establishment and organization of local governance? What challenges accompanied the process of local government? In Kosovo, the reform of local governance was a very sensitive, complicated and sometimes unstable process as a result of political development but that has proved to be successful. Challenge for Kosovo institutions was integration of the three northern municipalities with Serb community in local self-government system, although construction and development departments of local self-government system was based on the principles of European values for the local government. One of the main challenges for the future will be the foundation of the Association of Serbian majority municipalities in northern Kosovo who claim that this association have the powers of a legal entity, independent from Kosovo. The methodology of the research will be mixed like: descriptive method, research, explanatory methodology, predictive methodology.

Keywords: local administration, good governance, decentralization, reform, accountability

1. Introduction

Kosovo after the war 1999 was set under temporary administration of the United Nations (UNMIK) .In the beginning all the powers: legislative, executive and judiciary was exercised by the Special Representative of the Secretary-General. Due to the efficient administration of Kosovo Special Representative of the Secretary-General appointed regional and municipal administrators to lead the local administrations. UNMIK, ruled, and helped in consolidation of central and local institutions in Kosovo. Organization and functioning of local self-government, during this period had faced various challenges such as: the destroyed municipalities, establishment of new municipalities in the beginning as a pilot projects, reform of local government, expansion of fiscal autonomy in municipalities, functioning and financing of parallel structures from Republic of Serbia in some municipalities and non-integration of the Serb community, etc.

Society and political class of Kosovo was committed to building a democratic system of government and for the building of local self-government system based on values and European standards for local government to adapt to the needs and development of the country without considering the challenges that they might have faced during the process.

This paper is structured as follows: in the first part we analysed the historical aspect of the development of local governance in Kosovo from ancient times until the present time. In the second part we have reviewed the relevant literature and legal standards that directly or indirectly have contributed to the local government after the war of 1999 during the period of

administration of Kosovo by UNMIK and the government after the Declaration of Independence of Kosovo.In the third section we have analysed regional and international experiences to local government a comparative review of local government in some EU countries. The research methodology is relies on primary sources and secondary sources such as literature, analysis of all legal documents on which local self-governance in Kosovo and the Local Ministry of Administration reports. In the end, we have presented the conclusions and recommendations.

2. Background of the development of local governance in Kosovo

Throughout the history in general in Kosovo we have distinguished two types of local government, one-level local government and multi-level. Multi-level local governments were: settlements (prehistory), cities (in ancient) and municipalities (XX century). Local government was composed of: city and principalities (the Middle Ages), sangjaqe (districts), kaza (municipalities), neighbourhood and villages (in Turkish Empire); counties (provinces,Banovina), Rethet (circles), municipalities, cities (XX c.)(History and Territorial Administrative Arrangement Kosovo,2014, p.1). The form of territorial administration from 1945 to 1999, there was great movement, but can be summarized in three main periods:

1). the period of nationalization of land;

2). the periods of local government reform and

3) .the period the suppression of legitimate local government bodies.

 Nationalisation of the land was performed through agrarian reform 1945 - 1958, where the property and land was mostly reduced in private property and free market economy. The reform of l local government wens through several stages: the organization of local government in two levels, district and municipality (1945 -1958) and the organization of local government in one level -the municipality (1959 -1990) The number of districts was initially reduced from 17 (1947) to 5 in districts (1957) Territorial in municipalities was initially centralized, then in 1952/53, was completely decentralized in the type of small municipalities (204 municipalities) Seeing that this was a huge administration and a great burden for the state, than it moved in the form of territorial organization with relatively large municipalities (22 municipalities), and again to switch to medium municipalities (30 municipalities) . From the year 1989/90, Serbia suspended f central Kosovo authorities and too k the competences of municipalities and transferred them at the level of counties (5 regions) and centralized them also. (Ibidemd, pg.37).Organizing a local government had been levelled even before 1999, according to the socialist system(Organization and functioning of local self-government in Kosovo, 2013, pg. 26).

How was the local government organized after the war from 1999 in Kosovo? On 12 June 1999 Kosovo was liberated by the Serbian occupation with the direct involvement of NATO, and set under administration of the United Nations. After the war in Kosovo local administration created the United Nations (UN) in five regional administrations that were consistent with areas of multinational brigades of KFOR. Even though UNMIK doesn't recognize the regional level as a form of local government.

 In 1999 year Special Representative of the Secretary-General appointed, the Regional Administrator and Municipal Administrators for Leadership of the local Administration. In year 1999 Special Representative of the Secretary-General appoint, Regional Administrator and Municipal Administrators for leadership of the local administration (Regulation no. 1999/14).Also, establishment of the administration took time It was not until January 2000 that the bare minimum of UN staff had been deployed for municipal administrations throughout Kosovo, although a good many posts remained unfilled even then. For the first year or so, international efforts to establish local administration were encumbered by slow deployments of Pillar II officials into the municipalities; by their frequent inexperience in local government; by the absence of clear central direction on the structures and processes of desirable municipal governance; by disagreements between regional leaderships in the UN's Pillar II Administration, the OSCE's Pillar III Institution Building and KFOR in the early phases of operation; and by difficulties in cooperating with emerging local administrations (Baskin,2004, p.13).The Kosovo legal continuity had been recognized after the establishment of the international administration of UNMIK in Kosovo in 1999, while the local self-government system remained unchanged and thus inheriting one-tier local self-government system. Kosovo has had 30 municipalities in total. Based on the chronological aspect of local self-government development, local self-government in Kosovo has historically changed its form due to circumstances of social, economic and political development (Strategy on Local Self-Government 2015-2025, p.10). Establishing an international protectorate Kosovo

found lacking legal to organize and regulate local government.The UNMIK Regulation No. 2000/45 on the Self-Governance in Kosovo was the first regulatory act with legal supremacy that established the foundations of a system of democratic local self-governance in service to the citizens in the state of Kosovo (Progress report on implementation of decentralization 2012, p.17). Legal regulation of issues related to decentralization and advancement of administration and municipal government in Kosovo may be divided into three periods, such as:

Period during which municipalities were administered under Legal Regulations from UNMIK Administration,with a certain Municipal Administrator (UNMIK Regulation No.1999/14 and UNMIK Regulation No. 2000/45);

Period during which municipalities were administered under Legal Regulations from UNMIK Administration, but without International Municipal Administrator (UNMIK Regulation No. 2003/11 and UNMIK Regulation No. 2007/30); and

Period of local self-government according to the laws issued by the Assembly of the Republic of Kosovo (Law on Local Self-Government), (Progress Report on implementation of decentralization 2012,p.13)

In1999, following deployment of the international administration (UNMIK) in the Republic of Kosovo and election of domestic democratic institutions at the central and local levels, there had begun set up of these institutions and gradually was initiated progressive transfer of responsibilities from international authorities to the local ones (MLGA Progress Report, 2012, 10).

3. Local Self-Government prior to declaration of Independence of Kosovo

After the liberation Kosovo was set under the administration of the United Nations Mission. Kosovo after the liberation, the first phase of creation of self-government began with the adoption and promulgation of Regulation No. 2000/1 on the Kosovo administrative interim joint structure Article 1 outlines that Kosovo structures, be they executive, legislative or judicial (such as the Provisional Government of Kosovo, Presidency of the Republic of Kosovo), shall be transformed and progressively integrated, to the extent possible and in conformity with the present regulation, into the Joint Interim Administrative Structure, which should be operational by 31 January 2000 by which time these and all other Kosovo structures of an executive, legislative or judicial nature shall cease to exist. All communities of Kosovo shall be involved in the provisional administrative management through procedures set out in the present regulation with a fair representation of all communities. Referring to the Regulation Article 1 outlines that representatives of political forces of Kosovo share provisional administrative management with UNMIK.The Special Representative of the Secretary-General retains legislative and executive authority (Regulation No. 2000/1).The main principles governing this structure were: that Kosovo political forces and UNMIK shared the administrative management; that all administrative decisions were in conformity with the applicable law in Kosovo; and that all communities were fairly represented.(OSCE,Implementation of Kosovo Assembly Laws by the Executive Branch,2005,p.7) Organization and functioning of local authorities until Declaration of Kosovo's Independence, was regulated with regulations issued by UNMIK administration deployed in Kosovo after the end of the war in 1999. We have divided periods of approval of legal changes on local self-government into two periods:

1. The first period started as of 2000 (with holding of the first local elections) and ended in 2007 (with essential legal amendments) and

2. The second period started as of 2007 (with holding of new elections organized by domestic institutions and after political changes in the country), up to issuing and approval of legislation on local self-government by independent institutions of the Republic of Kosovo.

In August 2000, the SRSG promulgated the UNMIK Regulation No. 2000/45 on Self Government of Kosovo Municipalities. This regulation is considered as the first legislative act that establishes the foundations of a democratic local government and that will be in the service of citizens in the state of Kosovo.(MLGA,Progress report on implementation of decentralization,2012,p.13). With this regulation were set the foundations of administrative and territorial organization of local government in Kosovo, in accordance with the European Charter of Local Self-Government.(History and Territorial Administrative Arrangement Kosovo, Pristina, 2014, pg.39). The basis for the functioning and organization of local government in Kosovo at the time was the UNMIK Regulation on Municipal govern,with this regulation, in accordance with United Nations Security Council resolution 1244, establishes provisional institutions for democratic and autonomous self-government at the municipal level as a step in the progressive transfer of administrative responsibilities from United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK), which will oversee and support the consolidation of these institutions. Referring to the Regulation Article 2 outlines that the basic territorial unit of local self-government in Kosovo shall be the

municipality, which shall exercise all powers not expressly reserved to the Central Authority. Municipalities shall regulate and manage public affairs in their territory within the limits fixed by law and so as to ensure conditions for a peaceful and normal life for all inhabitants of Kosovo. They may attend to matters of general concern that are connected with the municipality and that are not to be attended to solely by the Central Authority or another body (Regulation No. 2000/45 section 1 and section 2). The highest representative body of the municipality shall be the Municipal Assembly and it shall be directly elected. The powers and duties of the municipality shall be exercised and performed solely by the Municipal Assembly and its organs. Referring to the Regulation provide the number of members of the Municipal Assembly of the municipalities in the boundaries of the municipalities.(Regulation No. 2000/45 Article 10). The Kosovo legal continuity had been recognized after the establishment of the international administration of UNMIK in Kosovo in 1999, while the local self-government system remained unchanged and thus inheriting one-tier local self-government system.First free and democratic elections for local government were held in 2000.The UNMIK Regulation on Self-government of Municipalities was the basis for the functioning and organisation of local government in Kosovo while according to UNMIK Regulation on the Number, Names and boundaries of Municipalities, Kosovo has had 30 municipalities in total. Afterwards, the main principles of local self-government have been guaranteed in 2001 by the Constitutional Framework, 2002 was again a year of elections, while in 2004; the Framework Agreement on the beginning of the local government reform process has been approved (Strategy on Local Self-Government 2015-2025, p.10).

Although these two UNMIK Regulation 2000/45 (and follow-on regulations for amendment of the same) and Regulation 2007/30, were the basis of the functioning of local government which determined powers of municipalities. Withe adoption of Regulation 2007/27 on Local Elections in Kosovo, became the first step towards local government reform. According to this regulation, citizens were entitled to directly vote their candidate for the mayor. Later UNMIK promulgated the Regulation no.2007/30 amended UNMIK Regulation No. 2007/45. With Regulation 2007/30, in addition to changes on the organization and functioning of local self-government, it strengthened the position of the Mayor as the highest executive. The elected Mayor of the Municipality elected directly the citizens of the municipality with the right to vote.(Regulation No. 2007/30 amending UNMIK regulation No. 2000/45 Article 24). Reform of local government in Kosovo became a prominent issue in October 2002,when the then Special Representative of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, Michael Steiner, promised to decentralise local government structures in the hope of encouraging the Serb community to take part in local elections (KIPRED, Local Government and Administration in Kosovo 2004, p. 10). The reform of local government began after installing of the UN administration (UNMIK), mainly as political decentralization in order to integrate the Serbian community in Kosovo's governing systemDecentralization became a priority of the international community in Kosovo, especially after March 2004. A key element of the political dimension of decentralization was 'creation of independent political entities, municipalities, autonomous with their elected politicians "Despite the fear that decentralization could jeopardize territorial boundaries of the country, the fact that the Serb community had hitherto boycotted the entire political process in Kosovo, and yet more politically integrated in Serbia than in Kosovo, this political demand by the international community quickly became a priority of the Provisional Institutions Self-Government in Kosovo (PISG), respectively Government of Kosovo. In July 2004, the latter formed a working group for related to this aim, headed by the Minister of Public Services Jakup Krasniqi, a group have which drafted a framework document for decentralization, a document which however, it was focused only on the political aspects, without specifying any time and spatial frame (ie new municipalities to be formed), (Decentralization in Kosovo, experiences from the municipalities of Prizren Region, December 2009, p.4-5). For the first time, the territorial reform begun with the creation of several new municipal units. Framework agreement, envisaged the establishment of five Pilot Municipal Units (creation of three pilot municipal units was achieved, while the other two were not functional due to the political situation in Kosovo). In 2007 the second reform related to the election reform for local government in institutional terms has occurred, whose aim was to promote local democracy in the country. This time citizens had directly elected the Mayors of Municipalities.On the occasion of the declaration of independence in 2008, the Assembly of Kosovo has adopted the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo and the set of basic laws for the organisation of local self-government in Kosovo (Strategy on Local Self-Government 2015-2025, p.11).

Decentralization has mainly been political from top-down by International Community. Initially it was announced by the United Nations Mission in Kosovo, the one of after the 1999 war (Mitrovica). But a serious consideration had taken only after the Kosovo status negotiations led by Martti Ahtisaari. During the status talks and discussion of decentralization in the upper level, beneficiaries and municipalities of this process are not consulted.Decentralization in Kosovo was followed by challenges because it was very clear on paper, while in practice during implementation there were numerous objections, followed by protests, and all this because of lack of appropriate information to the public about decentralization process, lack of work of political parties with electorate.(Ferati, 2013,p.14).

3.1. Local Self-Government after the Declaration of Independence of Kosovo

Governance of the country is organized in two levels: the level of central government (CG) and local level (LG). Central government develops and implements state policies for the development and protection of the country, while local governments implement policies of central and local service to its citizens. The Republic of Kosovo lies in an area of 10908 km / 2, which is divided into 38 administrative units in 38 or municipalities that lies and act in specific territorial conditions.(Organization and functioning of local self-government in Kosova, 2013, p. 25).Based on the number of residents, municipalities can group into four (4) groups: the first group of municipalities with over 60,000 inhabitants, the second group, municipalities with over 30,000 inhabitants, a third group of municipalities with over 5,000 inhabitants and fourth group municipalities with less than 5,000 inhabitants.(Ibidem, p. 28).Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo in Chapter X, guaranteed Local Government and Territorial Organization. Based on Article 123 of the Constitutio provide General Principles of Local Government.The right to local self-government is guaranteed and is regulated by law.Local self-government is exercised by representative bodies elected through general, equal, free, direct, and secret ballot elections.The activity of local self-government bodies is based on this Constitution and the laws of the Republic of Kosovo and respects the European Charter of Local Self-Government. The Republic of Kosovo shall observe and implement the European Charter on Local Self Government to the same extent as that required of a signatory state.Local self-government is based upon the principles of good governance, transparency, efficiency and effectiveness in providing public services having due regard for the specific needs and interests of the Communities not in the majority and their members. Also article 124 of the Constitution outlines that the basic unit of local government in the Republic of Kosovo is the municipality. Municipalities enjoy a high degree of local self-governance and encourage and ensure the active participation of all citizens in the decision-making process of the municipal bodies.Establishment of municipalities, municipal boundaries, competencies and method of organization and operation shall be regulated by law. Municipalities have their own, extended and delegated competencies in accordance with the law.The state authority which delegates competencies shall cover the expenditures incurred for the exercise of delegation.Municipalities have the right of inter-municipal cooperation and cross-border cooperation in accordance with the law. Municipalities have the right to decide, collect and spend municipal revenues and receive appropriate funding from the central government in accordance with the law. Municipalities are bound to respect the Constitution and laws and to apply court decisions. The administrative review of acts of municipalities by the central authorities in the area of their own competencies shall be limited to ensuring compatibility with the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo and the law.(Constitution Articles 123 and 124). Law Nr. 03/l-040 on local self government provide the legal status of municipalities, their competencies and general principles of municipal finances, organization and functioning of the municipal bodies, the intra-municipal arrangements and the inter-municipal cooperation including the cross border cooperation and the relationship between municipalities and central government.(Law Nr. 03/l-040 Article 2). After the independence in 2008 the basic legal basis for the construction and operation of local self government is Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo. Also, Basic laws for local government are: Law No.03/l-040 on local self government,Law No.03/l-049 on local government finance, Law No.03/l-041 on administrative municipal boundaries,Law No.03/l-072 on local elections in the Republic of Kosovo, Law No. 03/L-090 on public-private-partnerships and concessions in infrastructure and the procedures for their award,Law No.04/L-111 on amending and supplementing the Law No.03/l-087 on publicly owned enterprises,Law No.04/L-144 on allocation for use and exchange of immovable property of the municipality, Law No.04/L-110 on construction, Law No.04/L-147 on Waters of Kosovo, Law No. 03/L-087 on publicly owned enterprises. The current legal framework has given a complete autonomy to the Local Government bodies. Decentralization of power, local government reform, gaining a high degree of autonomy in the governance of municipalities, it has impacted to the integration of the Serb community and the creation of a stable and unified policy in country. Thus the system has achieved three main objectives:1) establishment of the state with a stable multi-ethnic society; 2) integration of communities (in particular the Serb community) in self-governing institutions ofthe country and 3) provision of quality services to citizens.Citizens have equal rights to choose their own representatives, to govern and to serve them and dismiss them if do not govern well with their assets. So, the power of local government derives only from the will of the citizens, excluding any possibility of interference from above, with the exception of the competent courts when Local Government bodies violate the law. However, the central institutions without legal support have built the administrative structures between central and local government, wanting to provide assistance to Local Government, in providing of more quality services to citizens.(Organization and functioning of local self-government in Kosova, 2013, p. 6)**.**

The Central Government's stated support for decentralization suggests an opening for strengthening municipal administrations to advance to a higher level of accountability to their constituents, especially as concerns financial

management and development of own source revenue.(USAID/Kosovo Country Development Cooperation Strategy 2014-2018, p.9*)*.

The aim of the Government of Kosovo after the Declaration of Independence was the creation of a stable and effective system of local government throughout the territory of Kosovo that would provide better living conditions for all its citizens paying adequate care to special needs and concerns of minority communities in Kosovo. Challenges for Kosovo were reforming of local government legislation, the establishment of new municipalities, the transfer of powers and municipality resources. Capacity building of municipalities in coordination with donors, to develop contacts with the public in order to communicate the benefits of decentralization and accomplish local government reforms in the municipalities of northern Kosovo.(Action Plan for the implementation of decentralization 2010-2011 p.2)As stated above, organization and functioning of local self-government during its process it has encountered certain challenges, such as the establishment of the new municipality of Northern Mitrovica, operation and financing of parallel structures from Serbia in several municipalities , local government reform will continue in the coming years, since the establishment of new municipalities and the delegation of powers towards the local level can only be considered as the first stage of the whole project to reform the local government in Kosovo.Extension of fiscal autonomy in municipalities that will establish and collect local taxes and fees themselves. Building an efficient public administration, which means a stable administration, devoted to law enforcement and to provide better services for the citizens. Exercising of powers in the field of education, health, environment, social services and the transfer of property management public, public enterprises, social and cultural (Musmurati,2011). Challenge for Kosovo institutions is the demand of the Serb community for the establishment of a separate Serbian Association of municipalities and requirements of Serbia state during the Kosovo-Serbia talks in Brussels that the association of Serbian municipalities to have the authority to extend their legislative bodies, executive and funding Directly from the state of Serbia in competition from other association in other municipalities in Kosovo which are functioning in function.

3.2.   Autonomia and Local Government Competencies of Kosovo

Territorial governance, respectively, the territorial governance is a very complex process and can be said to consist of several functions, respectively activities.(Stavileci, 1997, p. 247) . European Charter of Local Self-Government obligate state the principle of local self-government shall be recognised in domestic legislation, and where practicable in the constitution.(European Charter of Local Self-Government). European Charter of Local Self-Government Article 3 outlines that local self-government denotes the right and the ability of local authorities, within the limits of the law, to regulate and manage a substantial share of public affairs under their own responsibility and in the interests of the local population.This right shall be exercised by councils or assemblies composed of members freely elected by secret ballot on the basis of direct, equal, universal suffrage, and which may possess executive organs responsible to them.(Article 3). Referring to the European Charter of Local Self-Government Article 4 outlines that the basic powers and responsibilities of local authorities shall be prescribed by the constitution or by statute.Local authorities shall, within the limits of the law, have full discretion to exercise their initiative with regard to any matter which is not excluded from their competence nor assigned to any other authority. Public responsibilities shall generally be exercised, in preference, by those authorities which are closest to the citizen. Allocation of responsibility to another authority should weigh up the extent and nature of the task and requirements of efficiency and economy.Powers given to local authorities shall normally be full and exclusive. They may not be undermined or limited by another, central or regional, authority except as provided for by the law.Where powers are delegated to them by a central or regional authority, local authorities shall, insofar as possible, be allowed discretion in adapting their exercise to local conditions.Local authorities shall be consulted, insofar as possible, in due time and in an appropriate way in the planning and decision-making processes for all matters which concern them directly (European Charter of Local Self-Government).The right to local self-government is guaranteed and is regulated by law (Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo article 123 paragraph 1). However, but in order for municipality to be able to deliver good services it must have considerable autonomy to operate in central government institutions must be in a position to offer technical assistance and support and oversee that the laws are not being breached (Decentralization a heavy weight to be carried out , 2011, p.20).The legal framework in Kosovo has changed several times from 2000 to 2008, arranged progressively powers of municipalities, while allowing higher authority in local self-government. Therefore, municipalities, municipal bodies respectively won a higher degree of autonomy in their work, which instead of leading it to a local self-government, it placed it to more local autonomy.(History and Territorial Administrative Arrangement Kosovo, Pristina, 2014 pg.50). The

municipalities shall exercise its competences in accordance with the principle of subsidiary. Municipalities shall exercise own, delegated and enhanced competencies in accordance with the law (Law No 03/L-040 articles 15 and article 16).

3.2.1. Own Competencies

With UNMIK Regulation no. 2000/45 amended by UNMIK Regulation no. 2007/30 and then to the Law on Local Government have defined the same powers for all municipalities of Kosovo. Competences were not described and specified with a special legal or sub-legal act. In general the law required from municipalities to provide equal access to public services for citizens; to ensure minimum quality and quantity standards in the provision of public services; minimum qualifications of personnel and their training and provide general principles on licensing and accreditation of public service providers. Description of these powers, the various line ministries, was not carried out in the best possible way. In certain aspects there were duplication in some contradictions and difficulties of implementation in practice. However, by the Regulation of the year 2000 until the adoption of the law in 2008, municipalities received higher powers, including powers for some central Serbian majority municipalities.(History and Territorial Administrative Arrangement Kosovo,Pristina, 2014). Municipalities shall have full and exclusive powers, insofar as they concern the local interest, while respecting the standards set forth in the applicable legislation in the following areas: local economic development,urban and rural planning, land use and development, implementation of building regulations and building control standards, local environmental protection.Provision and maintenance of public services and utilities, including water supply, sewers and drains, sewage treatment, waste management, local roads, local transport, and local heating schemes, local emergency response.Provision of public pre-primary, primary and secondary education, including registration and licensing of educational institutions, recruitment, payment of salaries and training of education instructors and administrators;promotion and protection of human rights;provision of public primary health care.Provision of family and other social welfare services, such as care for the vulnerable, foster care, child care, elderly care, including registration and licensing of these care centres, recruitment, payment of salaries and training of social welfare professionals, public housing;public health.Licensing of local services and facilities, including those related to entertainment, cultural and leisure activities, food, lodging, markets, street vendors, local public transportation and taxis, naming of roads, streets and other public places.Provision and maintenance of public parks and spaces, tourism;cultural and leisure activities, any matter which is not explicitly excluded from their competence nor assigned to any other authority (Law No. 03/L-040 Article 17). For Example, responsibilities and Competencies of the Municipalities in Education was provided with the Law no. 2002/2 on primary and secondary education in Kosovo, municipalities accepted the responsibility of organizing the learning process at all levels of university-level education, but this law did not decentralized all powers of the authorities. Election of directors of primary and secondary education remains the liability of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST).Also, managing on budget remains centralized in MEST and in the Ministry of Economy and Finance (Law No. 2002/2 Article 13 and Article 14). After the Declaration of Independence of Kosovo and consent some laws of competencies of the Municipalities in Education have the provisions of public pre-primary, primary and secondary education, including registration and licensing of educational institutions, recruitment, payment of salaries and training of education instructors and administrators. Municipalities shall be entitled to cooperate, within the areas of their own competencies in the field of education, with other municipalities and other authorities.This entitlement includes cooperation with municipalities and institutions, including government agencies, in the Republic of Serbia.Construction of educational facilities, registration and admission of students, employment of teachers and other school personnel in accordance with legal procedures for the recruitment, selection and employment of public employees; selection of the Director and/or Deputy Director of educational institutions in accordance with legal procedures for the recruitment and legal criteria's determined by MEST from a commission established by the Municipality which two members shall be from the Municipality and one from MEST. Registration, public health and safety inspection and licensing of pre-primary educational institutions, payment of the managerial staff as well as other employed personnel in accordance with Kosovo legislation,training educators and other professional staff.Supervision and inspection of the education process in accordance with guidelines established by the MEST.Reporting on pre-primary level education, budgetary and management operations to municipal governments and the MEST in accordance with municipal and central legislation etc. (Law No. 03/L-068 Articles 4 and 5).

The Assembly of the Kosovo Republic consent, the Law No. 03 / L-068 on Education in the Municipalities of the Republic of Kosovo, Law No. 04 / L - 032 on Pre-University Education in the Republic of Kosovo and the Law No. 04 / L-143 on adults Education and Training in the Republic of Kosovo made decentralization of operations in the education sector and municipalities took charge of the new responsibilities they did not have with the previous law.

3.2.2. Delegated Competencies

Apart from own competencies, municipalities in Kosovo have been delegated a limited number of powers from the central level, in order that for these types of services citizens may be served in the nearest municipality. The uniqueness of these municipalities is that when municipalities do not have the capacity to provide them, they can be withdrawn again by the appropriate central institution (History and Territorial Administrative Arrangement Kosovo, Pristina, 2014, p. 59) .Central authorities in Republic of Kosova shall delegate responsibility over the following competencies to municipalities, in accordance with the law: cadastral records, civil registries, voter registration,business registration and licensing,distribution of social assistance payments (excluding pensions), and forestry protection on the municipal territory within the authority delegated by the central authority, including the granting of licenses for the felling of trees on the basis of rules adopted by the Government.Central authorities in Republic of Kosova may delegate other competencies to municipalities, as appropriate, in accordance with the law.Delegated competencies must in all cases be accompanied by the necessary funding in compliance with objectives, standards and requests determined by the Government of Kosova (Law Nr. 03/L-040 Article 18). The aim of delegating competencies is providing of closer and better services to its citizens.

3.2.3. Enhanced Municipal Competencies

In Kosovo certain municipalities explained below shall have their own competencies enhanced in the areas of health, education and cultural affairs and shall have participatory right in selecting local station police commanders.Central authorities of Republic of Kosova shall monitor the exercise of enhanced competencies, in accordance with the central legislation providing for equal access to public services, minimum quality and quantity standards in the provision of public services, minimum qualifications of personnel and training facilities, general principles on licensing and accreditation of public service providers. Municipalities exercising enhanced municipal competencies may cooperate with any other municipality in providing services (Law No.03/L-040 Article 19). The municipalities of Mitrovica North, Gracanica, Štrpce shall have the competence for provision of secondary health care, including registration and licensing of health care institutions, recruitment, payment of salaries and training of health care personnel and administrators. The municipality of Mitrovica North shall have competence for the provision of higher education, including registration and licensing of educational institutions, recruitment, payment of salaries and training of education instructors and administrators (Article 20 and Article 21).Pursuant to Article 22 of the Law Nr. 03/l-040 on local self government outlines that all municipalities in which the Kosova Serb Community is in the majority shall have authority to exercise responsibility for cultural affairs, including, protection and promotion of Serbian and other religious and cultural heritage within the municipal territory as well as support for local religious communities in accordance with the applicable law. Municipalities may cooperate with any other municipality in cultural affairs.Also municipalities in which Kosova Serb community is in a majority shall exercise enhanced participatory rights in the selection of the local station police commanders in accordance with law on police (Law No. 03/L-040 Article 22 and Article 23). With these powers Serbian majority municipalities receive central authority and gain a high degree of autonomy for local self-government. In this case, a positive discrimination for the Serbian-majority municipalities is created, which resulted in political unifying of the Serb community with the institutions of the Republic of Kosovo and created the premise for the creation of local institutions along ethnic lines.(History and Territorial Administrative Arrangement Kosovo, 2014 p. 61).

4.   Regional and international experiences for local government

In democratic societies, the functioning of government systems and in particular local democracy is based on strong principles of interest and values to the local community and the general interests of the national and international level. Depending on the degree and circumstances of social and political developments, different countries have defined various principles for their governance in the local level, but generally possess some basic or vital principles, through which the character of governance is defined, as it is concluded in the document of evaluation of competencies of four EU countries (Madrid 2005),(Hambleton,2000), under which, local governments should be directed according to these main principles: self-government, proportionality, subsidiarity, diversity and flexibility (Organization and functioning of local Self-government in Kosova 2013, p. 18).This right normally entails a representative assembly with or without executive bodies subordinate thereto, but allowance is also made for the possibility of direct democracy where this is provided for by statute (European

Charter of Local Self-Government Explanatory Report Article 3 Paragraph 2).However, it is not possible, nor would it be appropriate to attempt, to enumerate exhaustively the powers and responsibilities which should appertain to local government throughout Europe (European Charter of Local Self-Government Explanatory Report Article 4). Regional states have different practices as regards to the organisation and functioning of local self-government of Kosovo.Local government is organized in the municipality and region(Slovenia), municipality and district level, where municipalities are divided into urban and rural areas (Croatia), the municipalities, municipalities and counties (Albania) and only in municipalities divided in urban and rural municipalities with a special city, composed of seven municipalities (Macedonia), (Strategy on Local Self-Government 2015-2025).The Constitution of the Republic of Albania article 108 outlines that Communes or municipalities and regions are the units of local government. Other units of local government are regulated by law. The territorial-administrative division of the units of local government is established by law on the basis of mutual economic needs and interests, and of historical tradition. Their borders may not be changed without first hearing the opinion of their inhabitants.Communes and municipalities are basic units of local government. They perform all the duties of self-government, with the exception of those that are given by law to other units of local government. Self-government in the local units is exercised through their representative organs and local referenda (Constitution Article 108). Communes, municipalities and regions perform exclusive functions, shared functions and delegated functions (Law No.8652 Article 9). Croatia has a three-staged system of government, the organization of local government in the Republic of Croatia consists of 155 units of local government, where 428 of them belong to the municipal units, 127 units of the local second-level cities and 21 belong to third level or prefectures (Zupanja), this includes Zagreb. The powers of municipal governments units are specified by applicable laws, although Croatia's central power is concentrated, a large number of competencies that in reality does not talk much about elements of the decentralization of power. In city level like unit government, they perform powers in the fields of education at primary and secondary level, culture, social welfare and primary health care, construction, territorial civil protection and public services.((Millosheviç,2013). In Croatia There are two levels of sub-national government: cities and municipalities on the level of local self-government, and counties as the units of regional self-government.. Each local and regional government has its own statute stipulating the rights and responsibilities of local and regional public authorities inter alia the forms of consulting the citizens and the forms of cooperation. Citizens are involved in the decision-making process through public debates, consultation, and locally- or regionally-organized referenda (Eszter Hartay,Katerina Hadzi-Miceva Evans).The Constitution of the Republic of Hungary Article Article 41 outlines that the territory of the Republic of Hungary consists of administrative units including the Capital, the counties, cities, towns and villages.The Capital is divided into districts. Districts may be formed in other cities also (Constitution Article 41). All local authorities have the same fundamental rights However, the duties and responsibilities of local governments may be different. The rights and duties of local governments are determined by the law. The Courts protect the lawful exercise of jurisdiction by local authorities. Local governments are free to turn to the Constitutional Court for the protection of their rights. Citizens who have the vote exercise local government through the representative body they have elected and by local plebiscites.(Constitution Articles 43 and 44). The middle-tier oflocal government consists of nineteen counties. Budapest as the capital city of Hungary has a special legal status.There are no hierarchical relations between the municipalities and the counties. According to the Constitution, the fundamental rights of all local governments are equal. County local governments are not superior and do not have supervisory authority over the municipalities. The difference between these two lies in the administrative tasks delegated to each of them: counties provide public services that settlements are not capable of performing (Eszter Hartay,Katerina Hadzi-Miceva Evans). In this paper we have treated local governance in several countries in the region and the EU- competencies and responsibilities of local government in the state of Slovenia a comparative review of the powers of municipalities in Kosovo aiming not to overload the paper with other countries. For example, Local self-government Republic of Slovenia.Slovenians shall exercise local government powers and functions through self-governing municipalities and other local government organizations (The Constitution Article 138). Municipality shall be self-governing local government bodie. A municipality may comprise a single community or a number of communities whose inhabitants are bound together by common needs and interests.A municipality may be established by statute following a vote in favour of its establishment at a referendum conducted to ascertain the will of the people in the area affected.The territorial boundaries of a municipality shall be such as are prescribed by statute (Article 139 The Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia).. In Slovenia a municipality may, in accordance with laws, possess, acquire or have at its disposal all types of assets, establish and manage public enterprises and determine its budget within the system of public finances (The law on local self-government Article 20 **)**. Local matters of public interest (of the original tasks) determined by law or by the general act of a municipality shall be independently performed by the municipality. In order to satisfy the needs of its inhabitants, a municipality shall perform primarily the following duties and functions: manage the assets of the municipality; provide the conditions for the economic development of the municipality and in accordance

with the law carry out tasks in the areas of catering, tourism and agriculture; plan spatial development, carry out tasks in the areas of encroachments in physical space and the construction of facilities in accordance with the law, and shall ensure the public service of the management of building land; create the conditions for the construction of housing and provide for an increase in the rent/social welfare housing fund; regulate, manage and provide for local public services within its jurisdiction; promote the services of social welfare for pre-school institutions, for the basic welfare of children and the family, and for socially threatened, disabled and elderly people; provide for protection of the air, soil and water sources, for protection against noise and for collection and disposal of waste, and perform other activities related to protection of the environment; regulate and maintain water supply and power supply facilities; create conditions for adult education, important for the development of the municipality and for the quality of life of its population; promote activities related to upbringing and education, information and documentation, associations and other activities on its territory; promote cultural/artistic creativity, ensure accessibility to cultural programmes, ensure library activity for general education purposes, and shall be responsible for preserving cultural heritage in its territory in accordance with the law; promote the development of sports and recreation; construct, maintain and regulate local public roads, public ways, recreational and other public areas; regulate traffic in the municipality and perform tasks of municipal public order;exercise supervision of local events; organise municipal services and local police, and ensure order in the municipality; provide for fire safety and organise rescue services; guarantee extrajudicial settlement of disputes; organise the performance of funeral and burial services; determine offences and fines for offences violating municipal regulations and inspect and supervise the implementation of municipal regulations and other acts, which it shall adopt to regulate matters falling under its jurisdiction, unless otherwise determined by law; adopt the statute of the municipality and other general acts; organise municipal administration; regulate other local matters of public interest (Article 21). Article 24 The law on local self-government Republic of Slovenia predicts City municipalities shall also perform specific tasks which, in accordance with the law, fall under national jurisdiction and which apply to the development of towns. With respect to this, city municipalities shall, in particular: regulate local public transport; regulate the opening hours of catering facilities in their territories; perform tasks in the areas of encroachments in physical space and the construction of facilities in their territories; perform tasks in the area of the geodesic service; ensure a public network of grammar schools, and secondary, vocational and higher schools in their territories; ensure a secondary-level public health service in their territories. The state may by law vest in a municipality the performance of individual duties and functions from state jurisdiction (transferred tasks) subject to the prior consent of the municipality. Individual tasks which fall under national jurisdiction and which may be carried out more economically and more efficiently within municipalities may be transferred to municipal jurisdiction, especially in the areas of the regulation of local public transport, the opening hours of catering facilities, the implementation of tasks in the fields of encroachments in physical space, the construction of facilities and geodesic services, and the ensuring of a public network of grammar schools, secondary and vocational schools, as well as secondary-level public health services. It shall also be possible to legally determine that the implementation of individual tasks be transferred from national jurisdiction to all municipalities, city municipalities, municipalities located in a specific region, or individual municipalities. The reasons and conditions for transferring the implementation of individual tasks from national to municipal jurisdiction shall be prescribed by law. The implementation of individual tasks may be legally transferred from national to municipal jurisdiction on condition that the consent of all municipalities, all city municipalities or all municipalities located in a specific region to which the tasks are to be transferred be obtained. It shall be deemed that a municipality gives its prior consent if it submits an initiative for the performance of individual tasks that fall under national jurisdiction to the National Assembly. Before it adopts a law with which individual tasks are transferred from national to municipal jurisdiction, the National Assembly must obtain the prior consent of the relevant municipality. The state shall provide the municipality with appropriate means for the performance of duties and functions vested in it (Article 24).

5.   CONCLUSIONS

Local governance in Kosovo faced many challenges since the efforts for constituting of the local administration. International institutions during the appointment of regional and municipal administrators and establishing local administration slow employment of Pillar II officials took quite a lot of time in municipalities; based on their frequent inexperience in local government; the lack of clear central directions for the structures and processes of desirable municipal governance; disagreements

disagreements between regional leaderships in Pillar II of UNMIK (Administration), Pillar III (OSCE Institution Building) and KFOR in the early stages of operation; and the difficulties in cooperation just established local administrations. Another

challenge was the transfer of authority from international to locals. Municipalities lacked human capacity, some newly established municipalities had neither the human resources nor the property, not able to provide their own revenues. Establishment of new municipalities was made on the basis of national affiliation of the requirements of the international community, in places where the Serbian community was living they were given a privilege to establish new municipalities, although did not meet the criteria required for the establishment of a new municipality.

Local institutions should provide sufficient space to employees to be more efficient in exercising of their power, organize training and capacity building seminars, in many areas that lack the capacity method was applied and practiced in European Union countries.

Local institutions should not politicize the civil staff, phenomena that have been occurring very early in our institutions, often showing problem and concerns for civil servants.

Local institutions devote more importance to depoliticize and professionalize local administration to have an efficient local administration more accountable, transparent and accountability which shall be in service to the citizens of the municipality.

Central institutions should not take quick decisions (election) for the formation of new municipalities without analysing if such municipalities have in disposal human resources and property to operate and develop.

Creation of new municipalities not to be performed according to ethnicity of the citizens, but to establish the criteria that is required to meet one place to be declared a municipality.

Both Associations of municipalities in Kosovo have the same powers and Associations of Serbian municipalities not to be recognized the right of legislative bodies, executive and to be funded directly by the state of Serbia. In fact, the reforming of local government in Kosovo, new established municipalities by the number of very low residents that have advanced power, large municipalities in Kosovo. The municipality should not be treated on the basis of ethnic affiliation of citizens, should not have positive or negative discrimination.

In the future and to amend the Law no. 03/L-40 on Local Self-Government, all major municipalities in Kosovo to be transferred own enhanced powers in health, education, and be eligible to participate in the selection of police station commanders and earn a high degree of autonomy for local government such is the case with some Serbian-majority municipalities.

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Show Me a Perfect Teacher. Triangulation of Methods: Content Analysis of Focus Interviews and Analysis of Visual Materials Prepared by Students of Public Schools

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Abstract

In 1912 Jan Władysław Dawid published his idea of a teacher's personality in Polish pedeutology in a book titled "O duszy nauczycielstwa" ["On the spirit of teaching"]. Therein he proposed that the decisive factor in the work of a teacher is substantial knowledge of psychology and pedagogics. In his idea of the "spirit of teaching" J.W. Dawid presented an image of a perfect teacher-educator, with the fundamental assumption that "in no occupation does the human factor have as high an importance as in teaching". On the 100th anniversary of the dissemination of the conception research on the contemporary interpretation of the "spirit of teaching" and the perfect attitude of a teacher-educator was conducted. The research was carried out in Polish state schools, and the research subjects were students concluding a stage in their education (early school education, primary school, gymnasium, lyceum). The scientific investigation was conducted according to the interpretative paradigm and it was based on two methods: qualitative analysis of focus interviews and analysis of visual materials created by the research subjects. The paper presents conclusions drawn from the triangulation of the methods used in this research.

Keywords: perfect teacher, Jan Władysław Dawid, conception of the "spirit of teaching", teachers' professional calling

Theoretical introduction

Teachers' personalities, educational talents and abilities, the quality of their professional training, as well as their place and roles in the society and their material situation continue to be current topics that are an important area of research conducted in humanities and social sciences. According to Wincenty Okoń: "there is no educational system in the world in which the role of the teacher in the educational process is ignored. Although there are major differences between the systems it is generally agreed that quality education can be the work of a good teacher-educator" (Okoń, 1996, p. 423). On the basis of this it can be stated that teachers' work constitutes a strategic element of a properly functioning educational and schooling system (Sikorski, 2006, pp. 125-126; Strykowski, 2005, p. 15; Banach, 1997, p. 435).

Virtually from the very beginning the term "teacher" was mainly reserved for teachers working for institutions, who "were distinguished by their participation in the processes of the socialisation of young generations, transferring cultural heritage in the general context and the experience of immediate communities in the society, with their material lives and culture" (Kwiatkowska, 2012, pp. 24-25). As Helena Kwiatkowska states: "The term teacher has a long history, but a scholarly reflection on the teaching profession is relatively young, especially because teaching has become a defined human profession. The process took place at the turn of the 17th and the 18th century, and scholarly pedeutological reflection appears in the 1930s" (Kwiatkowska, 2012, p. 18). The defining of a new field in pedagogics, which is the study of teachers, coincided at the turn of the 19th and the 20th century with the increased interest in the social situation of children and their rights and the development of, among others, biology, paediatrics, and experimental research in psychology and sociology.

This has resulted in a substantial change in the perception of the essence of the education process, and, consequently, of the role of educators (Mirski, 1932, p. 854).

The necessity to draw up a model of a "perfect" teacher-educator-pedagogue constituted the subject of the discourse that from the very beginning has been conducted in the publications in this area. The ways of discovering the particular concepts of the ideal of a teacher that are presented by scholars from Poland and abroad are interesting, however, they are quite varied and occasionally contradictory. As W. Okoń points out: "The particular authors beam with optimism in their search for an ideal teacher [...] or they are reluctant, doubtful, or pessimistic. Some would have teachers-strongmen, teachers-artists, and others are happy to accept what is a collection of the proper competences of an average teacher" (Okoń, 1962, p. 8). Thus, a question arises: what are the sources of the idea of a perfect teacher: human nature, humanist values, professional causes, educational aims or social, political, and cultural aims and ideas? The factors listed above are the most common guidelines in the process of the forming of the ideal of a teacher. It ought to be noted, however, that the defined ideal of a teacher "[...] is not only a useful matrix to evaluate particular teachers and to plan education and training of future teachers, but it is also a practical tool in raising teachers' self-awareness, and helping them to recognise their professional and educational strengths and opportunities" (Wołoszyn, 1997, p. 444). Such knowledge is also indispensible in undertaking efforts in self-education.

A number of theoretical approaches can be assumed when describing teachers. In contemporary pedeutological publications the psychological, technological, humanist, sociological, and critical conceptions have been outlined. The first of them refers to the personal traits of a teacher, taking into account the crucial importance of the category of a teacher's ideal traits. The knowledge about teachers is drawn from biological and psychological theories, phenomenology, idealist philosophy, as well as ethics and the ideas of new education (Kwiatkowska, 2012, p. 29-33). The representatives of this approach in Poland were, among others, Jan Władysław Dawid (1946), Zygmunt Mysłakowski (Okoń, 1962), Stefan Szuman (1947), Mieczysław Kreutz (1947), Stefan Baley (Okoń, 1962).

In the technological perspective teachers are seen as persons with necessary professional qualifications. This approach arises from positivism. That is why these competences understood as the ability and the readiness of a subject to fulfil goals according to certain standards become the main category in defining the model of a teacher (Kwiatkowska, 2012, pp. 35-36).

The prevalence of the individuality of a teacher results from the humanist orientation in pedagogics and psychology. Consequently, a good teacher is not a collection of perfect personal traits or a skilled worker. A good teacher is perceived as "[...] a kind individual, unique personality who cultivates that which makes it a significant being, it is a person who is original and important to a student" (Kwiatkowska, 2012, p. 36).

In the sociological approach, in turn, teachers are seen within the structure of the social role that they serve, which forms a certain collection of norms and values connected with this profession. It can, therefore, be stated that the main source of satisfaction for teachers is fulfilling the social expectations set by the society in connection with their role (Kwiatkowska, 2012, p. 38).

Critical pedagogics proposes to see teachers as transformative individuals, i.e., active participants of the educational process who work for the sake of democracy. The main goal of their work is to teach critical reading, expressing opinions, and, last but not least, to create an atmosphere in which students feel that they are co-partners (Kwiatkowska, 2012, p. 39). Such a teacher works and thinks outside the box.

Assumptions of the conception of "the spirit of teaching" as proposed by J.W. Dawid

The term "the spirit of teaching" was coined by Jan Władysław Dawid, who introduced the idea of a teacher's personality to Polish pedeutology. He believed that the main decisive factor in the work of a teacher is substantial knowledge in the fields of psychology and pedagogics. What is more, the author emphasises that without such knowledge it is impossible to consciously manage the educational process[1]. At the same time he adds that that one cannot expect that awareness of

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[1] Taking into account the prevalent role of pedagogical knowledge in the work of teachers sine 1910 J.W. Dawid devoted a large part of his scientific work to understanding child psychology and describing and explain the fundamental problems of the theory of education.

the laws of psychology and pedagogics will guarantee that teachers will be able to overcome all the difficulties of the educational process. Teachers ought to be prepared to find their own "ways of pedagogical work" (Okoń, 1980, pp. 87-88).

In his idea of "the spirit of teaching" J.W. Dawid draws up an image of an ideal attitude of a teacher-educator. His fundamental assumption is that "[...]in no occupation does the human factor have as high an importance as in teaching" (Dawid, 1946, p. 6). The author emphasises that a teacher's personality informs their power to educate. One cannot be a bad person and a teacher. Certainly, such a person can "[...] occasionally teach something detached and random, but they will remain a stranger to the student, they will play no role in the student's life" (Dawid, 1946, p. 6). That is why it is crucial that to have necessary emotional, moral, and professional qualifications.

When reflecting on the image of an ideal teacher the following question needs to be asked: what are the attributes of a teacher who can be a role model for students? J.W. Dawid enumerates, among others: "the love of people's souls" – understood as a sense spiritual unity with others, sense of responsibility for the results of one's work, the need of perfection, lack of internal conflicts, unity with one's nation and society, moral courage (Okoń, 1962, p. 12; Bułat, & Samecki, 1963, p. 188; Dawid, 1946, p. 27).

Further traits, such as the need of responsibility and perfection pertain to the teachers' competences *per se*. It was the opinion of J.W. Dawid that: "He who wants to enlighten others, to elevate them through his love, must at the same time want to do it as best and as effectively as possible" (Dawid, 1946, p. 12). In this context, it is necessary to perceive teachers from the perspective of means, methods, techniques, as well as the organisation of the education process. What is more, assuming that the main aim of teachers' work is a deep and lasting influence on students, which is expressed in, among others, shaping the innermost essence of their worldviews and will (Dawid, 1946, p. 10), it is in fact knowledge in psychology of education and experimental pedagogics that provides them with information on the subject of the laws governing a person's spiritual life (Bułat & Samecki, 1963, p. 188). To conclude, the author of the discussed conception emphasises the what is a supplement of teachers' knowledge is "gaining an awareness of what not to desire, of what to aim for, and of what is to be the ultimate value that is to be achieved through education" (Dawid 1946, p. 16).

A mature teacher, with a sense of responsibility and duty and a desire of perfection, will also aim for freedom in his actions. As J.W. Dawid proposes "a teacher needs not passively and mechanically carry out the aims and tasks developed and accepted by someone else and scheduled for him for years, weeks, days, and hours" (Dawid, 1946, p.15). What is more, "the teacher, who needs to influence the student as a human being, and who, consequently, can only work according to what his will dictates, [...] must himself develop the curriculum or the curriculum needs to be developed by representatives of the teacher, so that he may be its co-creator" (Dawid, 1946, p. 15). That is how J.W. Dawid clearly proposes that teachers should secure the right to individual independence that can be expressed through the freedom to arrange educational situations.

When perceiving teachers' work from the perspective of their calling and mission one must not forget the ethical aspect, to which the two further attributes of "the spirit of teaching" belong. They are the innermost integrity and moral courage. J.W. Dawid makes the assumption that everyone ought to create their own canon of moral conduct that one needs to experience and live according to it (Dawid, 1946, p. 17). What is more, he points out that an innermost trueness of feelings, convictions, and conscience is a necessary condition "that allows one to belong to the moral world of aims" (Dawid, 1946, p. 22). As a consequence, it conditions the teachers' sense of integrity that strengthens and upkeeps their spiritual lives (Dawid, 1946, p. 24).

In relation to courage the author treats it as one of the deepest and most mysterious aspects of humanity. He advises that is ought to be understood as an active force that is always active in a human being. For teachers themselves moral courage is the readiness to overcome the dilemmas encountered in their lives and in their work. In this understanding, it is a "state of an individual who has already with a part of his being [...] stepped outside that which is necessary, that which is a condition, a profit, or a loss, thanks to which he is able to act against the interests and the self-preservation of the 'here-and-now'" (Dawid, 1946, p. 25). In education, in turn, courage becomes the result of an awakening within the student, deep spiritual life, and supporting the student's development (Dawid, 1946, p. 26).

He published such works as: *Educators ought to know the laws governing the body and the mind* (1882), *On moral plague* (1886), *A study of objects* (1892), and *Intelligence, will, and ability to work* (1911).

In conclusion, the idea of the "spirit of teaching" proposed by J.W. Dawid emphasises the necessity to see this profession as a calling rather than a set of trained skills. Key importance here is assigned to personality, understood as a set of features defining a perfect teacher. It is there that students need to find a place for themselves. It can, therefore, be stated that a teacher is perceived as a mould, as it were, "in which a student acquires his proper form" (Welewander, 2012, p. 9). According to W. Bułat and T. Sarnecki the position presented by J.W. Dawid is shown as "shifting the focus from the school system to the person that implements it, who through their pedagogical work not only implements the system, but also creates an atmosphere of teaching; it was something new in Polish sciences (Bułat, & Samecki, 1963, p. 189).

Research methodology

To commemorate the 100th anniversary of the death of the accomplished pedagogue and pedeutologist a research project titled: *Contemporarily on the spirit of teaching – the reception and reinterpretation of the pedeutological conception of Jan Władysław Dawid from the perspective of school practice* was organised. Its main aim was to investigate the opinions of contemporary students – participants of the education process – on teachers, their calling, difficulties that they experience, and, last but not least, the interpretation of the "spirit of teaching" as proposed by J.W. Dawid.

The planned research belonged to the qualitative paradigm and it was implemented in three stages: in the first stage the research participants answered four open-ended questions on their opinions about contemporary teachers and the features that a perfect teacher ought to have, how they imagined the difficulties that contemporary teachers have to face as well as the understanding of the term the "spirit of teaching" (in writing). At the following stage the students worked in groups to make posters presenting their views of teachers. This was aimed to encourage them to discuss their ideas about the subject and negotiate a stance. Next, focus interviews were conducted with group leaders. They would answer again the questions from the initial stage. The received answers were, to a certain extent, the result of negotiation.

The research participants were students of Polish public schools concluding a certain level of education: the 3rd and 6th grade of primary school, 3rd grade of gymnasium, and the 3rd grade of lyceum. In general, there were 99 students. At the first and the second stage of the research all the students in a given class would participate, and at the last one only the group leaders who were selected during the art stage of the project. Consequently, focus interviews were carried out in groups of 6 to 7, and only in the case of the 6th grade of primary school it was group of 10, which resulted from the specificity of this age group: they all wanted to be videotaped.

In the present paper the reflections are focused on the conclusions drawn from the use of the triangulation of research methods: focus interviews and the analysis of the posters presenting a perfect teacher done by students.

The perfect teacher according to the student of the 3rd grade of primary school

According to the youngest of the research participants the perfect teacher should be characterised by kindness, patience, love for teaching, empathy, optimism, creativity, and responsibility. The children would express their opinions typically by a description of the traits that a teacher ought to have: "Somebody is patient and smart, and also nice...", "Teaches us, is worried about the children...", "A responsible teacher, dedicated to his work...", "Perfect teacher and liking to work with children....", "... surprises us with creativity, that means, eh, shouldn't expect too much of us...". Some would also describe the perfect teacher by his abilities of coping with problems: "Every day a teacher has to face the problem of not always a very good mood...", or "...difficulties, [children] screaming", and "...children who don't feel like listening and learning...". In the opinions of the students it should be easy for a teacher to cope with these problems without raising his voice, by presenting a gentleness of character and treating even the misbehaving children well. The teacher can understand his students and tries to help them in solving difficulties in school and at home.

In the focus interviews the students gave substantially longer answers that were also better developed and appeared to be the result of some reflection. This comes as no surprise as writing the answers in the first part might have still been a problem for some of the students, the questionnaire was discussed while posters were made, and, what is more, in the focus interviews one could see the influence of the group and the inspiration it provided. The children came to the conclusion that J.W. Dawid's "spirit of teaching" is, in fact, the spirit of a good, a perfect teacher, who "...likes his work, children, and he just likes it all....", "....dedicated to her work, and children, well... works well and he is fair, and he is so kind...", "...to teach children well...". A teacher that has the spirit of teaching "teaches very well, is such a perfect teacher, has all these

good traits, has some... has more already... has more good traits than bad ones...". Here we can see a more realistic image of a pedagogue, who is kind and listens to children, "...gives a lot of good marks and knows, for example, that I have always wanted to work in a school...". As in the case of individual answers here too children emphasised the ability to cope with difficulties: "...almost always can find a way out of trouble, it is simply such a perfect teacher..., such a spirit of this perfect teacher...". The children would enumerate a set of traits that constitute the "spirit of teaching": kindness, patience, understanding, empathy, the ability to listen to children carefully, being interested in children, fairness, sense of humour, meticulousness, wisdom, responsibility, creativity, and passion for teaching. One can observe a development of the set as compared with that of the written answers.

When analysing the posters one can arrive at two conclusions. Firstly, the teachers' appearance is very important to children, they should look "nice", be well-dressed. In their works the children devoted a lot of attention to details of teachers' clothes (Fig. 1). The children that used images cut out from magazines chose good-looking, scantily dressed persons (Fig. 2). It should be mentioned here that during the research the children were given a number of magazines from which they could choose various images of men and women. In most cases, the ideal teacher was presented as a woman (a man was presented in only one of the posters), which seems understandable, because at this level in Polish schools most teachers are female.

Secondly, in the posters made by the children the perfect teacher is often presented in certain context: it was an illustration of a relation with children (Fig. 3), or a background related to what the teacher was teaching (Fig. 1, 2 and 3). Therefore, a teacher is not only an individual, but also the relation with students and the curriculum.

When comparing students answers with the posters one can notice certain coherence, with the exception that in their answers the children did not focus on teachers' looks, they did not mention that this aspect was so important to them. However, without a doubt the importance attached to the appearance of teachers is clearly visible in the posters.

The ideal teacher according to students of the 6th grade of primary school

What the students of the 6th grade of primary school said is largely contradictory. On the one hand, similar to what the younger students said, the term "perfect" teacher is interpreted positively, as a synonym of wisdom, kindness, competent teaching, having broad knowledge, responsibility, love for students, dedication, and empathy. Some students also mentioned teachers' calling: "...as if he was made for teaching", "somebody so good at school that he could become a teacher", "he can teach others as if he was a teacher, although he isn't professionally". Even thought the term "calling" does not come up, they would relate to competences that make it possible for a person to take up this profession and to the inner decision pertaining to future career.

In the focus interviews one could see a clearly uniform vision of a "perfect teacher". Ultimately, the students have decided to define traits and competences, as well as the calling. Among the mentioned traits there were: being interested in the students, kindness and good mutual relations ("...the teacher really likes the students", "...respects them and... has very good relations with them"), extensive knowledge and the ability to transfer it, resulting from education and interests ("... that a person has big knowledge...", "...and not that he is, for example, an art teacher, but he has no idea about it, he learned it by heart from school textbooks"), dedication to work, self-confidence and the ability to maintain discipline in class ("...is self-confident, knows he teaches well, he wants all the best for us, yells at us when we misbehave..."), but is also kind and understanding ("for example a child is really misbehaving and the teacher wants to write a note to his parents, and the child says: 'no, please... I'll be good, I'll try not to talk and so on', and then the teacher has a good spirit and forgives him and everyone is happy").

6th grade students have also agreed that a perfect teacher has a calling. The children would state that: "...teacher likes his job, is good for the job and can find himself in the job", "...is made for working as a teacher, that's how I see it", or: "...the person who has chosen to teach a subject should be good at it, should want to do it, and if they do it, they do it with great dedication". Therefore, according to the 6th graders the designates of a calling to teach are: having certain competences necessary in the job, finding pleasure in doing the job, and dedication.

As in the previously described group, the 6th graders could draw and/or use the provided magazines containing the images of men and women. The students who decided to use the magazines made posters with a number of persons, mostly female. What is more, the students provided comments in which they presented some postulates pertaining to teachers'

behaviour, their appearance, and their traits. The traits, competences, and behaviours were concurrent with those provided in the interviews. In relation to the teacher's appearance in the posters the students made it clear that teachers ought to be good-looking, take care of themselves, be sporty, well-dressed, should take care of personal hygiene, etc. The images provided by the students are aesthetically similar: they are slim persons, fashionably dressed, in some cases also sensual.

In the posters that were drawn all the people smile. This positive emotion was often emphasised with emoticons. One may conclude, therefore, that for students it is a very important attitude and it is an emotion that ought to accompany perfect teachers in their work.

When comparing the answers and the posters of the 6th graders one ought to notice a coherence of the verbal and the visual messages supplemented by the descriptions of the appearance of the ideal teacher.

The perfect teacher according to the students of the 3rd grade of gymnasium

The students of the 3rd grade of gymnasium described the perfect teacher in various ways in their written answers, however, as in the other groups, they would mostly enumerate the traits that he should have. The students stated that the traits are: kindness: "...kind teacher", authority: "...is able to win the respect of students and parents, encourages them to study", passion for teaching: "...a person who loves teaching and loves that which they teach", being able to find a compromise between indulgence and making the students meet expectations: "...isn't too strict, but also doesn't do the so-called free lessons, so that you can learn in his classes, but you're not afraid to come", communicativeness and easiness in contacts with students: "...can talk with students". The students emphasised that these traits ought to be evaluated relatively: "The way I see it is that one teacher can stand out from others in a positive way".

The students of the gymnasium would also underline that the perfect teacher has a professional calling, and occasionally they would limit themselves to discussing the relations between the terms, and some would mention its designates: "...then you feel the need to do it, you have a gift", "you devote yourself to what you do".

In the focus interview the gymnasium students mentioned that the ideal of a teacher is expressed in caring for students: "so that they can get as much as possible from the classes, so that they're the best, so that they're prepared as well as possible for later, for the further stages in their lives simply...". One can see clearly that the care does not only pertain to the knowledge that a student gets at school, but first and foremost to the values that may guide him in his life, to developing a certain moral attitude, ethics, whose importance goes beyond school: they become values for the rest of one's life. In this context, the relations between the students and the teachers are crucial. The teacher "must be a master in what he does" who not only educates his students, but also encourages them to develop "...so that they can do their best, simply do all that they can". That is why gymnasium students do not mention the marks as the most important aspect of learning, they focus on motivation for further development of all students, regardless of how much they know. "...So that the good students can excel at a subject, so that those that want to be the best can be the best, and those who do not... who do not feel very good at a subject do their best, they don't have to get straight A's...". Perfect teacher has a calling as well as a passion and love for his job, for the idea of teaching and for the students.

To sum up, the gymnasium students have agreed that few teachers follow this idea of teaching, unfortunately, while expressing a lot of understanding for the contemporary difficulties that teachers have in keeping their motivation high: "if you looked this way at... at teachers, then such spirit, such passion for teaching and so on... you can see in only a few. I think that's not just because it's their work, that they have to teach, because... because they have to, they're employed, they get money for doing that, it all should arise from this... this aim in itself". According to the gymnasium students the implementation of this postulated "aim in itself", understood as teaching as an idea, is difficult in everyday life and the necessity to bend to the necessity to earn money, the lack of respect and understanding from other participants of the education process: school authorities, other teachers and school staff, students and their parents, and the general public. To conclude, it is the opinion of this age group that it is difficult to find a perfect teacher in the contemporary world.

The gymnasium students also took advantage of the opportunity to both draw a poster and to use the various images of men and women from the magazines that they were provided with. As in the formerly discussed age groups the traits presented in the posters pertained to personality and behaviour. Both in the drawings and in the collages a certain appearance of a perfect teacher is clearly presented. The gender features are well-defined, and the presented people are

slim, sporty, well-dressed, and sensual. Both genders were equally represented in the posters made by gymnasium students.

What appears particularly interesting is that in the posters made by gymnasium students the teachers are always shown alone, and never in a relation with students. One need also notice that the students did not try to present emotions in a symbolic manner in the images of the perfect teachers, there are no smiling people, and there are no symbols of such emotions. It creates an impression of a great distance between the teachers and the students.

The perfect teacher according to the students of the 3rd grade of general lyceum

The final age group that participated in the research was the students of a 3rd grade of a general lyceum. Their answers were the richest and contained the deepest reflections, which comes as no surprise as it is the oldest of the groups, so the participants are the most mature. At the same time, one could see a lot of projections arising from the experience of the group – many students mentioned real people as perfect teachers. This did not happen in the other groups.

The students mentioned a number of traits that are contrary to the idea of a perfect teacher, which can also be seen as a projection of their experience: "Instead of being condescending, expect respect (because for young people now it's not as important as it used to be before) they should be people who try to understand emotions and keep up relations on the same level with you, because that's what young people expect", "It is an idea that doesn't really exist in Poland". They believe that the motivation to pursue a career in education should be "not only to pass on knowledge, but also life wisdom", and currently those decisions "are the result of a lack of knowledge and the inability to choose the right job". The student, severe in their opinions, mention, at the same time, that the perfect teacher should be perceived as a postulate: "This term shows how contemporary teachers should work with their students".

The lyceum students mentioned the following as the synonyms of the term "perfect teacher": calling ("...calling to be a teacher, deriving pleasure from having this job"), passion ("...passion for the profession – teaching with a calling, the willingness to pass on knowledge..."), mission ("Someone made to be a teacher, who treats their work as a mission, a calling"), talent ("I see it as a form of a talent: ease and creativity in teaching"), dedication ("It is a teacher's dedication to his work"), and enthusiasm ("There aren't many such enthusiasts among teachers who are really fascinated with what they do and at the same time can get young people interested"). Their answers contained also some rather abstract definitions: "The set of traits characterising teachers with a calling who can help students to find some goals in their lives, and to lead them to a proper path in the future", "It's the ability to help students develop, creative thinking, understanding, empathy, trust, passion, and the calling to be a teacher", "The set of traits governing behaviour, competences, attitude towards students", or: "A metaphysical phenomenon, a spiritual collective that leads to the common traits of True Teachers; the willingness to prepare young people who are lost in an alien world to survive, to live in such a way as to be able to say: 'I have done all that I wanted to do in my life'". Therefore, as in the case of gymnasium students, the lyceum 3rd graders emphasised transferring a certain moral attitude, values that are meaningful from the perspective of a person's entire life, and competences that are not only necessary in the process of education, but also in making decisions.

However, this age was the only one to state that following an ideal "is a duty that is set for themselves by those teachers who think that they have to pass on the knowledge of the ancestors to the young generations, it is a mission of sorts, that a certain person has to fulfil", "it is duty set before every teacher". The duty that the lyceum students emphasise should have both an internal character – understood as the necessity to follow the ideal that one sets for oneself, as well as an external one – as the dedication expected of the teachers. It is only when the two perspectives are combined that a "perfect teacher" is created.

The assumption behind the focus interview was to provide the research participants with the opportunity to discuss and negotiate the definition a "perfect teacher". In the case of the group of lyceum students it took a form of an analysis of the projections of their experiences. The students departed from the attempts to define the term on an abstract level, as had been the case at the stage of written answers, and instead they focused on the teachers from their immediate environment and an evaluation of their work. The result of this were answers of a dual character: what a teacher should be, and what he ought to avoid. Once again there were the examples of teachers who could be role models and examples of teachers (their names were not mentioned) whose behaviour the students saw as contrary to the ideal: "I think that this is the type of a teacher who tries to understand students and tries to pass on his knowledge, but he doesn't push it. That his is the most important subject and all the world revolves around it. But he understands that people can be interested in different things and... life is not only concentrated on, for example, English, or history...". As previously, the students mentioned such

synonyms of the discussed term as calling or passion: "It is simply a teacher who works because he has a calling, and not because he has to... you can see it from the start, even in the first lesson you can see if he is a teacher because... he treats it as his job, or as their entire life...". What one can see here is the way in which a calling to teach is understood: it is a way of life, it is an attitude that is not only expressed in lessons. Its immanent feature is a "teacher's mentality", not a "mask that you put on at work".

The lyceum students would also emphasise that teachers ought to be able to notice potential in students and help them explore it: "...he can use the potential of young people, because young people are... they are very open, so willing, so full of energy and such a teacher can organise stuff, for example discussions about films, theatre classes, things that help us develop something completely new... to expend our horizons... and they open us to various aspects of life, not only school, school, and learning and... all of that". In this answer one can see how students perceive themselves, and how their needs and the expectations that they have are defined. They wish to see teachers as guides who show students various "...opportunities, conditions, that allow us [...] to use our potential to the fullest and it's the most important thing that the teacher can also see... can see himself, that his job is important, because I know many teachers that see their job as..., that they don't earn enough money, that they aren't appreciated by their students, by parents, by the society in general. A teacher is with this spirit of teaching, he should believe in himself, in what he does and he should himself think that it is a type of a mission, so that... so that we can grow up to be this sort of person who can cope in any situation and that can say to themselves: "Oh, I saved somebody's life because in lyceum I had [...] a civil defence course with this and that teacher". As in the previous age group, it is a clear expectation that the idea of teaching goes beyond school walls and it might influence the rest of students' lives.

A lot of text was included in the posters that the students made. The 3rd graders hardly ever employ the opportunity to use the various images of men and women form the provided magazines. These were only used to supplement drawings (Fig. 8). In contrast with the younger groups the appearance of the teachers is not important; instead, they use certain symbols and outlines to present teachers, they do not emphasise the attributes of their gender or their clothes. One may, therefore, conclude that in this age group the appearance of the teacher is of secondary importance to character traits, behaviour, attitude, and the relation with students. The traits of perfect teachers presented in the posters are the same as those in the students' answers, even in connection with the projections that were mentioned during the interviews. Certain oppositions are also presented in the posters, namely between perfect teachers and their opposites (Fig. 9).

Summary

The conducted qualitative analysis of the responses of the research participants and the visual materials created in the course of the research in the form of posters produces an image of a perfect teacher who is characterised by a set of traits and who is to meet a number of expectations regarding his knowledge, skills, and competences. In the reflections of the students teachers' professional calling occupies an important position. Consequently, a set of particular personal traits is created, including, e.g., empathetic, patient, wise, understanding, fair, and skills and competences necessary to fulfil the role of a teacher are mentioned, such as teaching competences, active listening, the ability to cope with difficult situations in education. What is more, students emphasise that a perfect teacher needs to be dedicated to his work and derive pleasure from it. He is then not afraid to make sacrifices and he is dedicated, creative, and student-oriented. In this context it is justified that especially the gymnasium and lyceum students emphasise the importance of good relations between the students and the teacher. That is because these relations are crucial in a successful education process. When students see the teacher as an authority, a master, or a guide they expect him to take care to first and foremost motivate them to develop further, both intellectually and spiritually. That is because they believe that the teacher should not only provide students with knowledge, but also to shape their morality and ethics.

Supplementing the research process with the element connected with graphical representations of teachers makes it possible to enrich its reflections on the appearance of the described persons. Firstly, one can notice a number of projections connected with gender – in the younger classes the teacher was almost always female, which is most probably connected with the fact that in Poland at this stage of education the teachers are typically women. Secondly, in the primary school and in the gymnasium the students attached great importance to appearance; they have a certain canon of beauty. Teachers are presented as slim, sporty, as people who take care of themselves, who are well-dressed, also both in the drawings and in the posters the attributes of gender are emphasised. It was only in the lyceum that teachers were presented in a stylised manner, and the posters reflected ideas rather than a real life appearance.

The vision of the perfect teacher presented by the research participants undoubtedly meets the conception proposed by J.W. Dawid. All the students presented their understanding of the term in a lively manner, and it was coherent with J.W. Dawid's ideas. It needs to be emphasised that the level of reflection increased with the age of the research participants, which was connected with their higher level of education and experience gained in school and out of school education. On the basis of the analysis of the visual materials it can be concluded that with the increased level of reflection less and less importance is attached to teachers' appearance.

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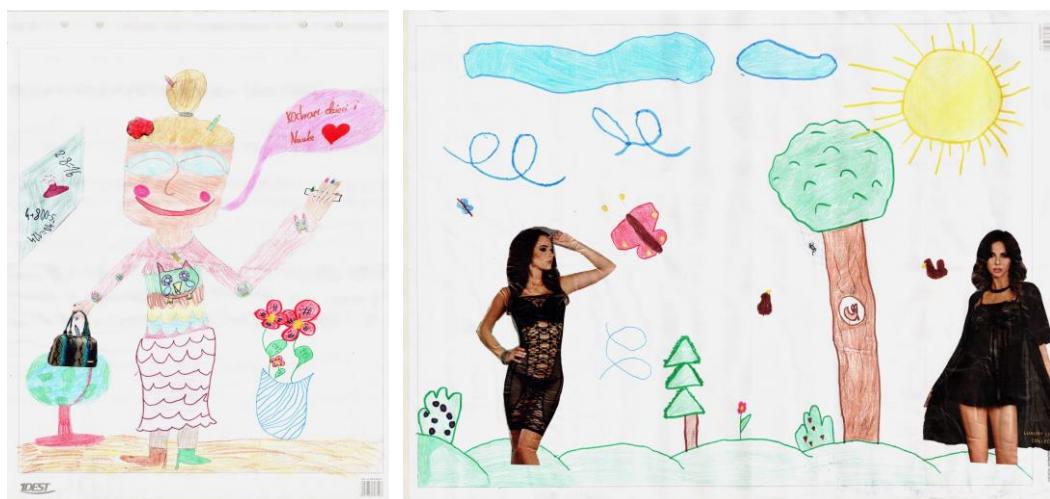
Fig. 1. The perfect teacher as imagined by the students of the 3rd grade of primary school. The

teacher says: "I love children and teaching". Source: a poster made by students of a 3rd grade of primary school during the research

Fig. 2. The perfect teachers as imagined by the students of the 3rd grade of primary school. Source: a poster made by students of a 3rd grade of primary school during the research

Fig. 3. The perfect teacher (on the left) and her student (on the right). Source: a poster made by students of a 3rd grade of primary school during the research

Fig. 4. The perfect teacher as imagined by the students of the 6th grade of primary school. Source: a poster made by students of a 6th grade of primary school during the research

Fig. 5. The perfect teacher as imagined by the students of the 6th grade of primary school. She has been called "Mrs. Elisabeth Teacher", and on the presented book there are some symbols and names of school subjects. Source: a poster made by students of a 6th grade of primary school during the research

Fig. 6. The perfect teacher as imagined by the students of the 3rd grade of gymnasium. The title says: dream teacher, and the traits written in the poster are: thinks outside the box, helpful, funny, calm, nice, intelligent, creative, tolerant, passionate. Source: a poster made by students of a 3rd grade of gymnasium during the research
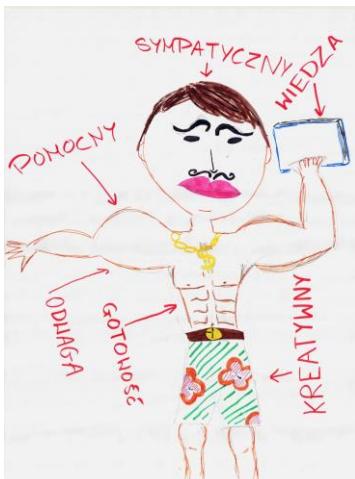
Fig. 7. The perfect teacher as imagined by the students of the 3rd grade of gymnasium. The traits written in the poster are: nice, knowledge, courage, helpful, readiness, creative. Source: a poster made by students

Fig. 8. Perfect teacher as imagined by the students of the 3rd grade of lyceum. Source: a poster made by students of a 3rd grade of lyceum

of a 3rd grade of gymnasium during the research

Fig. 8. Perfect teacher as imagined by the students of the 3rd grade of lyceum. Positive traits (on the right): dialogue, example of professor Nowak, energy, contact with the students, discussions about films, passion, student, dedication, pro-green, tolerance, initiative, role model: negative traits (on the left): lack of empathy, promoting conspiracy theories, using schemes in teaching, no dialogue, "007 zgłoś się" [the title of an old Polish TV series about a police officer], encouraging stereotypes, stereotypical teacher. Source: a poster made by students of a 3rd grade of lyceum

Lack of Credit in Albania; Who is to "Blame" Analyzing the Demand

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Abstract:

The last global crisis had it influence on Albanian economy as well. As the economy is still struggling to recover from the slowdown, a special attention is dedicated to lending which will in turn help investments pick up. Banks in Albania are currently flooding in excess deposits, but meanwhile the lending has hit its lowest score. What is refraining banks from lending? Is it really them to blame or maybe the demand is also part of the problem? Are businesses suffering from lack of funds to finance their activity or are they hesitating to invest and are waiting for better times to come along? The purpose of this study is to look into these questions and find the reasons behind them. This paper is focused on the demand side, analyzing some of the most important indicators influencing the demand for credit like enterprises growth, profits, planned investments, working capital needs, liquidity, etc. In order to get better understanding on the behavior of these variables the enterprises are divided in four groups by size criteria. The analysis is covering data for five-year timeframe, which is corresponding with the start of the economic slowdown. To help getting a prospect of the present and the future perceptions of the economic situation, a survey was conducted on a small sample of enterprises. This study comes to the conclusion that the demand for credit is growing, but what's keeping businesses from applying for it, is mainly because of high interest rates and cost of credit, the study ends with some recommendations toward the solution.

Key Words : *Albania, demand for credit, credit gap, banking system, economic slowdown*

1. Introduction

Albania is part of the global economy and it can't be immune from what is happening around the world. Even though in the country there is the presence of some international banks, during the first wave of the subprime crisis it didn't look like any of them were affected and the economic and financial situation in the country looked pretty solid. During the first couple of years after the crisis, Albania was still enjoying a good economic growth and everybody was thinking that after all the country is not that much integrated into the global market and at least for this kind of scenario was a good thing. But it wasn't so. Right after the start of the Greek debt crises and Italy's recession, the effects didn't take long to reflect on Albanian economy. There is no surprise in this, considering that Italy and Greece are Albania's main trade partners and also host almost 1 million Albanians who live and work in these two countries.

An economic slowdown followed. Diminished remittances coming from abroad, the fall in consumption, because of the "upcoming crisis" perception, all this and else, contributed in a rise of the number of bad and non-performing loans up to 24% of the credit outstanding[1], which put banks in a not very comfortable position. So, logically the bank lending got more rigid and the economy started to reflect loss of liquidity, lower consumption rates and economic slowdown.

Even though the Bank of Albania took some actions trying to stimulate the lending by lowering the base interest rate from 5.25% at the end of 2009 to 2.00% on July 1, 2015[2] and also by making commercial banks to write off some of the bad loans etc., all this had no success in reviving the lending.

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[1] Bank of Albania
[2] Bank of Albania

At this point in time this study is looking into the main indicators influencing financing to find the answer to where the problem may lay. Specifically in this paper we are focusing our attention on the demand side. We analyzed the behavior of indicators like investments, growth, and profit of the enterprises to determine what is influencing the demand also we conducted a survey to catch the perception of the business in their need for credit and the access they have to finance.

2. Research questions, hypothesis and objectives

As stated before with this study we want to find out why there is a lack of credit in the economy and who is to "blame". In this paper we are particularly focusing on the demand side of the problem and our research question to be answered is: Is it the demand for bank credit from businesses low because of the unsecure economic situation or is their access to financing limited?

To answer to these questions we are hypothesizing that:

H1. The businesses are not asking for credit because they feel is not the appropriate time to invest

H2. The businesses are not asking for credit because the cost of financing at the moment is high and/or there is no access to financing

The main objectives we will aim to achieve in the quest of proving our hypothesis will be finding out if businesses are suffering from lack of credit. Is there a good business climate to stimulate their growth? Do they have enough information about different financing options and which are the most used/preferred financing methods?

3. Methodology

The approach of this study will be the descriptive analysis of the behavior of different economic and structural indicators and the interaction between them. We will make use several data sets from secondary sources like The Albanian Institute of Statistics (further on we will recall it only as INSTAT), Doing Business Albania, World Bank, Bank of Albania, etc. and will compare them against our primary source data gathered through a survey[1] in the form of a structured questionnaire which we did among a random sample of the local businesses. Objective indicators of access used include whether the firm has any credit products (e.g. overdrafts, loans or line of credit), loan applications and rejections, percent of finance for working capital and investment, and interest rate. Subjective indicators of access include whether the firm claims access is one of the top three obstacles and whether the firm states "no need for a loan" as a reason for not applying for a loan.

4. Literature Review

In this study we are looking at a possible financing gap to be the reason explaining why there is a lack of credit in the economy. Even though there is no agreed definition of the term "financial gap", according to OECD, it is "used to mean that a sizeable share of economically significant SMEs cannot obtain financing from the banks, capital markets or other suppliers of finance" (2006: 16). The literature suggests that the extent of financing gap can only be determined by comparing the supply of financing to what is demanded (National Credit Regulator, 2011). Focusing on the demand side for instance, we find different authors to argue that the availability to finance can be influenced by both internal and external factors Beck (2006). When looking at the demand side of credit we will notice that SME are more vulnerable to accessing credit during or after crisis because as Falkena et al. are pointing out in their study "SMEs tend to seek finance for relatively small amounts. The cost involved in the credit assessment and monitoring of a loan or investment make it disproportionately more expensive to provide funds to an SME" (2004). Common knowledge is that know during economic crisis the agency problems, adverse selection and asymmetric information grow to be more significant which makes the suppliers of finance to choose to offer credit at higher interest rates and that can leave many potential borrowers without access to credit. Even though this problems are not specifically connected to SMEs a study of OECD, concludes that "their impact is bigger for

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[1] The survey was prepared based on the model of the Survey on the Access to Finance of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SAFE) established in 2008 from the European Commission and the European Central Bank

SMEs than for larger companies "(2006). Other studies suggest that credit sources tend to dry up more rapidly for small firms than for large companies during economic downturns (ECB, 2013a).

The literature suggests that the nature of funding required by an SME depends on its development phase. Businesses in the start-up phase generally rely on personal savings, friends and families, while those businesses which are stable rely on bank loans for financing (Felkana et. Al, 2001). The most influencing factors on a company financial behavior are firm size and age, ownership type and legal form, geographical location, industry sector and asset structure or the ability to provide collateral (Abdulsaleh, 2013). Ou & Haynes, argue that equity financing is preferred mode over debt for financing new SMEs (2006), but according to Berger and Udell (1998) "issuing additional equity to satisfy the firm's financial needs would lead to a dilution in ownership and control" so they suggest that the owner-managers may prefer debt rather than equity financing. Further on we find that one of the most popular sources of external financing for SMEs is trade credit. According to Berger & Udell trade credit was estimated for almost one-third of the total debt of SMEs in US in 1998 (2006). Garcia-Teruel & Martinez-Solano (2010) define trade credit as "a delay in the payment for goods or services after they have been delivered or provided as a result of an agreement between the supplier and the firm". Emphasizing the role of trade credit in developing countries, Abdulsaleh (2013) states that "the role of trade credit as a source of raising financing for SMEs is even more important in countries with less developed banking and financial systems where asymmetric information problems are more pronounced". Still to many empirical and theoretical studies are pointing that usually in developing economies bank credit is the most important source of external financing. Just to mention a few studies that comes to this conclusion for example: according to OECD "the commercial banking sector is the main source of external finance for SMEs" (2006), also to the conclusion that banks are the main external capital provider for SMEs sector in both developed and developing countries, come Ono & Uesugi, (2009) etc. A very interesting conclusion we find from Keasey and McGuinness (1990) who argued that in spite of the fact that bank financing is more expensive in comparison to other sources of finance, it generates a higher rate of return for SMEs. They further conclude that bank finance can help SMEs accomplish better performance levels than other financing sources can do, because SMEs employ the funds more efficiently when they are monitored by, and answerable to banks.

5. Analysis

We begin by looking at the structure of the market and identify the main groups of actors in the economy to determine their importance and influence. As the literature suggested we find that in practice it is true that there is no unified unit for classifying enterprises. Chart 1, shows them grouped by employee number which is a pretty common division only that there is no universal standard for what the intervals should be, so the interval number is not always the same. Using the classification used by INSTAT, we are getting 4 groups defined by the intervals: 1-4 employed, 5-9 employed, 10-49 employed, 50+ employed, but on other statistical data we used from the same source, intervals were slightly different. We are further on calling these groups respectively Micro, Small, Medium and Big and we will sometimes summarize the first 3 groups like SMEs.

By this classification we can notice that the number of micro enterprises in Albania is the dominant one with a 90% share. If we want to add up the small and medium-enterprises categories we will end up with almost 99% of the market been made up from SME. This results suggest that Albanian enterprises structure is no different than the EU structure pattern where Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs) accounting for more than 99% of all business and two-third of employment (EC - 2013 SMEs Access to Finance Survey).

Active enterprises grouped by number of employees
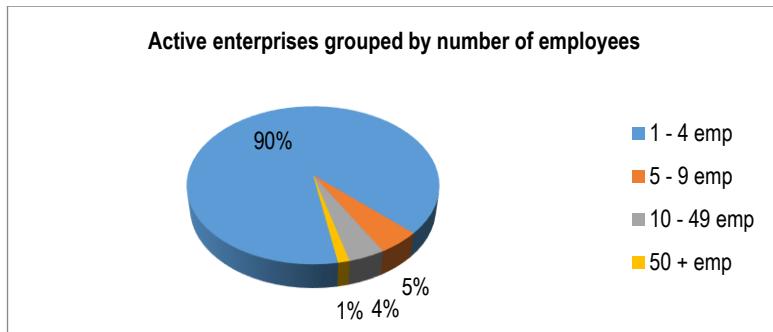
Chart 1.Source: INSTAT - Business Register 2014, chart build by authors

But as the literature suggests, groups divided only by the number of employed people by itself doesn't tell much, so for getting a better understanding of the weight which each category has on the economy, we looked for more indicators associating this groups. Table 2[1] shows us that micro-enterprises and the big-enterprises employ almost the same number of workers respectively 35% and 31 %. But again if we have to account for SMEs total weight, they employ almost 70% of the working force. If we take a look at the turnover by groups we will see that bigger here is better. And is getting more obvious when it comes to investments where the group of the big-enterprises (accounting for just about 1 % of the total number of enterprises), is doing 54% of the total investments for 2013 and the rest of it is almost equally distributed to the rest of the groups.

Another indicator at which we looked at was the trend of growth of active enterprises during the last five-years.

Active, new and gone enterprises

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
all active	103038	109039	106837	111083	112537
new created	16469	12905	12828	12131	17377
dead		-6904	-15030	-7885	-15923
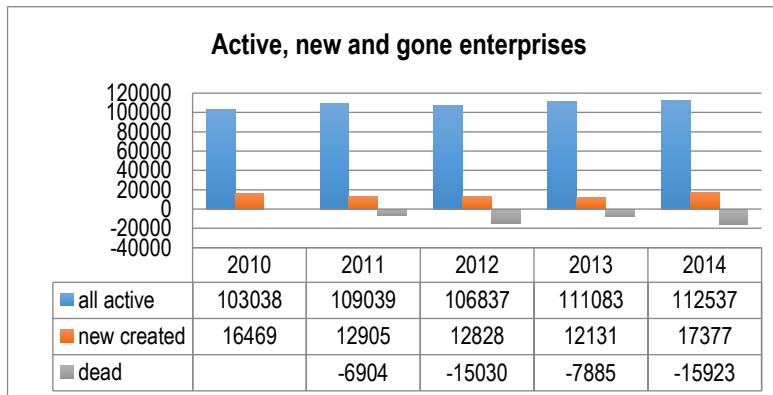
Chart 2.Source: INSTAT - Business Register 2014, chart build by authors

As we can see from the Chart 2, the overall number of active enterprises during the last years is having some fluctuations but still holding a growth trend. The number of the new enterprises apparently is showing a crisis perception behavior with a fall of the number of new enterprises during 2011, 2012, 2013 to start rising on 2014. On the other hand the number of enterprises going out of business was high during this period, making the real growth very small and even negative in 2012[2].

Even though the growth in the number of enterprises during these years is slow, the investments didn't look to surfer too much and are not reflecting the overall economic slowdown. As we can see on the chart below the growth after 2011 is looking stable.

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[1]Table 2, in the appendix
[2] Chart 4, in the appendix

Total investments made from all active enterprises in mil. Lek
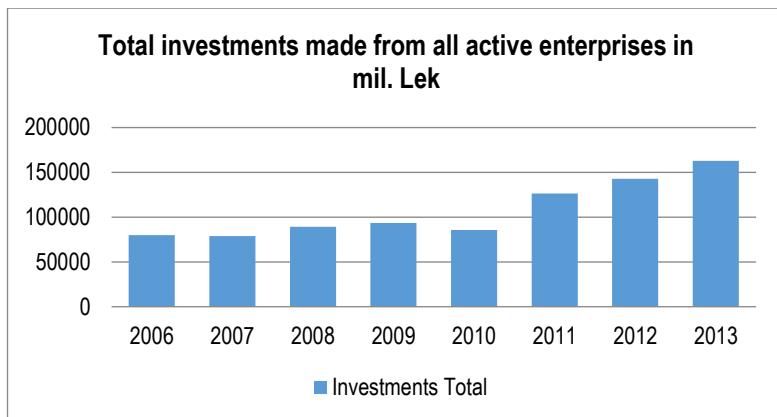
Chart 3.Source: INSTAT - Business Register 2014, chart build by authors

Considering the fact that the bank lending has shrunk, we have to look at other indicators to find out what are the sources used for financing these investments. To do so we analyzed the net profit/loss indicator trend for all enterprises during the same period. Chart 5 shows that the profits got smaller after 2010. This trend complies with the economic slowdown pattern. What is noticed next in Chart 6[1] where we compare side by side the two indicators, is that after 2011 the investments got bigger than the net profit, by it we can conclude that the growth in the investments cannot be explained by internal financing.

Active enterprises net profit for the period in Mil. Lek
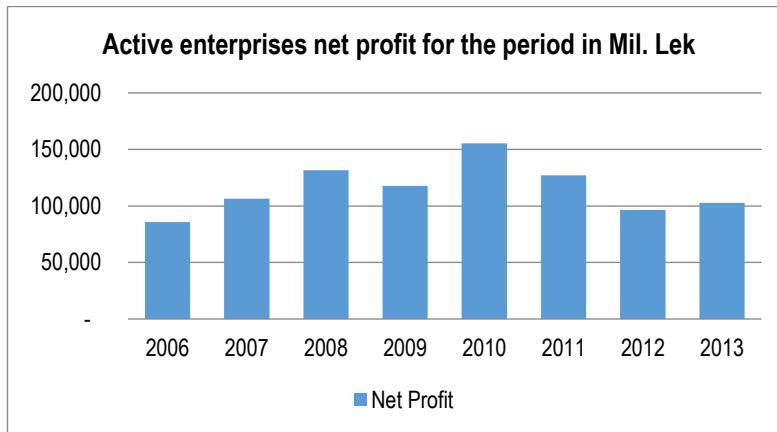
Chart 5.Source: INSTAT – Statistical databases, chart build by authors

If we focus our analysis on every group separately the patterns we find are telling different stories for each group[2]. Starting with the first group of the micro-enterprises we notice that the investments with this group are generally low and they are always lower than the generated net profit, suggesting that on this category investments are financed internally by retained profits. Moving to the next group, the small-enterprises mostly tend to invest all generated profits and after 2012 they are investing more than they are earning suggesting that they are using external financing. Further on the medium-sized enterprises investments pattern is more like the micro-sized on, it looks like they invest more moderately relaying on internal financing. One exception is noticed during 2012 where the investments are more than double the net profits of that same year, but by this we cannot conclude with certainty that their financing behavior changed because most of the investments are planed ahead and the ratio of profit vs investments of the previous couple of years gives them enough funds from retained profits to finance their investments internally. The last group, the big-enterprises after 2011 shows a changing

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[1] See Chart 6 in the appendix
[2] See Chart 9 in the appendix

pattern where investments are growing significantly, but profits are the lowest of the analyzed period. This may suggest that they are investing in long term projects on which the return on investment is delayed, but for sure we can say that they are using external financing.

Survey results analysis[1]

In explain the sources of external financing used for supporting investments, working capital and liquidity we went looking into the data's gathered from our survey. The results will be interpreted for every group as follows:

The first group, micro-enterprises, when asked about the importance of financing for their businesses in a scale 1 to 10 where 1 is low importance and 10 is high importance, they responded to an average of 5.8. 69% responded that profit is lower and 29 % said that it hasn't change, meanwhile 31% stated that their investments had grown, 30% had fallen, 39% answered that investments hasn't change. When asked about what kind of financing is used, some 50 % of them responded internal financing mainly from retained profits. None of them has been using bank overdraft or line of credit during the last year. Some 12 % are using bank credit, 19% has used bank credit before but not during the last year and 69% of them have never used a bank loan as a form of credit for their business needs. More than 50% are using trade credit and more than 10% have used it before. Also popular with this category is crediting though loans from family and friends with about 40%, leasing accounts for 20% for this year and around 20 % used in the past. There is also a growth by almost 31% for external crediting for supporting planned investments and 38% for working capital needs. Bank credit is the most preferred form of credit among this group with 80 %, but only 12% applied for a loan this year, 50% didn't apply because they didn't need one and 38% didn't apply because of other reasons, where the most important one for 75% of the cases is high interest rates and cost of the loan and only 12 % think they don't meet the collateral or other forms of guaranties.

The second group, small-enterprises are valuing the importance of financing for their business with only a score of 3 out of 10. While 80% of them is getting lower profits, 20% are claiming higher profits, this may be due to many factors (the most probable one may be the industry related) but considering our low population sample we are not going to dive into this as it is out of the focus of this paper. 60% of this group is using internal financing to support their activity and also bank overdraft or line of credit is used by 40% of them. Bank credit even though has been used in the past, currently is not used. Even though this group prefers bank credit 40% better than other means of financing, the main reason for not applying for 60% of them is high interest rates and cost of the loan. Future needs for crediting for this group are growing as data shows that 40% of them will need credit to finance their investments projects, 20% for financing working capital and 40% for cash flows availability.

The third group, medium-sized enterprises is giving an average score of 5 out of 10 to the importance of financing their activity. Approximately 90% of them are having a drop on profits and 100% of them have drop on investments. They financed their businesses primary through bank overdrafts or line of credit as well by bank loans, trade credit and 40% of them also by leasing. All this gives imprison that they are going through hard times. This is more obvious when we look into their future growing needs for working capital financing for 50% of them and for cash flow financing for also 50% of them. It results that they applied for bank overdraft or line of credit, bank credit, trade credit but at some cases they got rejected or got amounts lower than 75% of what they asked. For almost all of them bank credit is the most preferred financing mean, but 50% of them think that interest rates and costs of loan are too high.

The last group, Big-enterprises gives an importance of 4.5 out of 10 to financing. They are claiming that their profits didn't change. Investments didn't change for 50 % of them and went down for the other 50%. In this group, 50% are using internal financing, currently are not using bank overdraft, line of credit or bank loans, but they have in the past. 50% of them predict growth on their need for external financing for investments projects and also for cash flow needs. They didn't apply for a loan during the last year because they consider that interest rates and costs of loan are high.

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[1] Considering the small sample used on this survey, the results we are presenting are being considered more like a perception of the overall behavior of the enterprises rather than statistically significant argument

6.   Conclusions and recommendations

At the end of our analysis of some of the most important indicators influencing the demand for credit in Albania, it results that beside a drop in profits lately there is a growing trend for investments especially for the group of small and Big-enterprises. This was consistent within the data provided though secondary and primary sources, leading us to reject our Hypothesis 1 which stated that there is no demand for credit because of low investments rate. Additionally, we noticed also a growing demand for credit for financing working capitals and liquidity needs. Even though between groups of enterprises the purposes, amounts and type of crediting was different, they all had the same most common reasons for not applying for a bank loan and that was high interest rates and costs of loan. This is proving that our Hypothesis 2 is true, that the demand for credit is low because of high cost of credit and high interest rates.

Also, our study found out that there is not enough information, especially for the micro-enterprises about different kind of crediting available, more specifically about the bank overdraft, line of credit, factoring etc. Bank credit is by far the most preferred way of external financing among all groups, but especially for SMEs. The one group who suffered the most the lack of credit is the small-enterprises. This group is showing struggle to grow and in this they have bigger needs for financing, which as it shows are not served and by these they are the most endangered category risking failure the most. Looking at the absence of equity financing option we conclude that even the big enterprise in Albania are left with only one option to finance their needs and that's through bank credit.

The government has to recognize that the SMEs sector faces constrained access to external financing which may negatively affect its crucial role in achieving national development goals. So we suggest that governmental programs and initiatives like credit guarantee loans, subsidized fees will be typical examples to ensure that SMEs have easier access to financing. Also the perception of the banks toward SMEs have to change and they have to start looking at these enterprises like attractive line of business and have to develop effective monitoring systems like credit score models etc. for overcoming the information asymmetry problem. This recommendation goes especially to most of the smaller banks in the country which as argued on a previous study by Musta & Shehu (2015), considering their small marked share, in order to survive, have to look more into specializing on servicing this business categories. Also as literature suggests it's a common sense for banks to realize that many future holders of conventional accounts start as micro-enterprises, greater attention to this market segment will pay off in the longer run.

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 http://www.INSTAT.gov.al/en/figures/statistical-databases.aspx

7.   Appendix

Tab. 2 Ndërmarrjet, të punësuarit, shitjet neto, investimet sipas madhësisë së ndërmarrjes, 2013
Enterprises, employed, turnover, investments by size class of enterprise, 2013

Madhësia e ndërmarrjes	Ndërmarrjet Enterprises		Të punësuarit Employed		Shitjet neto Turnover		Investimet Investments		Size class of enterprise
	nr. / no.	%	nr. / no.	%	mln Lekë/ mlln ALL	%	mln Lekë/ mlln ALL	%	
Gjithsej	84.790	100	344.528	100	1.637.015	100	162.899	100	Total
1-4 të punësuar	75.823	89	118.988	35	259.485	16	25.773	16	1-4 employed
5-19 të punësuar	6.957	8	58.619	17	393.137	24	28.170	17	5-19 employed
20-79 të punësuar	1.561	2	58.427	17	352.603	21	21.165	13	20-79 employed
80+ të punësuar	449	1	108.494	31	631.790	39	87.791	54	80+ employed

Source: INSTAT, (2014). Results Of Structural Survey Of Economic Enterprises

Enterprises Real Growth Rate (birth- death rate)
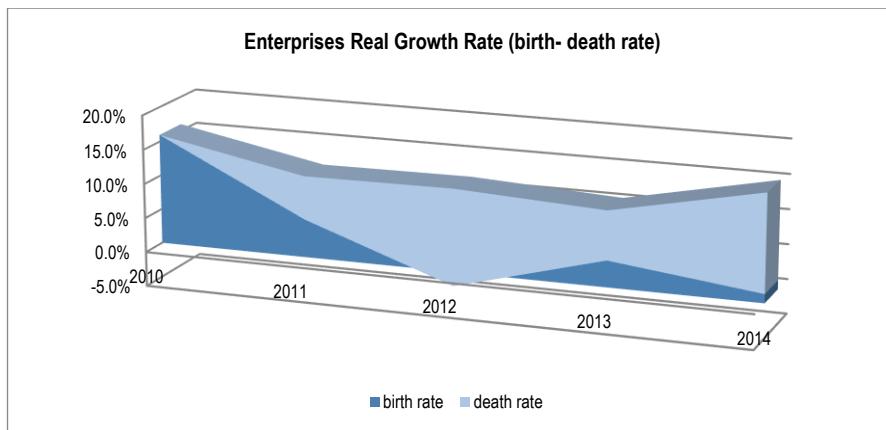
Chart 4 .Source: INSTAT - Business Register 2014, calculations and chart build by authors

Active Enterprises - investmensts vs net profit in Mil. ALL
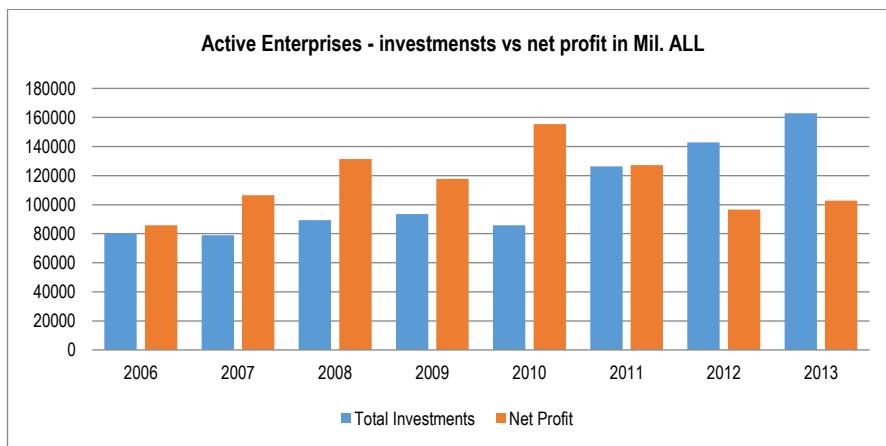
Chart 6.Source: INSTAT – Statistical databases, chart build by authors

Active enterprises - Investments as done by groups
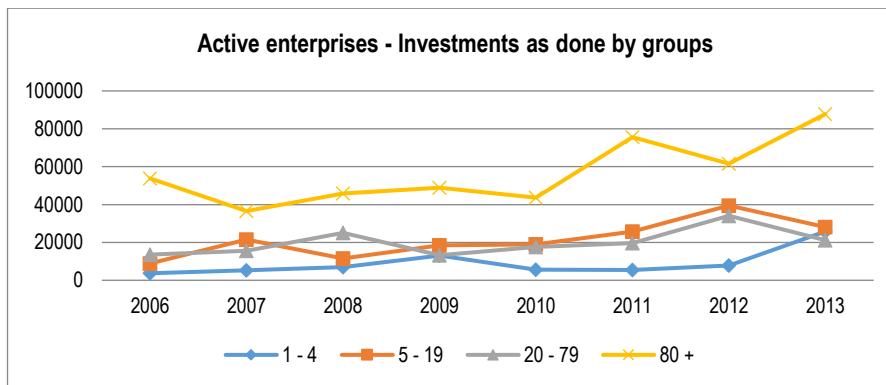
Chart 7.Source: INSTAT - Business Register 2014, chart build by authors

Active Enterprises - Net Profit by groups
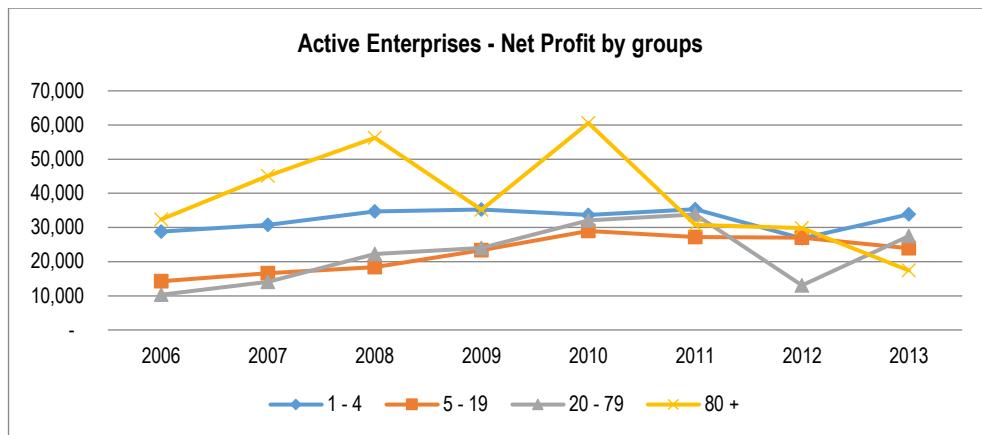
Chart 8.Source: INSTAT – Statistical databases, chart build by authors

Micro - Enterprises investmenst vs net profit

Small - Enterprises investmenst vs net profit

Medium - Enterprises investmenst vs net profit

Big - Enterprises investmenst vs net profit
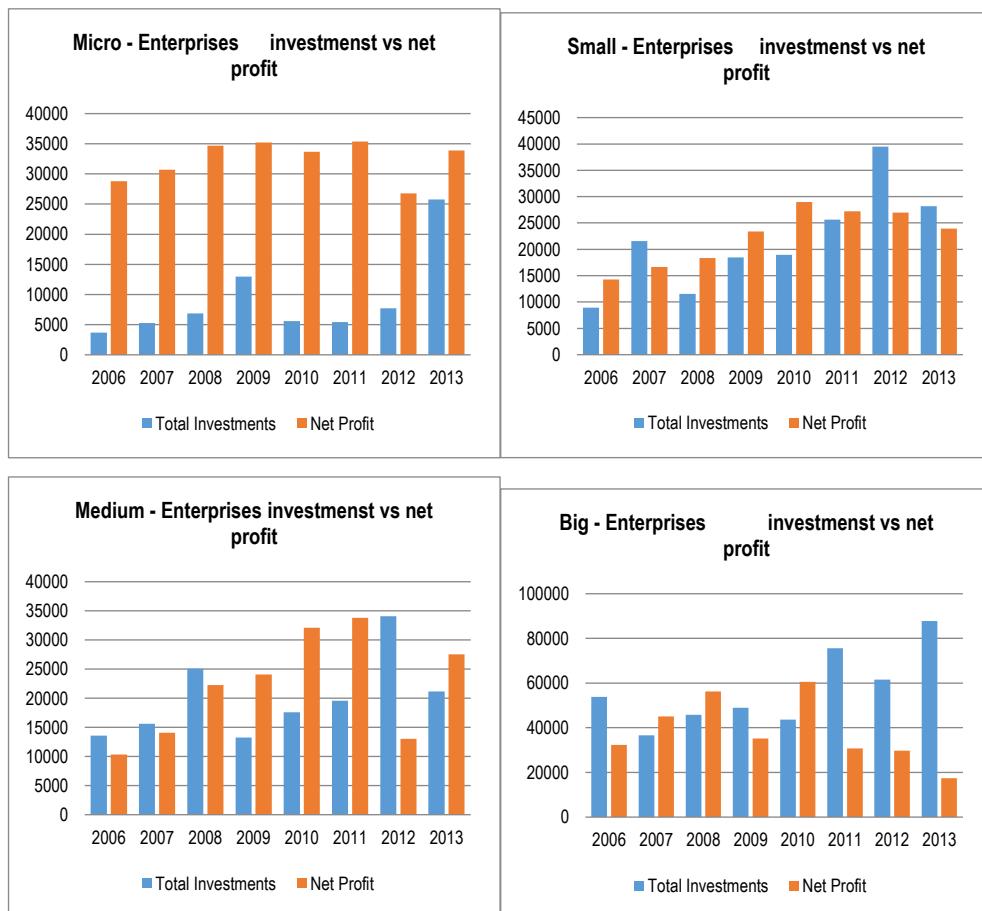
Chart 9. Source: INSTAT – Statistical databases, chart build by authors

Analysis of Interest Rate Impact on the Profitability Level of the Banking System in Albania during the Period 2005 -2014.

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Abstract

This study is an analysis of the movement and impact of interest rates on the profitability level of the banking system in Albania. This analysis covers a 10-year timeframe (is organized in three time segments - before, during and after the financial crisis), taking into consideration the critical point of the years 2008-2009 considered as the "peak" of the global financial crisis. Such separation is made in order to see the possible changes of each period of time and to identify the impact differences of this factor in each period of study. This study is based on the hypothesis that the decrease of the interest rate has positively affected the income increase from interest as a result of the impact of two factors, negative levels of Gaps and an increased level of spread toward the average assets. As a matter of fact, it has neutralized on a certain level the other risks such as that of the loan which has dominated over the other risks. This paper is based on an empirical study with secondary quantitative and qualitative data. This study provides a considerable contribution in the framework of identification of factors affecting the profitability of the banking system in Albania, namely in the context of interest rate; In addition, this study aims at highlighting the importance of open Gaps minimization for the efficient profitability increase of the financial system.

Key words: *Albanian banking system, profitability, interest rate risk, Gaps, spreads, movement, global financial crisis.*

1-Introduction

In nowadays business impact plays a critical role. Almost in every business decision it is required to the managers and executives to balance impact with return. The effective management of business impact is essential to the success of the company. In the banking system the impact management takes a special importance. Some of the main impacts that directly affect the profitability of commercial banks are:

Interest rate impact,

Credit impact,

Operational impact,

Exchange rate impact.

The aims and objectives of the study:

1-   The analysis of interest rate impact in relation to the profitability of commercial banks in Albania during the period 2005-2014.

2-   The compilation of a report that shows the current situation of the profitability of commercial banks in Albania in connection with interest rate impact.

Hypotheses of the work:

The interest rate impact is one of the main factors affecting the profitability of commercial banks in Albania during the period 2005-2014.

Research question:

1.   How has the interest rate impact affected on the financial result of the commercial banks in the period 2005-2014?

2.   Did the commercial banks Albanian keep the reprising gaps at critical levels?

Working methodology:

Qualitative approach (qualitative data), quantitative approaches (quantitative data).

2-The interest rates and their impact

The interest rates are among the most monitored indicators in an economy because of the self importance that they have. Basically, the interest rates represent the cost of borrowing, so the price of credit and as such they affect both the personal, family and business everyday decision making as well as the economic development of the country. When the real interest rates are low in an economy are encouraged the investments and borrowings while when the real interest rates are high we have a contraction of the credit's delivery as funds become more costly. The impact arising from changing interest rates called differently interest rate impact represents the impact that the interest rate changes cause additional costs for the banking sector and affect negatively the net incomes from interest and the net value of bank capital. In the balance of commercial banks more than 50% of the total income derived from interest income and this makes banks more exposed to the interest rate impact and therefore the ALM managers pay particular attention that in order this impact does not affect the performance of banking activity. The interest rate impact is increased in recent years as a consequence of the international financial crisis and with the aim of identifying and reducing this impact in a timely manner by banks and branches of foreign banks that operate in Albania, the Bank of Albania in April 2013 has issued an instruction "On the administration of the interest rate impact in the bank's book" in which are determined the basic requirements and regulations for the management of interest rate impact in the bank's book, the method of calculation of the exposure towards the interest rate impact as well as reporting to the Bank of Albania.

2.1- Sources and effects of interest rate impact.

The interest rate impact may derive from various factors and among the most important are: reprising impact, yield curve impact, basic impact and options' impact. Reprising impact is one of the impacts that commercial banks face more often. This impact arises from the difference in maturity between assets and liabilities with fixed interest rates and from the reprising of bank assets and liabilities with changeable interest rates and makes that an interest rate change brings unequal changes between the assets and liabilities and net income from interest by exposing the bank to interest rate impact. The discrepancy between the maturities of the portfolio of a bank may refer it to the yield curve impact. This impact arises when unexpected changes to the shape and inclination of the yield curve affect negatively the bank incomes or the market value of banking capital. The basic impact arises when the interest rates imposed on loans and the interest rates placed on deposits for the same maturities are not assigned to such levels that the bank can realize profits and a change of interest rate can bring it a significant spread between incomes and expenses for interest resulting in financial losses. The options' impact arises when the bank owns sensitive options toward the interest rate, these options may be related to securities or not. The change of the interest rates of these options exposes the net income toward the interest rate impact bringing losses to the bank. As also mentioned above, the interest rate fluctuation affects the net income from interest and the economic value of the bank. These two indicators serve to the bank for the assessment of exposure to interest rate impact. The income analysis considers the impact of interest rates change on the realized incomes. This analysis is used by almost all banks because incomes of the bank have a great importance for the bank, the reduction of incomes or the bank losses could threaten the financial stability of the bank and the capital value. The income analysis is divided into two parts, the first part analyzes the relationship of net income from interest to total income and directly sees the connection between the interest rate changes and the income from them and the second part analyzes the relationship between the incomes generated by other activities to the total income as the interest rates change also affects to the latter, although not directly. The analysis of the economic value of the bank serves mostly to the shareholders and managers of the bank to assess the

net capital value since the economic value takes into account the potential impact of interest rates change on the present value of cash flow that in future shows a clearer picture of the impact of the interest rate change on a long-term period.

2.2- The management models of interest rate impact.

The rapid development of financial institutions has meant that banks are more exposed to interest rate impact and to protect against its they use various techniques and statistical models. Below will be treated the *reprising model*, which is based on the gap between sensitive assets and liabilities, *maturity model* which is based on the maturity gap and *the duration model* which is based on the duration gap. These models show the effect of interest rate change to the market value of the bank's assets and liabilities and to net income from interest.

3- Econometric model on net margin of the interest rates

3.1- Net interest margin

Net interest margin is the most appropriate indicator of efficiency and suitability assessment of the activity of a bank or a banking system in general. This indicator measures the efficiency of the management of bank assets that generate income for the bank and serves as the main criterion in the optimization of banking assets' structure. The net interest margin (NIM) is calculated as the ratio between net income from interest and average total assets or between net income from interest and income generating assets.

This indicator in the banking system has had oscillations, in 2005 was its lower level, up to its maximal increase its 2007, a year when had not yet begun to feel the effects of the economic crisis. 2007 was the boom of the loan portfolio increase by about 78%, which influenced the increase in net interest margin. In 2008 it began the contraction of new credit/loan issues, which led to the reduction of the margin until 2013. Maintaining high levels of spread by the side of the Albanian commercial banks neutralized somewhat the losses from problematic loans.

Chart No.1 Net interest margin
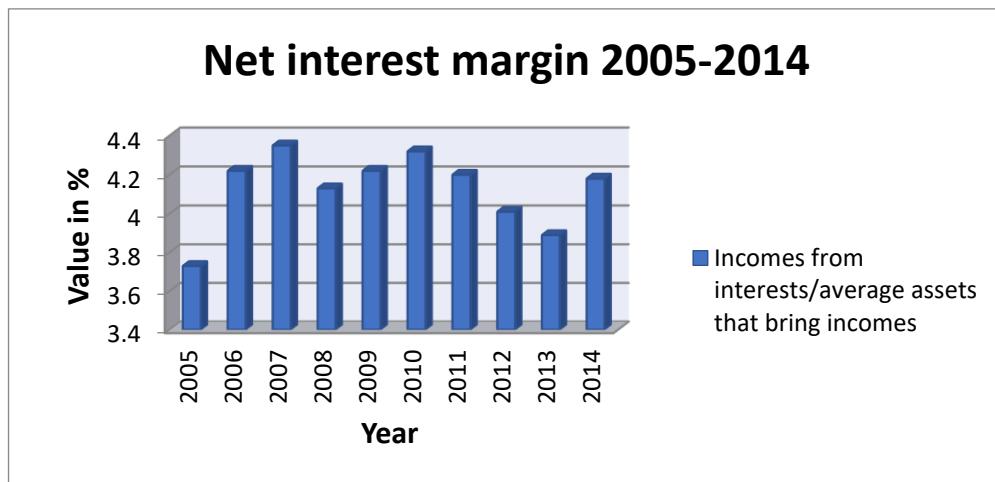
Source: Bank of Albania

Meantime, keeping the negative gaps by the side of banks as all loans were given with variable interest rate annually, helped to reduce the margin decline, in terms of interest rates declining in unison with the policy followed by the Central

Bank European. In 2014 began the expansion of the loan portfolio with new loans, the decline of problematic loans' indicator toward / total loans, which led to increase of net interest margin.

Chart No.2 The level of gaps according to the intervals of time
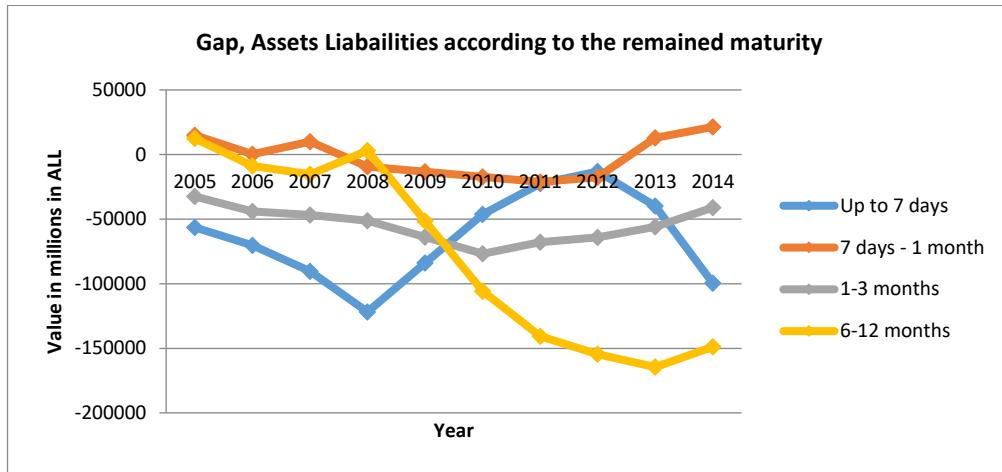
Source: Bank of Albania

MNI fluctuation can come from the change of net income from interest as well as from the level of assets that generate incomes. High levels of net margins may not always show high levels of efficiency but also the opposite, instead that the bank manages the bank impacts it is "protected" by maintaining high interest rates on loans and low interest rates on deposits thus increasing the net incomes from interest. On the other hand, even its reduction doesn't shows efficiency, if we take into account the accounting analysis of net interest margin the reduction of net interest margin may arise from the tax rate reduction or by the increase of credit/loan default. MNI reduction in the first case can bring increased efficiency of the bank or banking system while in the second case, the increase of problematic loans' number can lead to the reduction of the bank's profits. Identification, monitoring and evaluation of the factors that affect the level of net interest margin is very important for policy makers in order to orient their policies for individual banks or the banking system toward its good-functioning and stability.

3.2- The determinants of net interest margin

There are two methods to measure the net interest margin, the method ex-ante and the ex-post one. Ex-ante method measures the net interest margin before the realization of interest income while ex-post methods are realized as interest income. According to ex-ante method the net interest margin is calculated as the difference between interest rates on loans and deposits specified in the initial contract signed by the bank and customers. These rates can be viewed by the public and are easily comparable between banks. Ex-post method calculates the net interest margin as the difference of incomes and expenses interest that the bank has realized during the study therefore after their realization. The difference between these two methods of measuring the MNI is related to the level of problematic loans. Ex-ante method often produces incorrect results when the source of the applied data can be different, while the ex-post method has several disadvantages because according to Demirguc-Kunt and Huizinga (1998) the incomes from interests and from the reserves created for problematic loans materialize in different time periods.

From the several empirical studies on net interest margin, the most used methods is the second one, ex-post, since its results are more accurate. According to Demirguc-Kunt (1999), the ex-post method is more inclusive and useful because it takes into account that the banks with higher interest rates and with a high level of loans are potentially more at risk

toward the banking impacts. In the study we have reviewed the ex-post method for the measurement of net interest margin, based on data from the financial statements of commercial banks in Albania for the period 2005-2014.

The analysis of factors affecting the level of net interest margin at a commercial bank or banking system is treated according to two methods. The first method is a method of accounting analysis of the net interest margin, while the second method is based on the theoretical treatment of factors affecting MNI which are then applied in practice through econometric analysis. Both of these methods will be treated below.

3.2.1- Theoretical analysis of factors affecting the net interest margin

The pioneer of theoretical analysis of factors affecting the net interest margin is the study of Ho and Saunders (1981) and it was named model of mediation. According to this model, banks are considered as impact-averse agents that collect deposits and give loans, the latter arrive in the bank randomly and where the probability of their arrival depends on the margins that the banks charge and from the elasticity of the demand for loans and of the offer for deposits. The fact that the arrival of deposits and loans is completely random and not in synchrony, exposes the banks toward the interest rate impact. For example, in the case when the bank accepts a deposit but on the other hand there is no demand for a loan, then these funds will be invested in the money market. This case exposes the bank toward the reinvestment impact, the impact that the income from the funds to be reinvested will reduce more than the cost of funds. In case the bank accepts a request for a loan but this loan is financed from the money market and not from the deposits, the bank will be exposed toward refinancing rate impact and credit default impact. The refinancing impact brings that the cost of re-borrowed funds will be higher than the income generated from the investments in assets. To reduce these impacts, in exchange, the banks seek higher margin. Ho and Saunders (1981) in their work argue that banks, in order to increase the shareholder returns impose additional margin (mark-up) for loans and reduced margins (markdown) for deposits in order to minimize the impact of excess (balance) in the demand for deposits or in the offer for credit/loan. According to Ho and Saunders (1981) these established margins, theoretically will depend on four factors: the attitude of the banks towards impact, the market structure where banking institutions are operating, the average size of transactions that the banks realize and the interest rate fluctuation. According to them, even if the banks operate in a market with high competition market, the interest margin will be positive again because it cannot disappear because the bank transactions are always accompanied by insecurity and this margin that emerged from insecurity of the performed transactions is called "pure margin interest" and is supposed to be universal for all banks. The model of Ho and Saunders (1981) uses a two-stage procedure for econometric evaluation of the relative impact of specific micro and macro factors to the interest rate margin. The first stage coincides with the determination of the size of "clean margins" by presenting the effect of explanatory variables that are not explicitly stated in the theoretical model and the second phase coincides with the analysis of the relationship between "pure margins" and the variables presented in theoretical model. According to Ho and Saunders, banks are seen as mediators that accept deposits and give loans passively, so the prices of loans and deposits (P_L dhe P_D) are placed by banks while their quantity is placed exogenously. So

$P_L = p - b$ and $P_D = p + a$

Where p – indicates the "real" price of the loan or deposit according to the bank, or indicates a margin for the provision of liquidity service speed while b indicates the impact premium for the compensation of the impact arising from the incompatibility of deposits and loans. Prices and interest rates of loans and deposits are inversely related between them, so we can say that: : $r_D = r - a$ and $r_L = r + b$ where, r_D and r_L are the interest rates of loans and deposits set by the bank while r is the interest rate in the money market. Thus, the interest margin is calculated as follows:

$s = r_L - r_D = a + b$

According to the authors, after a series of transformations, the basic equation is expressed as follows:

$s = r_L - r_D = \alpha/\beta + \frac{1}{2} \times R \, \sigma_I^2 \, Q$

Where, α / β indicates the neutral spread of impact, in the conditions of a competitive market α and β express respectively the intersection with the vertical axis and the inclination of the symmetric function of the arrival of deposits and loans. R indicates the coefficient behavior toward impact, σ_I^2 indicates the variance of fluctuations in interest rates for deposits and loans and Q indicates the size of the performed banking transactions.

During subsequent years, several authors used the model of Ho and Saunders (1981), taking as the explanatory variables of net interest margin, besides the theoretical model variables, other variables too. Allen (1988) took into account the provision (offering) of various types of deposits and loans from banks and showed in his study that "pure interest margin" can be reduced as a result of the diversification of products and services offered by banks. McShane and Sharpe (1985) replaced the fluctuation of interest rates on deposits and loans, as in Ho and Saunders, with the fluctuation of market interest rates. Carbo and Rodriguez (2007) developed the model of Ho and Saunders including both traditional and non-traditional activities of the banks aiming the study of the effect of specialization in the banking spread by using the model of the European banking system. Maudos and Fernandez de Guevara (2004) extended the model of Ho and Saunders studying explicitly the bank's operating expenses.

The empirical studies performed on the net interest margin are numerous, such as those on certain countries or groups of countries as well as for individual banks or for the banking system as a whole. The two-stage mediation model that was used by Ho and Saunders (1981) and later by Saunders and Schumacher (2000), requires long time series of explanatory variables of "pure interest margin", but many authors (Demirguc-Kunt and Huizing 1998; Moore and Craugwell 2000; Brock and Rojas-Suarez 2000; Gelos 2006) have also studied the one-stage model which can be realized even with shorter time series and by placing additional variables such as macroeconomic conditions, taxation, regulations on insurance deposits and the structure of financial system to see their impact on the interest margin. The results obtained from numerous studies of MNI factors are different and in some cases contradictory. Some of the determining factors of net interest margin according to econometric analysis are: the operating costs, the quality management, the credit impact, the liquidity impact, the interest rate impact, the size of banks, the level of capitalization, the non-interest incomes.

4- Specification of econometric model

The mediation model of Ho and Saunders (1981), later used by Saunders and Schumacher (2000), Estrada et al (2006) and some other authors, assesses the factors which affect the interest margin by following two stages and also It requires long time series. While other authors as Angbazo (1997) and Maudos of Fernandez de Guevara (2004) have applied the one-stage model for determining the factors that affect the net interest margin. Irini Kalluci model (2010) on which my study is based, assesses the determinants of net interest margin by one-stage model applied by Maudos of Fernandez de Guevara (2004) and unlike the latter, the one which identifies the determinants of net interest margin for the 5 countries of the European Union, the model in which my study is based, assesses the factors affecting the net interest margin only for the Albanian banking system for the period 2002-2007 through the method of Panel Data for individual banks as well as model of Fernandez Maudos de Guevara. The model that we'll examine, analyzes the factors affecting only the net interest margin for the Albanian banking system for the period January 2005 - December 2014 for the Albanian banking system. Regarding the dependent variable in our work, unlike Maudos and Fernandez de Guevara (2004) study, in our study as well as in the study of Irini Kalluci (2010), the net interest margin is calculated as the ratio between the net incomes from interests with the assets that generate incomes. The model used in the case of the Albanian banking system differs from the model used by Maudos of Fernandez de Guevara (2004) as the small number of observations does not allow the use of a large number of variables. Differently from the study of Maudos and Fernandez de Guevara (2004), the study of Irini Kalluci (2010) does not include the variable equation that expresses the degree of interaction between credit impact and market impact since they are specifically included in the model and variable that expresses the average size of transactions measured by the volume of loans granted. To measure the market power of banks in the study of Maudos of Fernandez de Guevara (2004) is used the Lerner index and that of Herfindahl-Hirschman while in the case of Albania is used only the latter for reasons of lack of data in the calculation of Lerner index. The market impact is measured by the authors Maudos of Fernandez de Guevara (2004) with the fluctuation of interest rates of the interbank market or of the public debt, while in the case of Albania the market impact is measured as the standard deviation of interest rates on treasury bills, euribor and libor. According to the model in which I am based, for the assessment of the factors that affect the net interest margin will be used eight variables, based on a theoretical model as well as numerous empirical studies. These variables are the operating costs, the attitude towards impact, credit impact, which management, opportunity costs of obligatory reserves, non-interest incomes, index of concentration and market impact.

Operating Expenses - This variable is calculated as the ratio between the bank operating expenses and total assets and it's expected that the relationship between the net interest margin and operating expenses be positive. The reason why this indicator is included in the equation is to see if the banks, for high operational cost, transferring the latter to customers by placing higher interest margins or not.

Attitude towards impact - This variable is measured by the ratio between the share capital and total assets and it's expected that its impact on net interest margin be positive as the well-capitalized banks are inclined to establish high margins to protect their capital but is the important to identify the sources of well-capitalized banks. A high level of capitalization of banks not always comes as a result of increasing the share capital of the bank to be more protected from the impacts but it can also come as a result of the regulatory and supervisory requirements by the central bank.

Credit Impact - This variable is measured by the ratio between the problematic loans and the total loans granted and it is expect that this indicator will have a positive impact on net interest margin, the greater this impact will be the greater will be the margin placed on interest rates of loans and new deposits. So in a certain way, the pledge of problematic loans will affect new borrowers.

Quality of management - This variable is measured by the ratio between the operating expenses and its gross income. With quality management we'll mean the identification of low impact assets and high return and of low cost liabilities. The relationship between net interest margin and the quality of management is expected to be negative, the higher will be the ratio of the activity expenses with the gross income, so the management quality will be lower, consequently the lower will be the net interest margin.

Opportunity cost of obligatory reserves - This variable in the case of Albania is calculated as the ratio of obligatory reserves in the central bank toward the total assets unlike the model of Maudos and Fernandez de Guevara (2004) which is calculated as the ratio of liquid reserves with the total of assets. It is expected that the relationship between this indicator and the net interest margin be positive as a high level of reserves would make banks set high interest rates on loans and lower one for deposit aiming the compensation of the loss of profits from the investment of funds in the form of obligatory reserve.

Non-interest income - This variable is calculated as the ratio between the net commission income and the amount of net income from interest and other activities. This variable is expected to have a negative association with the net interest margin as those banks that provide higher income from commissions tend to lower the interest rates on loans and deposits resulting in the reduction of the net interest margin.

Concentration Index - This variable serves as a measure of the degree of concentration in the market in terms of loans. In the case of Albania, this variable is measured by the Herfindahl-Hirschman Index (HHI) and is calculated as the sum of the squares of the market share of credit to any bank in the market. It is expected that a high level of concentration index can lead to higher margins in interest because banks have more power in setting interest rates. But it can also happen that a high level of concentration lead to increased efficiency (cost reduction) and consequently to lower interest margins.

Interest rate impact - This variable is measured by interest rate fluctuation. In the case of Albania, this variable is calculated as the standard deviation of monthly treasury bills rates when during a month has been realized more than one auction, in the contrary has been taken the interest rate of the treasury bills of Bank of Albania's auctions. While for the interest rates of Euribor and Libor were taken into study the monthly interest rates. These two variables have been taken in the study since the loans granted in foreign currencies occupy a significant portion of loans in the entire system. In the model will be treated the three upper variables, taken separately, to identify those interest rates which affect more the net interest margin.

4.1- The data and assessment methods

The data used in this study have been obtained from the Bank of Albania and other international institutions. The data used in the model are the monthly data for the entire Albanian banking system for the period January 2005 - December 2014. The dependent variable, the net interest margin, shall be calculated as the ratio between the net income from interest and the total assets that generate income. The total number of explanatory variables of the net interest margin (dependent variable) will be 8 and the assessment of the regression equation will be done using the method of least squares (LS). The total number of observations used in the model is 48 and the data are structured.

4.2- Results of econometric model

The overall regression equation would appear as follows:

$$MNI_n = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times X_1 + \beta_2 \times X_2 + \beta_3 \times X_3 + \beta_4 \times X_4 + \beta_5 \times X_5 + \beta_6 \times X_6 + \beta_7 \times X_7 + \beta_8 \times X_8$$

Where, **n** - indicates the number of the equation in the table below, respectively: **1** for the dependent variable "market impact" measured by the standard deviation of the interest rates of treasury bills when during a month has been realized more than an auction, in the contrary has been taken the interest rate of treasury bills of the Bank of Albania auctions, **2** when this variable is measured by Euribor interest rates and **3** when this variable is measured by Libor interest rate. **β_0** - indicates the constant, the average value of the dependent variable if all the independent variables are 0. **β_1, β_2, β_3, β_4, β_5, β_6, β_7, β_8** - indicate the angular coefficient, the estimated differences in the dependent variable with **β_x** unit for every one unit of change in the independent variable. **X_1** - indicates the independent variable – the operating costs, **X_2** – indicates the independent variable - the attitude towards impact, **X_3** – indicates the independent variable - the credit impact, **X_4** - indicates the independent variable - the quality of management, **X_5** - indicates the independent variable - the opportunity cost of reserves, **X_6** – indicates the independent variable – the income from other activities, **X_7** - indicates the independent variable – the index concentration and **X_8** - indicates the independent variable - the interest rate impact.

Table No. 1: The econometric results for the dependent variable MNI

Independent variables	Depended variable – Net Interest Margin					
	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3	
	Coefficient	Prob.	Coefficient	Prob	Coefficien	Prob
Constant	-0.00447	0.6981	-0.00858	0.4712	-0.00964	0.3995
Operating costs	1.95563	0.0000	1.95626	0.0000	1.95265	0.0000
Attitude toward impact	0.10914	0.1518	0.11791	0.1182	0.12773	0.0842
Credit/loan impac	-0.01293	0.0901	-0.00478	0.5841	-0.01626	0.0316
Quality management	-0.00052	0.4105	-0.00045	0.4707	-0.00018	0.7744
Opportunity costs of reserves	-0.08346	0.5578	-0.05061	0.7216	-0.04913	0.7206
Incomes from other activities	0.03035	0.0000	0.03251	0.0000	0.03284	0.0000
Concentration Index	-0.00570	0.9014	-0.02036	0.6488	0.00860	0.8467
Interest rate impac	-0.00828	0.4490	-0.03887	0.1827	-0.54683	0.0505
Prob.F-Statistic	0.00000		0.00000		0.00000	
Adjusted R-Square	0.99796		0.99802		0.99812	

The three equations above represent a coefficient of determination (adjusted R-square) very good level, ie 99.79% to equation 1, 99.8% for equation 2 and 99.81% for equation 3, which clarifies that the majority of fluctuation in the net interest margin is explained by the independent variables in this study. Regarding the test of significance, we see that prob.F-statistic is 0, so, in general exists a connection between the dependent variable and independent variables. While regarding to the importance of each dependent variable individually assessed, we note that not all considered variables have statistic importance, so not all of them have strong ties with the net interest margin. From the general equation shown above we can reduce the constant parameter as it is not transmitted in the population (-0.00447) if all the independent variables are 0, the net interest margin cannot be negative.

The independent variable "operating expenses" in the regression equation represents a positive coefficient and it is statistically important as expected to be. An increase of this variable will lead to the increase of the net interest margin; this

relationship complies also with the results obtained in the analysis of accounting analysis of net interest margin. For the three upper equations the ratio of the operating expenses with the total assets represents an estimated coefficient of 1.95, which is an indication that the increase of the bank's operating expenses with a unit will cause the latter to be transferred to bank customers, respectively with 1.95 times in the form of higher rates of interest for loans or lower for deposits.

Regarding the independent variable "attitude towards impact", it represents a positive coefficient. The relationship between the attitude toward impact and the net interest margin means that the banks anticipate that in the future they may experience losses from the granted loans and to be protected against this they increase their share capital but the capital financing is more expensive than the debt financing, so the banks, in order to compensate the cost of financing impose high interest margins. This coefficient for the above equations varies from 0109 for the first equation to 0118 for the second equation and 0128 for the third equation. An increase with one unit of the share capital will lead to increase of 12% of the net interest margin (equation 3).

The relationship between the net interest margin and credit impact in the regression equation is negative and the relationship between them is important for the equation 3 while some empirical studies have confirmed a positive relationship between variables. In the case of Albania, the coefficient -0016 (equation 3) shows that the increase with a unit of the problematic loans leads to a reduction of the net interest margin to 0.016 times. This result is explained by the fact that the increase in problematic loans in the banking system has made banks reduce the interest margins in order to reduce the potential problematic loans and to protect their incomes.

The quality management is the variable that affects minimally the fluctuation of the net interest margin in the case of the Albanian banking system, the coefficient - 0.00045 (equation 2) shows that the increase with a unit of the quality management will lower the net interest margin to 0.00045 units, so the relationship is negative as well as other empirical studies.

The explanatory variable *opportunity cost of reserves* is negatively correlated with the net interest margin, in the case of Albania the coefficient of this variable is -0083 (equation 1), which shows that its increase with one unit affects the net interest margin to 0.083 units. This result shows that the increase of the obligatory reserve at the central bank and the loss of profit from its keeping in the central bank are not transferred to bank customers through higher interest margins.

Income from other activities is a statistically important variable and its relationship with the net interest margin is positive, which means that the banks that have higher incomes from fees/commissions and not from their core activity tend to maintain higher interest margins to compensate their income. The increase of this variable with one unit affects the increase with 0033 (equation 3) units in the net interest margin.

The Independent variable – the concentration index in terms of loans, adversely affects the net interest margin in the first two equations and positively in the third equation. These results indicate that the increase the concentration of loans in the first two equations would reduce the net interest margin as the banks use higher concentrations to get specialized in the offered services and to reduce the net interest margin. While regarding the concentration of loans in the third equation, it is noted that the increase of the concentration of loans influences in the increase of the net interest margin with a coefficient of 0.009 times, so as many power the bank will have in lacing the interest rates so more will increase net interest margin.

Finally, the explanatory variable *market impact*, we see its impact to the dependent variable net *interest margin*, unlike the expectations, has a negative impact. An increase of the interest rates of treasury bills (equation 1), Euribor interest rates (equation 2) and libor interest rates (ekuacioni3) will lead to the reduction of the net interest margin. This conclusion comes as a result of the negative gaps of assets and liabilities according to the remained maturity in monthly periods from January 2005 to December 2014.

5- Conclusions

1-　　The three studied equations represent a coefficient of determination (adjusted R-square) in very good levels, which clarifies that the majority of fluctuation of the net interest margin is explained by the independent variables taken into study.

2-　　The independent variable "operating expenses" in the regression equation represents a positive coefficient and it is statistically important. An increase of this variable will lead to the increase of the net interest margin.

3-   Regarding the independent variable "attitude towards impact", it represents a positive coefficient. The relationship between the attitude towards impact and the net interest margin means that the banks anticipate that in the future they may experience losses from the granted loans and to be protected against this they increase their share capital but the capital financing is more expensive than the debt financing, so the banks, in order to compensate the cost of financing impose high interest margins.

4-   The relationship between the net interest margin and credit impact in the regression equation is negative and the relationship between them is important for the equation 3 while some empirical studies have confirmed a positive relationship between variables.

5-   The quality management is the variable that affects minimally the fluctuation of the net interest margin in the case of the Albanian banking system.

6-   The explanatory variable *opportunity cost of reserves* is negatively correlated with the net interest margin in the case of Albania.

7-   *Income from other activities* is a statistically important variable and its relationship with the net interest margin is positive.

8-   *The Independent variable* – the concentration index in terms of loans, adversely affects the net interest margin in the first two equations and positively in the third equation.

9-   The explanatory variable *market impact*, we see its impact to the dependent variable net *interest margin*, different from the expectations.

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Muslim Father's Rights in Determining His Minor Child's Conversion to Islam in Malaysia

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Abstract

Freedom of religion is guaranteed by the Federal Constitution of Malaysia. For children, their rights to freedom of religion are mentioned in Article 12(4) of the Federal Constitution. However, there is conflict of law, i.e. between the civil law and Sharia Law, in some cases involving the child's conversion to Islam, following the conversion of his or her parents. This article aims to discuss on provisions of the Federal Constitution on the child's right to the freedom of religion. The discussion also elucidate on the father's right in determining his minor child's conversion to Islam. The methodology used in gathering relevant data is content analysis. Data was gathered from Sharia Laws, legal provisions, law journals and reported cases relevant to the issue. The data has been analyzed descriptively. The discussion discovered that civil court has competent jurisdiction in hearing cases that involves issues of conversion of children following the conversion of only his/her father or mother. In earlier cases of conversion to Islam, it was decided that the minor child's religion is following the religion of his or her converted father/mother. However, in the later cases the court has decided that the religion of the children is remain as the religion of their parents, before the conversion to Islam.

Keywords: religion, minor, father, conversion, Islam

INTRODUCTION

Father is responsible to guide his family to the right path. In the matter of religious belief, Muslim father is responsible to ensure his child being raised up according to Islamic teachings. This article aims to discuss on the issue of father's conversion to Islam and the effect to his minor child's religion, in Malaysian legal perspective. The discussion covers topic such as provision on religion and Islam in Malaysia, father's right in determining his minor's child religion and minor's conversion to Islam. Discussion is based on legal provision and decided cases related to the issue.

PROVISION ON RELIGION AND ISLAM IN MALAYSIA

Article 3(1) of the Federal Constitution states that Islam is the religion of the Federation, but other religions may be practiced peacefully in any part of the Federation. This provision explains the acknowledgment of Islam as the official religion of the Federation while also considering the rights of people of other faiths to practice their respective religions in peace and harmony.

Religions in Malaysia are generally categorized as follows: Islam and "not Islam" (other religions). The definition of the religion of Islam itself was given by the (then) Supreme Court Judge, Tun Salleh Abas in the case of *Che Omar Bin Che Soh* (1988) 2 M.L.J. 56)*,* where he defined it as a *syumul* (comprehensive) way of life that encompasses all aspects of life, be it private or public, legal, political, economic, social, cultural, moral or judicial. According to Section 2 of the Selangor Non-Islamic Religions (Control of Propagation Amongst Muslims) Enactment 1988, religions 'other than Islam' means Christianity, Hinduism, Buddhism, Sikhism, Judaism or any variation or form or branch of the aforementioned religions, and includes any beliefs, ideologies, philosophies, groups, or practical systems;

1.   Whereby one of the characteristics (of that religion) is the worship of a particular existence or spiritual power or magic, whether real or presumed to be real; or

2.   That which admits its purpose or one of its objectives is the attainment of spiritual enlightenment or spiritual presence, i.e. a belief, philosophy, ideology or group or practical system that is not acknowledged in Islam as possessing Islamic elements.

Based on the above legal provision, it is understood that the rights to freedom of certain groups of people to take control of his religious affairs shall be tried in the event that the court agrees that the matter being tried falls into the definition of religion as intended by the Constitution.

Discussion on the right to freedom of religion in Malaysia is specifically provided in Article 11 of the Federal Constitution. Article 11 states that the right of an individual to profess, practice and propagate his religion is subject to general laws concerning public order, safety, health and morals. The provision of Article 11(2) (3) of the Federal Constitution gives freedom to all religious groups to maintain their respective religious affairs, institutions and property for the purpose of their religion and its welfare. Article 11(4) on the other hand states the authority of the state governments and Federal Territory to control and prevent the proliferation of religions other than Islam among Muslims.

 A more general view on freedom of religion can be seen by reading Article 3(1) with Articles 10, 8 and 12 of the Federal Constitution. As mentioned earlier, article 3 (1) of the Federal Constitution states on the position of Islam as the religion of the Federation. Article 8 of the Federal Constitution concerns the right to equality in the eyes of the law without discrimination due to differing religions and creeds. However, the exception to this provision is found in clause (3) that states that this right does not apply to personal laws and any other provision that limits promotion or employment due to matters relating to religion. Therefore, based on the aforementioned provision, the actions of a Muslim who enters a polygamous marriage will not be tried for the offense of bigamy. Similarly, the hiring of all-Muslim employees in any state religious department cannot be regarded as an act of discrimination. The guarantee of no discrimination on the basis of religion, creed, or place of birth in the administration of any education foundation and of providing financial aid to any institution of learning, whether public or private, is stated in Article 12 of the Federal Constitution. However, taking into consideration the status of Islam as the religion of the Federation, Article 12(2) explains that the actions of the Federal government or a state government to form or maintain Islamic institutions or assist in Islamic teachings and provide financial aid is not presumed to be in opposition to Article 12.

Special position of Islam as stated in the Federal Constitution enables it to receive certain legal protections. On the Federal level, the rights to freedom of religion are overseen and controlled by the Sedition Act 1984 (Revised 1969), Printing Presses and Publications Act 1984, Societies Act 1966, Police Act 1967 and the Penal Code. Furthermore, by virtue of the state Islamic Affairs Administrative Enactments, state governments are granted the power to control any sort of Muslim religious activity, specified under the Shariah Administrative Enactment and the Shariah Criminal Offences Enactment. For example, section 14(1) of Shariah Criminal Enactment (Selangor) 1995 mentions that state government *via* the Islamic Religious Council has the power to give credential to an individual to teach Islam among Muslims who are not his family members. If such person teaches Islam to members of the general public without the necessary credential from the Religious Council and is found guilty of doing so, he may be fined. Section 97 of the Administration of Islamic Religious Affairs (State of Selangor) Enactment 2003 stated that Friday prayers are also not allowed to be offered in any place which has not received

permission in writing from the State Islamic Religious Council. They also cannot be forced to pay any form of taxation if the income from such tax, whether as a whole or in part, is specifically intended for a religion other than the one they profess. The guarantee to the right of freedom of religion is evidenced by the existence of a provision regarding emergency in Article 150(6A), which prevents the powers of Parliament from being expanded, even during a state of emergency, to matters relating to religion.

Islam as the religion of the Federation in Malaysia received certain privileges as stated in the Federal Constitution. However, it does not mean that Islamic law is comprehensively implemented/enforced in Malaysia. Thus in the issue of conversions to Islam, a conflict of law is occasionally faced by the court in determining the cases that involves conversion of a non-Muslim spouse to Islam in connection with other matter of determining the status of his minor's child religions. This article will further elucidate on the newly converted father's right in determining his minor's child religion, following his new religion.

FATHER'S CONVERSION TO ISLAM IN MALAYSIA

Conversions to Islam is a common phenomenon among Malaysians. There are cases that the marriage was solemnized according to civil law, later on either the husband or wife converted to Islam. Thus, cases of conversion of either of the civil marriage spouse will definitely raise up several legal issues such as in which court the dissolution of the marriage will be tried, in which court the guardianship and custodianship of the children will be decided and in which court the issue on determination of their child's religion will be ascertained. Even though this article is focusing on the father's right in determining the child's religion, the first and second issues has to be discussed in brief in order to clarify on the issue of the court's jurisdiction in dealing with cases of conversion to Islam in Malaysia.

In Malaysia, there are two types of courts; Shariah Court and Civil Court. The Shariah Court is a trial court at state level that has jurisdiction to hear cases on matrimonial matters of merely Muslim. In contrast to that, civil court is a trial court at federal level that has jurisdiction to hear cases involving Muslim and non-Muslim. Therefore, cases that involve conversions to Islam of either of non-Muslim spouse from civil marriage, has to be tried in the civil court, by referring to the civil law, that is the Law Reform Marriage and Divorce Act 1976. Even though for Muslims, their personal matters should be heard in the Sharia Court, in the cases of conversion, the civil courts will be the appropriate court to hear such cases. It is because Article 8 of the Law Reform Marriage and Divorce Act 1976 states that once the marriage is solemnized under the act, any application deals with the civil marriage, such as dissolution of the marriage and other ancillary relief should be made in the civil courts. Furthermore, since the jurisdiction of the Sharia Court is merely upon the non-Muslim, it will be unjust if the parties cannot bring their cases to either of the courts. The judgement could be seen in the decision made in the case of *Nur Aishah Suk bte Abdullah (commat) Asukwinder Kaur a/l Sajhan Singh v. Harjeet Singh* (2000) 7 Malayan Law Journal, p. 547and *Tan Sung Mooi v. Too Miew Kim* [1994] 3 Malayan Law Journal, p. 117, that stated :

> "A serious injustice will fall upon the couple (the respondent in this case) of the child not of Islam religion, as their only remedy is the civil court, if the High Court has no more jurisdiction as the Shariah Court has no jurisdiction on people who are not Islam religion".

The result of the case obviously shows that in the cases of conversion to Islam which involves either one of the spouse from the civil marriage, it will be adjudicated at Civil Court that will definitely refer to legal provision in the civil family law. In Islam, father as the leader of his family is responsible of guiding his children to the path blessed by Allah SWT. For the father that has converted to Islam, it is his responsibility to preach to his children by encouraging them to enjoin good and prohibiting any wrongdoing (Abdul Karim Zaidan 2001). Allah SWT states in Surah Ali-Imran 3:110, ordering mankind to encourage people to do good and prohibit any wrongdoing and to believe in Him. Hence, the father is the most responsible person to preach them to choose Islam as a religion. The father is considered as an individual that holds trust to guide his family to the Allah's path of lives (Al-Ghazali 2000; Abdul Halim 2010). In Surah Al-Tahrim 66:6, Allah SWT encourage the believers to safeguard their children from Hell.

In Islam, fathers are held responsible to preserve his child's religion (*hifzud di*n), based on one of the *Maqasid Shariah* principle. Issue to safeguard the child's belief as well as *syahadah* is related with the issue of religion conversion. According to provision in the Islamic law, Islamic jurists have unanimously agreed that in cases of both of the parents converted to Islam, any of their children who are not attain puberty or minor will automatically convert to Islam. Problem arises when either of the parents convert to Islam and the other spouse remain to his or her non-Islamic religion. In this case the Islamic jurists have different views concerning the determination on the minor child's religion following the religion of the father or

mother to Islam. According to the Shafie and Hanbali sects, the child's religion is Islam, following the religion of either the father or mother that converted to Islam. However, according to the Maliki sect, the child's religion are following the father's religion if the father converted to Islam. (Mohamed Azam Mohamed Adil 2013). The next discussion revolves the determination of the minor child's religion according to the legal context in Malaysia. Does the newly converted father have the right to bring his minor child to profess Islam or does he let them remain in the religion of origin?

MINOR'S CONVERSION TO ISLAM IN MALAYSIA

In case of minors' conversion to Islam, Articles 12 (3) and (4) of Federal Constitution stresses on the age limit of a person to enable him to convert to another religion, which is eighteen years of age if he doesn't have the permission of his parents or guardian. It means that in Malaysia anybody below the age of 18 is still consider as a minor regardless of they have already reach their puberty. Any pronouncement of *Two Kalimah of Syahadah* uttered by anybody below the age of 18 must be made with the consent of either parents or guardian.

Generally, the discussion of conversion of minor to Islam in Malaysia could be divided into two situations:

(i)   Minors voluntarily converting themselves to Islam

(ii)   Minor's conversion following the new religion of their parent or parents.

Minors Voluntarily Converts to Islam

The provision of Article 11 of the Federal Constitution that allows Muslims to propagate their religion publicly could be seen as an instrument that might attract non-Muslims to learn about the Islamic religion. In Malaysia, the teachings of Islam could be easily accessed through mass media and various programs, as advertised in the television, radio, newspaper and others. In addition to that, the nature of Malaysian society that is comprised of Muslims and non-Muslims, most of them normally living in close proximity, attending the same school, spending their social activities together, might attract them to learn about each other's ways of life or religion, hence   a choice to convert to Islam. However, minors are not allowed, even voluntarily, to change their religion without the consent of their parents, as stated in the case of *Teoh Eng Huat v. Kadhi Pasir Mas and Anor.* [1990] 2 Current Law Journal p. 11, it is an appeal case from the High Court to the Supreme Court. In this case the appellant discovered that his daughter, who had been missing, had been converted to Islam by the first respondent. His daughter was almost eighteen years old and a minor under the civil law. The appellant brought an action in the Kota Baharu High Court seeking a declaration that he, as the lawful father and guardian, has the right to decide the religion, education and upbringing of his infant daughter. The High Court dismissed the application of the appellant. The appellant appealed to the Supreme Court In the meantime, the girl had reached the age of majority. The Supreme Court allowing the appeal, held that:

(1)   Under the normal circumstances, non-Muslim parent or guardian has the right to decide the choice of the various issues affecting an infant's life until he reaches the age of majority, which is eighteen years under the civil law.

(2)   In the wider interest of the nation, no infant shall have the automatic right to receive instruction relating to any religion other than that his own without the permission of the parent or guardian.

2. Minor's Conversion Following Their Parent's Conversion

In a situation where both parents themselves converts to Islam, any of their children under the age of eighteen generally follows their parent's new religion. Meanwhile, children who are already eighteen years old or older have the right to choose their own religion. The case of *Viswalingam v. Viswalingam* (1980) 1 Malayan Law Journal, p. 300).is an example of the minimum age allowed for any children to decide on their own religion. This is a divorce case due to the conversion of a husband/father to Islam. At that time, the ages of their children were nineteen, sixteen and fourteen years old, respectively. Therefore, the children who were under eighteen, then aged sixteen and fourteen, had to follow their father's religion, Islam.

In the case of either the mother or the father converting to Islam, any children below the age of eighteen will follow the religion of their guardian. Therefore, in such cases the person who has the guardianship rights to the children, will have the

right to decide their religion, education and upbringing. Meanwhile the party who has the custodianship rights of the children, merely has power referring to the physical development of the child. (*T. v. O* [1993] Malayan Law Journal, p. 168).

As mentioned by Wu Min Aun, in Family Law, custody is not necessarily co-extensive with guardianship, but neither are they always clearly distinguishable. The word 'guardian' is defined variously in several acts. Section 2 of the Adoption Act 1952 (Rev. 1981) defines the term in relation to child as follows: " … any person or body of persons other than its natural parents, who has custody of the child…". Section 2 of the Registration of Adoption Act 1952 (Rev. 1981) defines the word guardian as : "… the person having the legal right to the custody of the child …". The Guardianship of Infants Act 1961, which is the main legislation governing guardianship and custody, does not define the term, but provides in section 3 that : " The guardian of the person of an infant shall have the custody of an infant, and shall be responsible for his support, health and education." The general rule of guardianship rights is stated in Section 5 of the Guardianship of Infants Act 1961 that provides: " … the father of an infant shall be the guardian of the infant's person and property…".

The court has the authority to remove, at any time, a guardian whether of the person or the property of the infant, and appoint from time to time another person to be a guardian in his or her place". Section 10, which confers an authority on the court to remove, at any time, a guardian whether of a person or the property of the infant, and, appoint from time to time another person to be a guardian in his or her place. Section 6 states further that it is only where a child has no living father that the mother becomes the guardian of the child's person and property. However, in either case, it is not an absolute right. The High Court retains a discretionary power to appoint some other person to be the guardian, or in the case where there is no living father, to appoint another person to act jointly with the mother as guardian.

There are some examples of cases that differentiate between the rights of guardianship and custody. In the case of *Shamala Sathiaseelan v. Dr. Jayaganesh C. Magarajah & Anor* [2004] 2 Malayan Law Journal, p.648*,* it was an application by the Plaintiff (the wife) for a declaration that the conversion of her two children (the minors) to Islam by the defendant (the husband) without her consent was null and void. The facts of the case were that the husband and wife were married according to Hindu rites and registered under the Law Reform (Marriage and Divorce) Act 1976. The two children to the marriage were minors and were Hindus at the time of birth. The husband converted to Islam and later converted the minor to Islam without the consent and knowledge of the wife. The wife contended that by virtue of an interim order, she had an equal right to decide the religion of the minors. Among the issues for determination were whether consent of a single parent was enough to validate the conversion of a minor to Islam and whether the capacity of the Muslim father to convert the minors were valid. It was held that the husband was the natural father of the two minors and has the legal right to convert the two minors into his new religion, that is Islam. Thus as a construction of Article 12(4) of the Federal Constitution read in conjunction with Section 95(b) of Article 505, the husband as a natural parent – a Muslim father had the capacity to convert the two minors into Islam. Therefore, the consent of a single parent is satisfied to validate the conversion of the minor's religion. In this case also the court had awarded legal custody jointly to both father and mother with care and control to the mother, subject however to the caveat that the mother would lose the right to care and control it if she is found in any way to influence her children's présent religion.

MUSLIM FATHER'S RIGHTS UPON HIS MINOR'S CHILD RELIGION

In cases of either of the parent's conversion to Islam, both of them will definitely struggle to gain legal rights of guardianship upon their children in order to ensure that the children will follow either of the parents' religion respectively. According to Section 81 of the Islamic Family Law Act, custodianship rights of minor is with the mother whether during the marriage or at the time of dissolution of marriage. Even though the mother has the utmost rights upon the children, compared to the father, section 82 further explains that among the pre-requisite condition required is that the mother has to be a Muslim. Furthermore section 83 of the same act explains the mother will lapse her capability of custodianship if she is not practicing the Muslim religion or becomes an apostasy. The legal provisions show that if the mother is a non-Muslim, the converted Muslim father's rights to gain legal rights upon the child will be considered. However, in most of the decided cases, the civil court will award the right of custodianship to the mother, by reason of protecting the minor's welfare, while the father is awarded with visitation rights.

In the case of *Shamala Sathiyayaseelan lwn. Dr Jeyaganesh C Mogarajah & Anor* ([2004] 2 *Current Law Journal*, p. 416) the father converted to Islam in 19 November 2002. Six days later, on 25th November 2002, he had brought his children to *Majlis Agama Islam* (Conference of Islamic Religion), to convert them to Islam. Faiza Tamby Chik Judge, while commenting on the case states that the conversion of the children did not automatically happened following their father's conversion. In this case the children was converted to Islam six days later. Based on the provision in Article 12 (4) of the Federal Constitution, it allows the father or mother *whom* converted to Islam to register their children below the age of eighteen years old as Muslim. The High Court in the case of *Nedunchelian a/l V Uthiradam v. Nurshafiqah Mah Singai Annal & Ors* [2005] 2 All Malayan Report, p. 711 also in the opinion that the legal provision that allows the children to change their religion based on consent of either of the parents is in accordance with the interpretation of minors freedom of religion as mentioned in Article 12(4) of the Federal Constitution.

When reference was made to resolve case in *Teo Eng Huat v. Kadi Pasir Mas Kelantan & Majlis Agama Islam* ([1990] 2 Malayan Law Journal ([1990] 2 *Malayan Law Journal*, p. 228), which also well known as the Susie Teoh case, freedom of religion for children is defined through permission or consent from either the mother or father. The judge in the case obviously defines 'parents' as either the mother or father, which mean giving permission to either the mother or father is enough to enable his or her minor's child to change his or her religion

In the case of *Shamala Sathiyayaseelan v. Dr Jeyaganesh C Mogarajah & Anor*, ([2004] 2 *Current Law Journal*, p.416), a Hindu mother applied a declaration from the court to invalidate the conversion of two of her children to Islam due to the fact that it was made unilaterally, without her consent. Later on the husband then made an objection on the application. The court in deciding the case states that:

"The use of the singular word 'parent' in both art. 12(4) of the Federal Constitution and S. 95(B) of the Administration of Islamic Law (Federal Territories) Act 1933 (Act 505) renders the consent of a single parent enough to validate the conversion of a minor to Islam. Section 5 of the Guardianship of Infants Act (Act 351) on equality of parental rights did not apply to the husband by virtue of s. 1(3) of the same as he was now a Muslim"

In Shamala (2004) case the judge had decided that the plaintiff, a Hindu woman is awarded with the custodianship rights upon both of her children age three and a half year and ten months, whom had been converted to Islam by their Muslim father. The defendant was ordered to pay maintenance for the children, Even though the plaintiff gain the custodianship rights, she is not allowed to change her children's religion. The court also remind her of the order of custodianship will lapse once if it is proven that she has clearly in any ways try to influence her children to convert to another religion other than Islam.

The decision of the above cases was based on understanding that the interpretation of Article 12(4) of the Federal Constitution means consent of either the father or mother is sufficient to allow the minor/children to change their religion. Therefore in almost cases involving conversion of either parents from the civil marriage, the minor children will then following their parents' new religion. The case of *Indira Ghandi* (2013), the judge's approach has shown that several international norms and human rights is invoked and given priority, to the extent that the legal interpretation of article 12(4) of the Federal Constitution goes beyond the ordinary interpretation as decided in the several earlier cases. Thus the court has decided that based on the basis of nation, religion and gender, the defendant's/father's act of changing his children religion without the mother's consent is considered as against Article 8(2) of the Federal Constitution. The decision of this case clearly shows that the learned judge has made an interpretation that goes beyond the ordinary interpretation of Article 12(4) of the Federal Constitution, as decided in other cases before.

In the recent case of *Indira Gandhi a/p Mutho lwn. Pengarah Jabatan Agama Islam Perak & Ors* ([2013] 5 *Malayan Law Journal*, p. 555), conversion of her three children aged one year old, ten years old and eleven years old was made by the father per se, without the knowledge of the mother. The appellant (the mother) then applied for a judicial review in the High Court of Ipoh, applying a declaration that the endorsement of certificates of conversion to Islam made upon the name of those children are considered as null and void because it was inconsistent with section 106(b) of the Islamic Administration of Islamic Religion Enactment of Perak 2004 and also in contradict with section 5 and 11 of the Guardianship of Infant Act 1961. The appellant also made an application that Article 12(4) of the Federal Constitution is read together with Article 8(2) of the Federal Constitution, concerning the equal rights of the father and mother in this matter. The appellant further made a declaration that the conversion of those children to Islam was not done in accordance to legal procedure.

This case shows that the civil court judge has made a decision in favor of the applicant and announced that the conversion of those children was done not in accordance with the law. The judge's interpretation among others stated that the decision made by the religious authority in giving consent and verifying the conversion to Islam of the children's religion has no legal validity. It is because Article 11 of the Federal Constitution states that the legal right of every person to profess and practice his or her religion has been infringed. In this case, the court stated that article 11 should be read together with Article 5(1) concerning the freedom of movement and Article 3(1) that refer to other religion that could be practiced in any parts of the Federation.

Tun Abdul Hamid Mohamad, Malaysia's former Chief Justice, while commenting on Indra Ghandi's case states that the case's judgement should be reconsidered based on Sharia Law because the issues of conflicts of laws was clearly present in the subject matter. Even though the result may remain the same, but reconsideration to the Sharia Law needs to be considered. He also commented that the Court should have referred to the human rights issue under the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), but needs to be done carefully so that it does not conflict with the principles of Federal Constitution. He continued by voicing his worries with the passion of fellow judges who accepts international norms or priorities the UHRD more that the provision in the Malaysian Federal Constitution itself. (Abdul Hamid Mohamad 2013).

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CONCLUSION

Freedom of religion is guaranteed by law as stated in Federal Constitution of Malaysia. For minors their right to change their religion are subjected to consent of either of the minor's parents. Cases involving conversion of the minor's father/mother were also decided alike. The newly converted Muslim father has legal rights to convert his minor child to Islam. It is also the interpretation of Article 12 (4) on the freedom of religion of minor child, that emphasized on merely consent of either parents is satisfy. However, the decision made in the case of Indira Ghandi 2013 had challenge the legal rights of the father to convert his minor child's religion to Islam, that caused the Muslim father's right to convert his minor child's religion to Islam is restricted.

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Proposal of Decision Criteria Based on Product Characteristics for WEEE Recycling in Romania: a Managerial Approach

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Abstract

With growing interest in recovering materials within electrical and electronic equipment at the end of their useful life, there has been an increasing interest in developing decision-making methodologies that determine how to maximize the recycling benefits of end-of life processing. In the case of multi-criteria decision methods, the most complex step is to identify the decision criteria that can be characterized by attributes by decision makers and are relevant to the analysed situation taking into account all impact categories. This study identifies and describes the set of criteria based on product characteristics relevant for recycling in Romania, from the point of view of recyclers. Nineteen criteria were identified and grouped into 3 categories, namely: economic, environmental and technical.

Key words: decision criteria, electrical and electronic equipment, recycling, Romania, WEEE

INTRODUCTION

Over the last twenty years, the number of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) continues to grow exponentially and the life cycle of the electrical devices is shorter. Waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) has known the most spectacular growth of all waste categories. In Europe, there are over 10 million tonnes of WEEE generated annually and it is expected that, by 2020, this figure will reach 12 million tonnes (European Commission, 2012).

Electrical equipment contains hazardous materials (lead, mercury, cadmium, chromium, phosphorus, barium, beryllium etc.), as well secondary raw materials with economic value (iron, aluminium, copper, plastic, glass etc.) (Ciocoiu et al., 2012).

One way of preventing hazardous effects of EEE and to prevent depletion of resources is to treat them in a proper way and to recycle valuable parts and materials. On the other hand, the increasing global competition for primary raw materials and the increasing price volatility will enforce companies to pay more attention to recycling activities.

Recycling represents an important issue in WEEE legislation in European Union. The new WEEE Directive of European Union (Directive 2012/19/EU) has set new target thresholds for the collection, treatment and recovery, some of these levels being applied beginning with 2015.

In Romania, waste electrical and electronic equipment recycling market is growing every year. When we talk about recycling in Romania we are referring to waste treatment operations that are defined, under Romanian law, as recovery or disposal operations, including preparation prior to recovery or disposal.

If in terms of treatment and recovery Romania falls in line with the standards imposed by both the old and the new EU WEEE Directive (Directive 2002/96/EC and Directive 2012/19/EU), the WEEE regulations concerning the collection

represent a threat, but also an important challenge for the WEEE management system in Romania (Rudăreanu et al., 2015).

Regarding the Romanian effort for WEEE collection and treatment, it is important to mention the most significant company specialized for these services: GreenWEEE International. This company is located in Buzau County (approximately 120 km far from Bucharest) and it started the activity in 2009. The company has the largest capacity in Romania for collecting and processing of the WEEE (50.000 tonnes of WEEE per year, with an initial investment of 10 million euro) (www.greenweee.ro).

The first part of the paper presents the most important studies about WEEE recycling criteria, then the objective and the methodology of the research, as well as the results and conclusions are emphasized.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The issue of selecting certain products or categories of WEEE – according to their characteristics – in order to treat or recycle them by the specialized organizations was partially approached in the external scientific literature, but dedicated studies were not conducted for the Romanian case.

Kiritsis et al. (2005) present a multicriteria-based methodology to evaluate the end of life product treatment options with regard to environmental, economic and social criteria.

Iakovou et al. (2009, p. 331) propose a multicriteria selection matrix for recycling WEEE, that includes the following elements: residual/market value of the components, environmental costs of the product, weight of the product, amount of the same component in the product, ease and duration of the dismantling process.

Kara (2011) mentions some hindrances that make recycling challenging for current manufactured products. One of these is the difficulty to gain all the necessary information to plan for the recycling evaluation. The decision to invest in WEEE recycling is complex and it must take into account many different criteria.

Of an even more recent date, Kim et al. (2013, p. 945) recommend a set of seven criteria for selecting WEEE to be included into the system of compulsory recycling in Korea: high rate of waste generation (waste volume or emission rate); low recycling costs or benefits resulted from recycling (availability of appropriate recycling technology, high content of valuable metals and potential of recovering them, workable collection system); similarity with other products currently included in the extended responsibility of the producer (ERP); similarity with current plastic products disposed for free in Korea according to the present legislation. Other factors proposed by Kim et al. (2013, pp. 942-944) to be taken into account are the following: potential economic value; presence of toxic chemicals; potential impact of EEE on the environment.

OBJECTIVE AND METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

Taking into account the above mentioned aspects, our purpose is to develop *a set of criteria for analysing the relevant WEEE to be recycled in Romania, by taking into account the characteristics of the considered categories of products*. This represents the first step in developing a multi-criteria decision making method in order to help the decision makers to select the most feasible products (or categories) to be recycled.

Every criterion was selected and analysed in relation with the availability of product-related information data.

The study was conducted in two phases. In the first phase, information from several sources was reviewed and analysed: legislation and policy documents, statistical data from Eurostat and Romanian National Statistics Institute, research studies, articles and conference papers, reports and other public and internal documents published by WEEE national organizations. A main source of information was represented by the documents published by the Romanian Agency for the Environmental Protection (ANPM).

In the second phase, discussions with experts were held in order to select the relevant criteria and to test their practical utility.

Thus, the consulted experts think that the analysis could be limited, for now, just to WEEE treatment operations, given that the technical European model of operators in the field does not exceed (with few exceptions) the removal of hazardous, recoverable or recyclable components. The same experts commented that most of the operations regarding recycling,

recovering or reusing the fractions resulted from WEEE treatment are developed by specialized companies from inside or outside EU.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The proposed criteria for the economic operators that treat, recover (exploit) and recycle the WEEE are structured into three main domains: economic, environmental and technical criteria.

1. Economic criteria of WEEE:

1.1. Economic value resulted from the treatment, recovery and recycle of WEEE:

One example for quantifying the revenues resulted from WEEE management in Romania is presented in ICPE (2006), as follows: getting revenues by recovering the components (ferrous, non-ferrous, copper and alloys, plastic materials) resulted from WEEE management; identifying the annual quantities that may be recovered for each category of WEEE components; identifying the market prices (RON/kg) for recovering the WEEE components for each category of products; determining the annual revenues (RON) that may be obtained from the recovering activity for each category of WEEE components.

1.2. Demand on the second-hand market for the components resulted from the dismantling or recycling of WEEE:

The components resulted from the dismantling or recycling of WEEE in EU may be recovered with cost savings and benefits in economic and environmental terms, by protecting and/or better using the resources. In this regard, "the efficient use of resources and the retrieval of valuable secondary raw materials" is one of the main objectives of the Directive 2012/19/EU (paragraph (6)). Moreover, this point of view is also supported by the economic operators (see the GreenWEEE website, 2015). On the other hand, following broad consultations with experts in the field, they confirmed that the treatment of WEEE also generates complex fractions, with negative market value, such as: glass from cathode ray tubes, electrolytic capacitors, mixture of hazardous materials etc.

1.3 Amount of similar or identical EEE traded on the market:

For a comparative analysis in the European context, the amount of EEE put on the Romanian market – total by years (2006-2012) and for the 10 categories of EEE – is available on the Eurostat (2015) website.

1.4. Competition between categories of WEEE recyclers:

According to the opinion of the experts, there are no *stricto sensu* recyclers of WEEE in Romania, and this category of economic operators could be divided by the type of developed activities: collection, treatment, collection of fractions resulted from treatment, recycling of fractions of ferrous and non-ferrous metals, disposal of fractions with hazardous content. Thus, by "recyclers" we refer to "economic operators involved in WEEE management" or "economic operators involved in WEEE treatment".

1.5. Value of the recycling investment or cost of technology used for treating or recycling WEEE:

This criterion is fundamentally determined by the efficiency of the economic operators in the field for complying with their business operations. As examples, methods for determining the costs of establishing and operating a WEEE collection point, determining the costs of establishing and operating a WEEE treatment point, determining the costs of advertising campaigns and public awareness in Romania are presented in ICPE (2006).

1.6. Renewal rate for the EEE categories to be recycled:

There are only partial analyses in Romania (in terms of time and space) regarding the way in which the population uses the different categories of EEE, and these studies have been financed by the local public authorities or by companies with direct interests in the field. The collected and used information in the respective studies rather focus on certain products and not on the 10 categories of EEE identified at European level.

2. Environmental criteria of WEEE:

2.1. Volume (weight) of collected WEEE:

There are complete series of data on the Eurostat (2015) website regarding the WEEE management in EU countries: amount of waste collected on the Romanian market, total by years (2006-2012) and for the 10 EEE categories; amount of waste collected from households; amount of waste collected from other sources. The distribution of the amount of WEEE collected on the Romanian market – by years (2006-2013) and for the 10 categories of EEE – is available on the ANPM (2015) website, while the EU annual collecting target of 4 kg/capita was not achieved in Romania. At national level, regarding the annual collection rate, a number of exemptions from the Directive 2012/19/EU may be applied until, at the latest, 14 August 2021 (Directive 2012/19/EU, Art. 7).

2.2. Volume (weight) of treated WEEE:

The total amount of treated WEEE is a sum aggregated from the following three elements: WEEE treated in the respective EU member state, WEEE treated in another EU member state and WEEE treated outside EU. For Romania, different data series are available on the Eurostat (2015) website: amount of WEEE treated in the member state, total by years (2006-2012) and for the 10 EEE categories; amount of WEEE treated in another EU member state; amount of WEEE treated outside EU; amount of reused WEEE; amount of recovered WEEE; total amount of recycled and reused WEEE.

2.3. Quantity of disposed waste resulted from recycling and/or recovering of WEEE:

When determining this indicator, the total amount of recycled and reused WEEE on the Romanian market may be used (by years and for the 10 EEE categories), as well as the recovering and/or recycling rates for WEEE in Romania.

2.4. Real recycling rate of WEEE:

According to Government Emergency Ordinance (GEO) No. 5/2015, Appendix 9, the recovering and recycling of WEEE are differently targeted, with different envisaged values for the WEEE categories, before and after 14 August 2015. Information regarding the quantification of the real recycling rate of e-waste are available on the Eurostat (2015) website.

2.5. Potential of WEEE pollution (a) – toxic and hazardous waste resulted from recycling:

The potential of WEEE to pollute was analysed by taking into account two main categories of factors that could fundamentally and negatively impact the external environment: the toxic and hazardous waste resulted from recycling, but also the negative externalities resulted from incineration (the incineration of WEEE is the second best option when they cannot be recovered, reused, recycled or valued in another way than by energy generation).

2.6. Potential of WEEE pollution (b) – toxic and hazardous waste resulted from incineration:

Regarding the second component of the WEEE potential of pollution, a correlation could be established with the weight of recovered, reused and recycled WEEE, assuming that the percent of not recovered / reused / recycled WEEE will be disposed by incineration or simple storage.

2.7. Energy consumption per unit of recycled WEEE:

Although information regarding the energy consumption per unit of recycled WEEE is not public or centralized, the consulted experts recommend their gathering from specialized economic operators carrying out treatment activities of WEEE. In addition, this type of consumption – like the resource consumption for the economic processes – essentially depends on the efficiency of the respective economic operators (treatment facilities or recycling units).

2.8. Content of hazardous substances for the environment and human health of the WEEE to be treated and recycled:

The issue of hazardous and/or harmful substances included in the WEEE is of current interest at EU level and it is approached in a centralized way as one of the main challenges in the field (see the Directive 2012/19/EU, paragraphs (5) and (15)).

3. Technical criteria of WEEE:

3.1. Size of WEEE to be recycled:

Information about the categories of EEEE (and, implicitly, about their dimensions) are also available in the Directive 2012/19/EU (Appendixes I-IV) and the GD No. 1037/2010 (Appendixes 1A-1B). The average weight of EEE is essentially influenced by the constant trend of reducing the specific sizes and weights due to the technological developments estimated at global level.

3.2. Homogeneity of the components of WEEE to be recycled:

When a product has more components of the same type or it is more homogenous in terms of composition, its recycling is more profitable for the economic operators because their investments are more efficient. The amount of recovered fractions of WEEE resulted from dismantling cover at least the following components: glass, ferrous and nonferrous metals, copper and alloys, plastic, and other (PCB circuits, rubber, wood, ceramics etc.).

3.3. Ease of dismantling and/or recycling of WEEE to be recycled:

In a similar way, the ease of recycling the products and the secondary valuable materials in their composition is a criterion that assures the operational economic viability for the companies that treat or recycle WEEE. According to the consulted experts, the treating technology of WEEE could be divided into three main categories: manual, mechanical and mixed treatment.

3.4. Quantity of valuable metals resulted from WEEE recycling:

Both the specialized literature (e.g. Kim et al., 2013) and practical evidence support the recycling of WEEE also for the extraction of valuable metals (e.g. silver, platinum, gold, and palladium) from certain components, resulting financial benefits for the economic operators in the field.

3.5. Recovering/Recycling rate relative to the average weight of WEEE to be recycled:

At EU centralized level, the minimum objectives for WEEE recovering and recycling corresponding to each category of waste, before and after 14 August 2015, are detailed in Appendix V of the Directive 2012/19/EU. For Romania, after the entry into force of GEO 5/2015 on WEEE, the necessary national recovery and recycling rates are stipulated in Appendix 9 of the mentioned document.

CONCLUSIONS

This economic sector of waste treatment and recycling has a great potential to contribute to job creation and investment recovery through an integrated approach at national level, taking into account an increase in the rate of absorption of European funds allocated to environmental investments. The revisions of national and European legislation regarding WEEE represent a factor that may reinforce the interest for WEEE recycling in Romania.

Although the choice of electrical and electronic products to be recycled depends very much on the technology used (manual, mechanized, mixed), their characteristics may influence the effectiveness of recycling. Developing a multi-criteria decision-making method that take into account the variety of product characteristics can help economic agents intending to engage in recycling activities. Proposing a set of criteria based on particularities of WEEE management system in Romania is the first step in creating the decision-making method. Although the set of criteria is designated for Romania it can be applied (totally or partially) in any country that has a similar management system.

Next step of the research consists in developing and testing the multicriteria decision-making method for WEEE recycling by taking into account different products and categories of EEE.

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The Effect of Formative Assessment on Students' Success

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Abstract

Assessment is an important part of teaching and learning process. Moreover, it is a dynamic process which changes continuously. Formative assessment is a part of the assessment process in general. This paper studies the effect of formative assessment in students' success. This study took place in the primary school Nuri Mazari, Struga, Macedonia. In the study participated 115 students who learn English as a foreign language. They are not the same grade, they are sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth grade students. The participants will be divided into two groups based on their gender. In order to see the effect of formative assessment, students' success before the application of formative assessment will be compared with their success after the application of formative assessment. After the first month, the teacher will take notes about the students' grades, which will be considered as initial data for this study, during the next two months, the teacher will apply the formative assessment. Then, the teacher will give them a final grade based on students' success during the application of formative assessment. The difference in students' grades before and after the study took place makes the effect of formative assessment more obvious. The data gathered in this study will be analyzed with SPSS program.

Keywords: formative assessment, students' success, English language, primary school

Introduction

The educational process is a huge process, which consists of many correlated parts. Teaching and learning process exists based on the harmony of its components. Assessment is one of those components, and it plays a crucial role in teaching and learning process in several ways. It is important for the teachers because it gives them a review of their students' understanding of the material that is taught, parts that are very well understood by the student, or those parts that seem to be more difficult for students and need to be practiced more, and also to give final. Besides this, student assessment is useful for the teachers as a feedback on their teaching, whether they have met their own expectations or not. Assessment is important also for students to see their progress, their strength or weakness in a particular topic, school subject, or learning in general. However, the assessment process is not important only for teachers and students that are directly involved in teaching and learning process every day but it is also important for students' parents. The way the teachers assess their students, by giving them written feedback, grades, or other different ways of assessing them are very useful for the students' parents because each of assessment forms used by the teacher gives the parents a view of their child's progress at school. Students' grades are useful statistical evidence for school authorities, educational inspectors and the government. Students' grades can also be used as a reference for the students' future education, or for their life after school, especially as an opportunity of getting better job positions. Therefore, teachers should be very careful when they assess their students and also when they choose the way they will assess their students because it should be apparent for student level and also for the purpose it is chosen to be used. Otherwise, it would directly reflect negative effect on students' success.

Literature Review

Since the educational process is a dynamic process that is changing continuously, assessment as a part of this process is changing, too. There are a lot of assessment methods that are applied in teaching and learning process. Many researchers are studying the effectiveness of assessment and there are a lot of books and articles written about methods of assessment, types of assessment, or assessment in general. "Assessment is the systematic collection of information about student learning, using the time, knowledge, experience, and resources available, in order to inform decisions that affect student learning" (Walvoord, 2010, p. 2). "The main aim of using assessment should be to support learning" (Black and Wiliam, cited in: Gardner, 2012, p.11). Therefore the teachers should be very careful when they use assessment. As Garo (2013)

claims that the assessment is a difficult part of teaching; moreover, it makes the teachers take a big responsibility when they give grades. The success that the students achieve in school helps them have strong self-esteem, as he says "success can lead to greater confidence in academic and social situations, instead of embarrassment'' (Jensen, 2003, p. 3). According to Shermis & Di Vesta (2011) assessment should be viewed as an "intrinsic part" of teaching not as a "separate attachment" from teaching (p. 83). According to Weeden, Winter, & Broadfoot (2002) "Pupils identified three reasons for success in school – effort, ability and opportunity to learn" p. 51. "The term formative assessment does not have a tightly defined and widely accepted meaning" (Black and William 1998, as cited in: Berry, 2008: 49). "Formative assessment is a means of communication between teacher and student, guiding the teacher toward appropriate instructional decisions and providing encouraging feedback to the students" (Benjamin, 2008:9).

Methodology

The methodology that was used in this study was appropriate for the purpose of the study. The study took place during the English classes. In order to see the effect of the application of formative assessment in the students' success, the data were collected twice, first before the application of formative assessment and then after the application of formative assessment.

The aim of the study

The aim of this study is to test whether the formative assessment affects the students' success. Moreover, it aims to show if the formative assessment has a positive or negative effect on students' success. Furthermore, it will show the difference between boys and girls about their success at school.

Research questions

Students' success can be affected by many factors. There are a lot of factors outside the classroom that could affect the students' success; however, there are also a lot of factors in the classroom that could affect students' success, too. The way a teacher assesses their students could have a direct impact on students' success. Assessment in general, as well as, formative assessment in particular, could affect students' success. The research questions that arise here are given bellow:

Whether the use of formative assessment affect the students' success?

Rather the effect that formative assessment have in students' success is positive or negative?

Is there a significant difference of the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment?

Is there a statistical difference between the mean of the students' success based on their gender before the application of the formative assessment?

Participants

In this study participated primary school students, who study English as a foreign language. In total, there were 115 students who participated in this study. They were not the same age; sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth grade students were part of this study.

Groups

Since this study aims to test whether there is a difference between boys and girls about their success, students were divided into two groups based on their gender. In total, there were 52 boys and 63 girls.

Results

The program SPSS was used to show the results of the data gathered for this study. The table below shows the results of the students' success before the application of formative assessment

Student' success before the application of formative assessment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not satisfied	40	34.8	34.8	34.8
	Satisfied	29	25.2	25.2	60.0
	Good	17	14.8	14.8	74.8
	Very good	20	17.4	17.4	92.2
	Excellent	9	7.8	7.8	100.0
	Total	115	100.0	100.0	

Table# 1 descriptive statistics about the frequency of the students' success before the application of formative assessment

The table above show that there were 115 students who participated in this study. The 34.8 % of the participants had the lowest grades. The success of 25.2 % of the participants was *satisfied*, 14.8% of the participants had gotten *good success*, the success of 17.4% was *very good* and the smallest group of participants, only 7.8% of the participants had the highest grades.

Students' Success after the application of the formative assessment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not satisfied	19	16.5	16.5	16.5
	Satisfied	41	35.7	35.7	52.2
	Good	17	14.8	14.8	67.0
	Very good	17	14.8	14.8	81.7
	Excellent	21	18.3	18.3	100.0
	Total	115	100.0	100.0	

Table# 2 descriptive statistics about the frequency of the students' success after the application of formative assessment

The figure above shows the total number of the participated, 115 students. 16.5 % of them were students who have got the lowest grade. *Satisfied* was the success of the biggest group of the participants. 35.7% of the participants were part of this group. The success 14.8% of the participants was *good*. There were also 14.8 % of the total number whose success was *very good*. 18.3% has got the highest grades.

Participants' gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Girls	63	54.8	54.8	54.8
	Boys	52	45.2	45.2	100.0
	Total	115	100.0	100.0	

Table# 3 descriptive statistics about participants' gender

The table above shows that 63 out of 115 participants, or 54.8% of the total number were girls and 52 or 45.2% of the participants were boys.

Analyzes

The statistical program SPSS was used to analyze the results of the study. This program has different tests that can be used to analyze the results based on the types of the data that are gathered for the study. The tests that were used for this study were Wilcoxon test, Paired sample *t* test and Independent sample t test.

The use of Wilcoxon test

Wilcoxon test was used to analyze the results of the mean of the students' success before and after the formative assessment took place and to compare the mean of the students' success in both cases.

Ranks

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Students' success after the application of the formative assessment - Students' success before the application of the formative assessment	Negative Ranks	1[a]	27.00	27.00
	Positive Ranks	52[b]	27.00	1404.00
	Ties	62[c]		
	Total	115		

a. Students' success after the application of the formative assessment < Students' success before the application of the formative assessment

b Students' success after the application of the formative assessment > Students' success before the application of the formative assessment

c. Students' success after the application of the formative assessment = Students' success before the application of the formative assessment

Table # 4 Wilcoxon test – Students' ranks based on their success before and after the usage of formative assessment.

The table above gives the total number of participants who participated in this study, there were 115 participants in total. Just 1 out of 115 participants of the study had negative ranks, it means that just one student had a better grade before the application of formative assessment than after the application of formative assessment. However, 52 out of 115 students had had positive ranks, it means that 52 students had lower grades at the beginning of the study in comparison with their own grades after the application of formative assessment. Furthermore, 62 out of 115 students had the same grades before and after the application of formative assessment.

Test Statistics[a]

	Students' success after the application of the formative assessment - Students' success before the application of the formative assessment
Z	-7.005[b]
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

Table # 5 Statistical data based on the Wilcoxon test -Z

The hypothesis that is tested is called the null hypothesis

Ho: there is no difference in the mean of the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment.

And an alternative hypothesis raise as a result of null hypothesis

Ha: there is a difference in the mean of the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment.

Form the statistical data given above it is seen that Z=-7.005 based on a negative rank, and the p- value, p=.000 .If p< .05 the null hypothesis is rejected. In this case 0< 0.05 so the null hypothesis that there is no difference in the mean of the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment is rejected. The null hypothesis is rejected.

The use of paired sample t test

The paired sample t test was used to test the effect of formative assessment on the students'success, it was done by comparing the means of students' success before and after the study took place.

The research question:

Is there a significant difference of the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment?

Null Hypothesis:

Ho: the mean of the students' success before the application of the formative assessment = the mean of the students' success after the application of the formative assessment.

So, there is no statistical difference of the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment.

The alternative hypothesis:

Ha: the mean of the students' success before the application of the formative assessment ≠ the mean of the students' success after the application of the formative assessment.

So, there is exist statistical differences of the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment.

The independent variable is the time form the beginning to the end of the study, after the application of the formative assessment.

The dependent variable: students success in both cases, before and after the application of the formative assessment.

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Students' success before the application of the formative assessment	2.3826	115	1.32839	.12387
	Students' success after the application of the formative assessment	2.8261	115	1.37178	.12792

Table# 6 the mean of students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment

The table above shows that the mean of the students' success before the application of the formative assessment was 2.38 and the mean of the students' success after the application of the formative assessment was 2.82

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Students' success before the application of the formative assessment & Students' success after the application of the formative assessment	115	.927	.000

Table# 7 the correlation between students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment

The table above shows that the correlation is positive 0.92, it means that the students who had high grades before the application of formative assessment had also high grades after the application of the formative assessment.

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	T	df	
Pair 1	Students' success before the application of the formative assessment - Students' success after the application of the formative assessment	-.44348	.51625	.04814	-.53884	-.34811	-9.212	114	.000

Table# 8 the difference of the means, standard deviation and p-value

The table above shows the difference of the means that is -443 and standard deviation 0,51, t=-9,21 with interval of df= 114 and the p –value (sig.2 tailed), p=0. If 0 < 0.05 the null hypothesis is rejected, in this case p = 0. So, there is a difference in the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment.

The use of Independent sample t test

A factor that could affect students' success could be their gender. To see whether there exists a difference on students' success between boy and girls were used the Independent sample t test to analyze the data that was collected for this study.

The research question:

Is there a statistical difference between the mean of the students' success based on their gender before the application of the formative assessment?

The null hypothesis, Ho: the mean of boys' success before the application of the formative assessment = the mean of girls' success before the application of the formative assessment.

So, there is no difference between the means of the students' success based on their gender.

An alternative hypothesis raise based on the null hypothesis

Ha: the mean of boys' success before the application of the formative assessment ≠ the mean of girls' success before the application of the formative assessment.

So, there exists a difference between the means of the students' success based on their gender.

Group Statistics

	Participants' gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students' success before the application of the formative assessment	Girls	63	2.6667	1.33199	.16781
	Boys	52	2.0385	1.25185	.17360

Table # 9 the mean of students' success before and after the application of formative assessment

The table above shows that the mean of the girls' success was 2.66 and the mean of the boys' success was 2.03, so it was not the same. So, at the beginning, before the application of formative assessment, the mean of girls' success was higher than the mean of boys' success. To see if the difference is statistically significant will be analyzed the results given in the table below.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Students' success before the application of the formative assessment	Equal variances assumed	2.009	.159	2.586	113	.011	.62821	.24290	.14698	1.10943
	Equal variances not assumed			2.602	111.069	.011	.62821	.24145	.14976	1.10665

Table# 10 the table of T test data

The table above shows F test 2.009 and the p value for this F test, p= 0.15. If p> 0.05 equal variances assumed. In this case, since the coefficient of the statistical significance for this test is 0.15> 0.05 equal variances assumed and the results of the first row are used. So the t test is 2.58 and the coefficient of the statistical differences for the t test is p = 0.01

If the p< 0.05 the null is rejected

In this case 0.01<0.05, so the null hypothesis that the mean of boys and girls' success is the same is rejected, so their means are statistically different.

The use of t test after the application of formative assessment

To see if there exists a difference between the mean of boys and girls' success before and after the application of formative assessment the same test was used also to analyze the students' success after the application of the formative assessment.

The research question:

Is there a statistical difference between the mean of the students' success based on their gender after the application of formative assessment?

The null hypothesis, Ho: the mean of boys' success after the application of the formative assessment = the mean of girls' success after the application of the formative assessment.

So, there is no difference between the means of the students' success based on their gender after the application of the formative assessment.

An alternative hypothesis raise based on the null hypothesis

Ha: the mean of boys' success after the application of the formative assessment ≠ the mean of girls' success after the application of the formative assessment.

So, there exists a difference between the means of the students' success based on their gender.

Group Statistics

	Gjinia e pjesëmarrësve	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students' success after the application of the formative assessment	vajzë	63	3.1746	1.36239	.17165
	djalë	52	2.4038	1.27202	.17640

Table # 11 the mean of students' success before and after the application of formative assessment

The table above shows that the mean of the girls' success was 3.17 and the mean of the boys' success was 2.40, so it was not the same. So, after the application of formative assessment, the mean of girls' success was higher than the mean of boys' success. To see if the difference is statistically significant will be analyzing the results given in the table below.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Students' success after the application of the formative assessment	Equal variances assumed	1.315	.254	3.111	113	.002	.77076	.24776	.27990	1.26161
	Equal variances not assumed			3.132	111.255	.002	.77076	.24613	.28305	1.25846

Table# 12 the table of T test data

The table above shows F test 1.31 and the p value of this F test, p= 0.25. If p> 0.05 equal variances assumed. In this case, since the coefficient of the statistical significance for this test is 0.25 > 0.05 equal variances assumed and the results of the first row are used. So the t test is 3.11 and the coefficient of the statistical differences for the t test is p = 0.02

If the p< 0.05 the null is rejected

In this case 0.02<0.05, so the null hypothesis that the mean of boys and girls' success after the application of formative assessment is the same is rejected, so their means are statistically different.

So in both cases, before and after the application of formative assessment the mean of boys and girls' success was different.

Conclusion

The comparison of students' success before and after the application of formative assessment was used to make it more obvious the effect of formative assessment in students' success. Three types of statistical tests were used to analyze the results of the data that were gathered for this study. Based on the Wilcoxon test formative assessment had a positive effect on students' success because just one of the student had better grades before than after the application of formative assessment, there were 62 students who had the same grade in both cases, they did not get higher grades but they neither get lower grades. Students who got the highest grade before and after the application of formative assessment were part of this group as well, it means that these students, had no chance to get higher grades after the application of the formative assessment because the grade that they had at the beginning of the study was the highest grade. The application of formative assessment had a positive effect for 52 students, who after the application of formative assessment got higher

grades that they had before the application of formative assessment. So, there was a difference the mean of students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment. Based on the Paired sample t test the correlation between the students' success before and after the application of formative assessment was positive, but the mean of the students' success before and after the application of formative assessment was different. Moreover, the p value = 0 rejects the null hypothesis, so there is a difference in the students' success before and after the application of the formative assessment. Based on the application of the independent sample t test the null hypothesis that the mean of boys and girls' success is the same is rejected, so their means are statistically different both before and after the application of formative assessment.

Suggestions and Recommendations

Formative assessment is just one type of assessment there are other types of assessment as well that could affect the students' success. The same methodology can be used to study the effect of other types of assessment or the effect of assessment in general on students' success. The same methodology can also be used also for similar studies in other school subject, English language is just one of the school subject. Studies in other school subjects might give different results.

Limitations

This study took place just in one primary school. If in the study had participated students from other schools, or also other citiesl, the results might have been different in comparison with the results of the study. So, a limitation of this study might be the number of the participants

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Entrepreneurial Learning in Higher Education: Perceptions, Realities and Collaborative Work from the Stakeholder Point of View

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Abstract

In recent years, Portuguese universities have diversified their strategies for the promotion of entrepreneurial education among (under/post) graduates, both through formal education and non- formal and informal activities. Indeed, Higher Education Institutions can provide entrepreneurial learning opportunities for students, stimulating new attitudes and behaviours towards entrepreneurship. In terms of non-formal and informal learning, various types of activity are of particular significance, and include entrepreneurship promotion and skills-based training, as well as monitoring of the development of ideas and projects. These activities are undertaken by various higher education stakeholders and key-actors, who contribute to the construction of an entrepreneurial ecosystem, and increase entrepreneurial spirit in (under/post) graduates. The research reported here is based on the main findings gathered from the ongoing project "Entrepreneurial Learning, Cooperation and the Labour Market: Good Practices in Higher Education (POAT-FSE)", focusing particularly on the results of a survey questionnaire completed by a diverse sample of entities linked to Portuguese public Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and working to promote non-formal and informal entrepreneurial activities, as well as a set of case studies carried out regarding examples of best practice in Portuguese Higher Education. In doing so, this paper aims to highlight the importance of non-formal and informal learning, and to contribute to reflection on the added value of inter-organizational cooperation and collaborative work.

Keywords: Higher Education; Labour Market; Non-formal and Informal Entrepreneurial Learning; Stakeholders; Cooperation and collaborative work.

Introduction

This paper aims to explore the importance of non-formal/ informal entrepreneurial learning within an academic context. It also aims to understand the role of academic stakeholders in the process of designing, implementing, monitoring and assessing these entrepreneurship promotion experiences and initiatives, focusing on the collaborative dynamics created between them.

Today, stakeholders agree that the success of entrepreneurial learning depends not only on the learner's skillset, but also the ability to build solid partnership networks in fields such as innovation, technologies and employment. Recent studies on the impact of entrepreneurship training in the academic context underline the positive effects of entrepreneurship education on student and graduate mindsets, on their attitude towards entrepreneurship, their employability and their general role in society and the economy (EC, 2012).

Entrepreneurship is increasingly becoming an alternative means of entering the labour market. This increased significance and visibility is reflected in both European and Portuguese directives, particularly those aimed at Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) (Marques, Moreira, 2013; Amaral, Magalhães, 2002).

With this in mind, several Higher Education Institutions have placed an emphasis on programs, strategies and initiatives which aim to stimulate a creative attitude, as well as developing entrepreneurial skills among their students in order to improve their chances of finding employment. New entrepreneurial learning models and methodologies (as well as more general skills, such as flexibility, creativity and problem solving), have been adopted in order to foster the necessary attitude and behaviour among students. Such models and methodologies also take into account their field of study and training.

Although entrepreneurial learning is a new, underdeveloped trend in some areas, countries such as Belgium, Finland and Sweden have understood its importance, including it either in programs of study, or in teacher training. This enables HEIs to foster the acquisition of entrepreneurial knowledge, skills and attitudes, chiefly by integrating this into existing programs.

However, these attitudes and skills may also be encouraged in different ways, including informal and non-formal strategies to promote entrepreneurial learning. These include internships, international mobility experiences, participation in civic associations and numerous initiatives (such as workshops, idea contests, entrepreneurial prizes, etc.), as well as other cultural, social and scientific events. It is believed that these strategies could play an important role in increasing a student's prospect of making a successful transition to the labour market.

The latest studies in the field of entrepreneurial learning demonstrate that the involvement of several stakeholders has created a positive dynamic within the HEI context (Matlay, 2009). This dynamic means that entrepreneurial learning has been strengthened in terms of innovation, technology transfer and business creation. This direct stimulation was accompanied by the establishment of new academic structures and interfaces in the field of entrepreneurship/employment (for example, entrepreneurship offices, entrepreneurship centres, innovation and knowledge transfer centres, entrepreneurship clubs), which work in close collaboration with several stakeholders (e.g. business, industry associations, local communities, NGOs) to support entrepreneurial learning. This has led to increased provision of extracurricular activities and aid, providing students with knowledge acquired by these key players from practical experience and skills networks.

1. Link EES research project: general lines of investigation, objectives and methodological design

1.1. General lines of investigation and objectives

Although numerous initiatives and entrepreneurship programs exist, to our knowledge, no study carried out in Portugal has placed a focus on the analysis of non-formal and informal learning, in order to understand its potential for entrepreneurial skill development - something which could make a difference to the daily lives of young people, in terms of their access to, and growth within, the job market, or, alternatively enable them to build a career based on self-employment, or found their own company.

The overarching aim of the Link.EES research project is to help give non-formal and informal learning renewed visibility and relevance, based upon paradigm of lifelong entrepreneurial education. It is understood that non-formal and informal learning takes place alongside education and training systems (EC, 2000). In practice, this type of learning is dynamic and, as such, covers a wide range of initiatives to enable personal and professional development. These may encompass various rationales and objectives in terms of student/graduate training, including awareness raising (for example, through participation in internships or other professional experiences, extracurricular activities, youth associations, mobility programs, events organization and volunteering, among others); specific training for self-employment/ starting a business (courses or training modules); and mentoring and monitoring of the execution of projects (for example, incubation, mentoring, technical and expert advice).

The study presented in this paper was the result of extensive mapping of non-formal and informal experiences and entrepreneurial learning initiatives between 2007 and 2013. It is based on a dual approach, looking at: (i) non-formal and informal entrepreneurial learning within existing HEI entrepreneurship programs and their ability to generate the relevant entrepreneurial skills sought by the labour market; (ii) the collaborative dynamics of the various key actors and stakeholders in the three planned phases of the entrepreneurial learning process, and their degree of involvement in entrepreneurship programs from their design and implementation, to the monitoring and evaluation of entrepreneurial experiences, in order to understand the main constraining factors and the inter-organizational capacity for collaboration. Once the mapping phase was complete, an online survey was sent to stakeholders in Portuguese public HEIs, preceded by the selection of twelve case studies to be analysed in-depth through a series of interviews. Finally, using the Delphi technique, we attempted to establish a set of skills considered relevant by the stakeholders for graduates entering the labour market, whether as employees or self-employed/starting their own business.

The principal objective of the study was to underline the importance of non-formal and informal entrepreneurial learning within the higher education context. This general objective was subdivided into a set of more specific objectives such as (i)

mapping the non-formal and informal entrepreneurial learning experiences taking place in Portuguese HEIs (2007-2013); (ii) identifying a set of best practices in higher education, i.e. projects/initiatives to promote non-formal and informal learning of entrepreneurship; (iii) compiling a list of entrepreneurial skills from the stakeholder point of view; and (iv) encouraging broader reflection on the added value of the dynamics of cooperation and partnerships between the actors involved.

1.2. Methodological design

The methodological design established in order to fulfil the study objectives was based on triangulation of sources, observational plans and a combination of different investigative techniques over four distinct, but complimentary stages of research.

In an initial exploratory phase, the methodology focused on exhaustive research regarding non-formal and informal entrepreneurial experiences and initiatives taking place within Portuguese higher education institutions, using information available online and on the respective websites of these institutions. This preliminary stage was particularly important in this study, first of all because there was no organized data regarding the main stakeholders involved in the academic context. For example, information regarding the number of institutions, their legal status, mission statement, practical approach with regards non-formal entrepreneurship education, partnerships, etc. was not available. Having completed this initial research, the study currently includes 57 entities, all of which belong to the Portuguese (university and polytechnic) public higher education system. This mapping was also essential at the later stage, when analysing the operational and organizational methods of these stakeholders in the field of entrepreneurial learning.

The rest of the study's methodology is divided into three basic stages, and in this paper only results from the first two steps will be employed. The sequence of the study design is as follows: Stage I - completion of an online survey, enabling the collection of detailed and consistent information about stakeholder contexts; Stage II - conduction of twelve case studies, i.e., selection of entities/experiences considered to be models of the promotion of non-formal and informal entrepreneurial learning and in-depth interviews with their respective key actors; Stage III - compiling of a list of entrepreneurial skills and validation by academic stakeholders.

2. Entrepreneurial Learning: cooperation and the labour market - key findings

2.1 Main results of the quantitative component: the online survey

The study of the quantitative component began with the identification of the heads of existing entrepreneurship programs and support organizations within Portuguese public HEIs (university and polytechnic). At this first stage, 57 agencies were contacted to complete the online survey and a 70.7% participation rate was achieved.

The entrepreneurial ecosystem within Portuguese public higher education was described according to a set of variables: geographical distribution, year of foundation, organizational designation, legal status, existing services, geographic focus of activity, size of the entities (human resources) and evaluation of the autonomy and degree of commitment in relation to the HEIs.

Using the survey data we were able to identify a higher concentration of key players in the North, Centre and Lisbon regions. This concentration profile is consistent with the highest population density, highest density of businesses and HEIs, and greater economic development on a national scale.

In terms of how the actors view their role within the organizational setup, we found that almost half define themselves as an interface/S&T transfer unit (24.4%) or centre/office for innovation and/or entrepreneurship (24.4%). In contrast, only a minority define themselves as an incubator for companies (2.4%), revealing the low level of attention these entities afford to the third stage of the entrepreneurial learning (mentoring and monitoring).

Regarding legal status, more than half are either a school or department of a HEI (university/polytechnic) (51.2%). This is followed by private, non-profit associations (31.7%). These entities are mostly of micro-size when we consider their human resources: 73.2% of these organizations has less than 10 employees.

With regard to the age of the entities responsible for entrepreneurship programs and support infrastructures within HEIs, it was found that more than half of these entities were established in the 2000s. We are, therefore, looking at relatively young entities, whose first year of activity was between 2001 and 2010. It is worth noting here that just 4.9% of these entities came into existence before the 1980s.

Of the principal services provided by these key players, the most important are as follows: firstly, provision of information on funding, programs and initiatives; secondly, development of entrepreneurship training activities (courses, workshops, e-learning); thirdly, support in submitting formal applications for projects and developing business plans; and, fourthly, conducting awareness raising and information sessions (seminars and conferences).

The data also reveals that in terms of key stakeholders perceptions regarding the functioning and performance of the HEI in which they are employed, most respondents consider their degree of autonomy from the university or polytechnic as being partial (56.1%). Furthermore, 31.7% report that they have little (19.5%) or no (12.2%) autonomy from the HEI to which they are connected, practical and operational terms.

This low level of organizational autonomy goes hand in hand with the high degree of commitment of these entities to designing and carrying out activities in accordance with the mission of the university/polytechnic within which they operate, 70.7% stating that their level of commitment is total.

In this study, we considered it relevant to distinguish the positioning of the entities with regards the three stages of entrepreneurial learning, namely: (i) awareness raising; (ii) training; (iii) mentoring and monitoring (incubators). Information gathered as to how the entities positioned themselves within the three-phase approach to entrepreneurial learning does not follow a clear line. However, there was a greater concentration of positive responses for activities such as (i) organization of information and awareness raising sessions dedicated to the topic of entrepreneurship (92.7%), (ii) organization of entrepreneurship training activities (courses, workshops, e-learning, etc.) (87.8%) and (iii) promotion and/or participation in the organization of idea competitions (85.4%).

That is to say that many of these organizations centre their activity on the awareness raising and training phases, although some activities related to mentoring and monitoring do exist. This finding is hardly surprising, since the activities included in this latter phase are more complex, both in organizational and financial terms, and are often not yet provided by these entities, in part due to their short time in existence.

Three participant profiles were identified in terms of the development of entrepreneurship initiatives: students, graduates and teachers. This finding reveals that there is strong participation from those directly related to the HEIs, with a low number of participants from outside these institutions, particularly those who fall into the category of "professionals".

As for the participant fields of study, there was a clear predominance of participants from engineering, computer science and technology-related areas (30.5%), as well as economics and business studies (19.0%). In other words, we are dealing with study fields which appear to be more aware of the question of entrepreneurship, and which are traditionally seen as the most "entrepreneurial".

We also considered a wide range of organizational factors related to entrepreneurship initiatives, paying particular attention to assessing the adequacy of existing resources for the development of these initiatives, their main funding sources, the degree of participation of the target groups in the various initiatives and, finally, the perception of the entities with regards the impact of the initiatives in place.

In terms is assessing the adequacy of existing resources for the development of current activities, it was concluded that the respondents consider the resources (human, financial, logistics/materials, infrastructure and means of dissemination/disclosure) to be "adequate" or "very adequate". However, this perceived level of adequacy was noted to be lower with regards financial resources and advertising.

Focusing in detail at the area of financial resources, the main sources of funding for the initiatives in question were their own revenues (32.9%), and patronage or sponsorship from private entities (22.0%). Only 7.3% of respondents stated "transfer of funds from the HEI" to within which they operate as their main source of funding. This figure is curious, especially if we consider the low degree of autonomy from HEIs. Such findings reveal that the high degree of commitment indicated may not be strictly a question of finance, maybe instead relating to other issues, including legal ones.

The entities consider the participation rates of the target-groups to be moderate (58.5%). This assessment may indicate that there is a need for investment in this area, in order to bring about an increase in this rate.

The main problems identified by the key players when implementing these initiatives mainly concern issues such as the management of extended teams, coordination of timings and agendas within the partnerships and collaborations with other organizations, lack of motivation for the subject of entrepreneurship among students and faculty, low rates of student participation in extracurricular activities (partly due to their already high workload), difficulties in mobilizing/involving others, difficulties when advertising initiatives, shortage of resources, including human, financial and material, the complexity of the processes for securing funding for these initiatives, as well as the presence of some resistance to the subject of entrepreneurship.

In terms of the way in which entities perceive the impact of the initiatives in place, they note a significant impact on the following factors: (i) stimulation of a creative and entrepreneurial mindset, (ii) development of entrepreneurial skills and (iii) raising of awareness about support and funding available for entrepreneurship. In contrast, they believe that the impact on the following factors is minor: (i) creation of entrepreneurial support networks, (ii) stimulation of R&D activities and (iii) the emergence of social enterprise/3rd sector.

With regards the main partners, we found that the majority of respondents work in dynamic collaboration with similar units within other institutions/HEIs, with business/commercial/industrial associations and public authorities promoting entrepreneurship, as well as with economic agents/entrepreneurs.

The main advantages of these collaborative dynamics, as perceived by the actors, concern access to broader and more diverse information, improved awareness/marketing of the activities offered by the entities, gathering of knowledge regarding new practices and working methods, and optimization of the available resources and facilities.

Although the benefits of establishing collaborative dynamics are recognized, some difficulties and obstacles concerning cooperation activities were noted. Indeed, 48.8% of academic stakeholder respondents reported having faced difficulties when developing cooperation activities. These included problems regarding communication, management of intellectual property and competitiveness, as well as differing levels of motivation and expectations, different working methods, the different financial capacities of the collaborating entities, different organizational models (time management, schedules, scheduling of activities, institutional goals and mission statements, administrative and bureaucratic procedures), legal, and cultural differences in the case of international cooperation.

2.2 Main results of the qualitative component of the study: case studies

In the second stage of the project, twelve case studies were carried out. The initial selection criteria for case studies were: (i) potential for transferability to other people/ contexts, i.e., demonstrating a "multiplier effect" applicable to different social groups and socio-economic environments; (ii) uniqueness of the initiative, examples demonstrating new forms of innovation (social and technological innovation and services); (iii) examples demonstrating good practice in terms of their ability to rejuvenate more traditional industries, providing added value and/or highlighting new market niches; diversity of "legal/organizational entities" and actor profiles (entrepreneurship club, support office, etc.); (iv) cases in which activities carried out demonstrate the three phases of entrepreneurial learning as established in this study.

In order to prepare a general characterization of case studies, a number of dimensions have been taken into account, including geographical distribution, the main impetus for the creation of these entities/initiatives, the focus of activity, and the operating models of the organizations – as for the quantitative aspects.

In geographical terms, the case studies are again concentrated in the North, Centre and Lisbon regions, confirming the trend revealed in the previous component. As for the motivations for creating such entities/initiatives, respondents suggest that the principal reasons are the need to create an interface between academia, industry and the community; the need to strengthen formal entrepreneurial learning; the need to aid the integration of graduates into the labour market, by developing skills such as creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship. In some cases, there was also an impetus to reinforce the economic and social potential of regions through the knowledge transfer and technology, and by encouraging the student population to remain in the area after completing their degrees. Another factor was the need to encourage more sustained monitoring and support for companies, ideas and projects originating in HEIs; and to provide alternatives to standard employment.

In some cases, participants also mentioned that entities/initiatives came into being as the result of a favourable political climate, in particular incentives provided by the National Institute of Industrial Property (INPI) to create Support Offices for the Promotion of Industrial Property/Technology and Innovation and Knowledge Transfer Offices (GAPI / OTIC).

In terms of the way in which entities categorize the focus of their activity in relation to the different stages of entrepreneurial learning, we once again noted that they found it difficult to align themselves exclusively with a specific phase. Six of the twelve cases studied consider their activity to be focused on all three stages (awareness raising, training, mentoring and monitoring), and three of the twelve cases consider that the focus of their activities is mainly on the awareness raising and training stages.

In terms of the main forms of organizational operation, specifically the employment structure of these organizations/initiatives, a variety of different situations were identified with regards predominant contractual relationship. On the one hand, in some entities, activities are carried out by permanent full-time employees. On the other hand, according to the annual activity plan, some entities have a low number of employees, which varies over time. In some, personnel carry out their work through research grants and training courses. It is also worth highlighting that many of these organizations stated that their human resources have no direct contractual relationship with the entity, but with the HEIs to which they belong. This is the case with many teachers, researchers and technical specialists who also take on tasks related to these organizations in addition to their core activities. Finally, in some cases, it was noted that activities carried out by these entities relied on the voluntary cooperation of students.

In terms of the size of these bodies, we noticed a great deal of variation. In the case studies, we observed the existence of structures with a minimum of two employees and a maximum of over ninety, which ultimately reveals the different capacities for promoting activity to stimulate entrepreneurship within the HEI context.

As regards internal organizational factors inhibiting more efficient operation, the following, referred to by the key actors, stand out as examples: the dependency relationship with the HEIs (funding and recruitment of personnel); the vulnerability to strategic visions and the centrality given to this issue by the governing bodies of the entities; lack of technical specialists dedicated exclusively to these organizations/initiatives (strong dependency on the voluntary work of teachers); low budgets for the implementation of activities; and few or no existing examples of the informal monitoring of activities.

Regarding collaborative dynamics, the question of formality when establishing partnerships was raised. Based on the twelve interviews conducted with the heads of the entities, we reached the conclusion that these dynamics are the very essence of their activity. This means, by definition, that their mission statement is based on the creation and establishment of collaborative networks and partnerships.

Such collaboration tends to survive on the basis of a small number of formal agreements and partnerships, with more emphasis being placed on the establishment of informal partnerships, thus highlighting the importance given to informal social relations, which are essential in such dynamics. Likewise, it was concluded that the formalization of these partnerships, either through the establishment of protocols, or through explicit partnership fostering strategy within the organizations, is not a priority for these entities. Furthermore, some difficulties concerning collaborative work were pointed out. These were mainly in relation to the size of networks, i.e., the larger the network of partners involved (within the dynamics of a given initiative, for example), the greater the difficulties associated with the management of time and work schedules, and the management of (differing) expectations and motivations.

Plus, taking into account the intrinsic heterogeneity which has been revealed in terms of organizations, the greater the diversity of partners, the greater the degree of variation there will be between the financial capacities of the entities involved. A final aspect stated as a complicating factor in partnership work relates to competition between peers. In some cases, it was noted that the fact that these entrepreneurship promotion entities have similar aims results in competition, particularly in terms of access to funding and other forms of support services.

In terms of the main partners in collaboration/partnership networks, respondents mainly cited public sector institutions, such as local authorities, the Institute of Employment and Vocational Training (IEFP), the Institute for Support to Small and Medium Enterprises and Innovation (IAPMEI) and the Agency for Innovation (AdI). As for private sector partnerships, the most commonly mentioned were the business community and other private entities aiming to promote entrepreneurship.

With the in-depth component of the study, we aimed to understand the attitudes of the key stakeholders interviewed towards non-formal and informal experience (as opposed to formal). On the whole, it was concluded that the entities studied believe this type of experience to be highly important, arguing that there is a need for investment in the development of this form of learning, in order to address specific weaknesses identified in the training of students and graduates, especially with regards sustained and empirical knowledge of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial activity in Portugal.

Regarding the role of the HEIs in promoting initiatives/strategies to arouse interest in entrepreneurship among students/graduates, taking place within the academic context, key actors highlight the need to improve communication channels between actors within the university, and between the university and the outside world; greater involvement with companies, notably by incorporating enterprise projects at Secondary School level; the need to promote an entrepreneurial mindset among the faculty; the need to foster greater proximity to the real world, putting students and graduates in contact with entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial networks as well as those who have had less successful experiences, in order to promote better management of frustration and failure; and the introduction of more activities that encourage creativity and idea generation. Finally, they also referred to the importance of "formality", that is, the need to initially encourage HEIs to include courses on entrepreneurship in the curriculum.

Concluding remarks

From the results of this study, we were able to corroborate the importance of involving various academic stakeholders both in the implementation and the promotion of non-formal and informal entrepreneurial learning within the HEI context.

Within what we have identified as the Portuguese entrepreneurial ecosystem in public higher education, these key stakeholders have contributed to the creation of an environment favouring a culture of innovation and entrepreneurship. This is evidenced in the present study by the way they position themselves in relation to the three-phase approach to entrepreneurial learning, namely: (i) in awareness raising; (ii) in specific training; (iii) in mentoring and monitoring of business ideas/self-employment (incubators). From the results produced by our extensive research, it is not possible to speak of an alignment in the positioning of these key actors with regards entrepreneurial learning, given the great number of learning activities put in place between 2007 and 2013. Activities tended mainly to focus on the organization of support sessions; entrepreneurial training sessions (courses, workshops, e-learning, etc.); promotion or participation in the organization of idea contests. Less attention appears to have been given to activities such as mentoring and monitoring of business ideas, which may be explained by the lack of complexity within these entities, both on the organizational and the financial level, (however, such lack of complexity can also be explained by their youth as companies).

Further investigation of a set of 12 examples of "best practices" allowed us to note the increasing transfer of technology and knowledge between universities and R&D centres and the economy and society, as well as increasingly dynamic cooperation between various entities. From the interviews conducted with institutional leaders in the case studies, it was possible to corroborate the existence of inter-institutional networks, mainly with other public institutions such as local authorities, the Institute of Employment and Vocational Training (IEFP), the Institute for Support to Small and Medium Enterprises and Innovation (IAPMEI) and the Agency for Innovation (AdI). As for the private sector, partnerships with the business community and other private entities to promote entrepreneurship were also mentioned.

We believe that this study has the ability to expand our knowledge of non-formal and informal entrepreneurial learning in higher education, and can contribute to new reflection on the actions and initiatives undertaken so far. What's more, it could provide useful information on the enhancement of links between institutions, and the development of new models of governance based on networks of inter-institutional partnerships. Such an approach would be more compatible with future development of Intelligent Strategies (RIS3), based on enhanced collective knowledge, innovation and global, market-oriented skill transfer.

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The Analysis of the Emotional Maturity of the Adolescent Students in Different Schools of the Republic of Kosova

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Abstract

This paper presents an empirical research into the emotional maturity of the adolescent students in different schools of the Republic of Kosova. For this purpose, the samples of the adolescent students from two regions, who belong to four different schools of the Republic of Kosova, have been taken for this review.The group that was chosen for an analysis was the group of structured students who belonged to the 12th class as follows: 50 female students and 50 male students as well as the group composed of 50 female students and 50 male students who belonged to the 10th class. The Secondary Technical School "28 November" and the Gymnasium ,, Sami Frashëri'' have been selected for an analysis in the city of Prishtina while the Philological Gymnasium ,,Zenel Hajdini'' and the Secondary Technical School ,,Mehmet Isai''have been selected for an analysis in the city of Gjilan. The reason for such a selection is to compare the empirical results of the emotional maturity in different regions of the country and to analyze the sample of the vocational schools and gymnasiums.

Key words: emotional maturity, adolescence, school

INTRODUCTION

The human's emotional maturity presents the control of human's emotional experiences and reactions as well as human's conscious efforts to obliterate those experiences. The emotional maturity is measured by tests which are used to have knowledge of the individual's emotional maturity. The knowledge of the students' emotional maturity is of great significance for teachers in order to be able to deal with students intelligently. The emotional maturity of the students has been analyzed in two gymnasiums and two secondary vocational schools in two cities of the Republic of Kosova (Prishtina and Gjilan) .

The research into emotional maturity has been carried out with the students of the 12th class respectively the sample of 50 male students and 50 female students from the abovementioned schools. The empirical research continued with the same sample of the students who belonged to the 10th class. It was used the standard test for testing emotional maturity to do this research into the emotional maturity. This test contains 25 questions with YES and NO answers. It is gained a different number of points for every answer which are not known during the testing process. The individual's emotional maturity derives from the ratio of total number of gained points and the number of questions. The selection of this sample aims at analyzing the impact of the age and gender on emotional maturity.

Material and methods:

At the Gymnasium **,,Sami Frashëri''** in Prishtina are registered mainly the students who have had a better success at the primary school. The emotional maturity test of the students of this school was taken on 06.05.2015 with the sample of the same age groups that consisted of 50 female students and 50 male students who belonged to the 12th class. From the review and the analysis of the tests came out that: the average emotional maturity of female students is 19.13 while the average emotional maturity of male students is 17.95. The average maturity of the sample of 100 students is 18.54 that corresponds with a normal emotional situation . According to Table no 1, the emotional maturity, for both genders, of these students was ascertained to be satisfactory. Thus, the emotional maturity of females is about 6.6 % higher than the average

emotional maturity of the males of the same age group. It is important to be highlighted the considerable difference between the females and males as regards the emotional maturity.

The emotional maturity of the female students who belonged to the 10th class is 17.954 while the emotional maturity of the male students is 17.92 so there is a slight difference between both genders as regards the emotional maturity. The average maturity of the sample of 100 students is 17.934 that corresponds with a normal emotional situation.

The average maturity of the sample of 200 students to the 10th and 12th class is 18.238.

From the empirical results comes out that the emotional maturity progresses in parallel with the age. It can be noticed a higher increase as regards the emotional maturity of the female students that is 6.6% compared with the emotional maturity of the male students that is 0.16%.

The emotional maturity test at the Philological Gymnasium **,,Zenel Hajdini ''** in Gjilan was taken on 28.04.2015 with the sample of the same age groups that consisted of 50 female students and 50 male students who belonged to the 12th class. The analysis of the tests shows as follows: the average emotional maturity of males is 18.387 while the average emotional maturity of females from the same sample was ascertained to be 18.935. The emotional maturity, for both genders, of these students was ascertained to be satisfactory and it is 18.66. Thus, the emotional maturity of females is about 2.98 % higher than the average emotional maturity of males of the same age group.

The same sample for the students who belonged to the 10th class shows that: the emotional maturity of males is 17.958 (Fig.1) while the emotional maturity of females is 19.291(Fig.2). It comes out that the emotional maturity of females is about 7.4 % higher than the emotional maturity of males. The average maturity of the sample of 200 students to the 10th and 12th class is 18.63.

The emotional maturity test at the Secondary Technical School **,, Mehmet Isai ''** in Gjilan was also taken on 28.04.2015 with the sample of the same age groups that consisted of 50 female students and 50 male students who belonged to the 12th class. From the review and the analysis of the tests came out that: the average emotional maturity of male students is 18.15 while the average emotional maturity of female students in the sample of 50 females is 17.94. The average emotional maturity, for both genders, of these students was ascertained to be satisfactory and it is 18.04. Thus, the emotional maturity of males is about 2.92 % higher than the average emotional maturity of 50 females of the same age group.

The same sample for the students who belonged to the 10th class shows that: the emotional maturity of males is 18.09 while the emotional maturity of females is 18.68. It comes out that the emotional maturity of females is about 3.26 % higher than the emotional maturity of the males.

The average maturity of the sample of 200 students to the 10th and 12th class is 18.21.

The emotional maturity test at the Secondary Technical School **,, 28 November''** in Prishtina was also taken on 05.05.2015 with the sample of the same age groups that consisted of 50 female students and 50 male students who belonged to the 12th class. From the review and the analysis of the tests came out that: the average emotional maturity of male students is 17.906 while the average emotional maturity of female students in the sample is 18.818. The average emotional maturity, for both genders, of these students was ascertained to be satisfactory and it is 18.362. Thus, the emotional maturity of females is about 5.09 % higher than the average emotional maturity of the males of the same age group.

After the review of the tests, the same sample for the students who belonged to the 10th class shows that: the emotional maturity of males is 17.59 while the emotional maturity of females is 17.95. It comes out that the emotional maturity of females is about 2 % higher than the emotional maturity of males.

The average maturity of the sample of 200 students to the 10th and 12th class is 18.066.An empirical review with the same sample that consisted of 50 female students and 50 males students who belonged to the 10th class was carried out in 2011, too. From these analyses came out that the emotional maturity of females is 17.83 while the emotional maturity of males is 17.6. If we compare the results achieved in 2015 and the results achieved in 2011, it comes out that there is a slight increase or more concretely 0.67% as regards the emotional maturity of females while the percentage has remained the same as regards the emotional maturity of males.

Table 1: The assessment of the emotional maturity based on the number of the points gained in the questionnaire (The emotional maturity test)

It is considered a full emotional maturity when the number of points is more than	24 points
In a very good emotional situation is considered a person who has from	20 to 24 points
In a satisfactory emotional situation is considered a person who has from	16 to 20 points
In a youthful emotional situation is considered a person who has from	12 to 16 points
In a childish emotional situation is considered a person who has from	10 to 12 points
In an infantile emotional situation is considered a person who has less than:	10 points
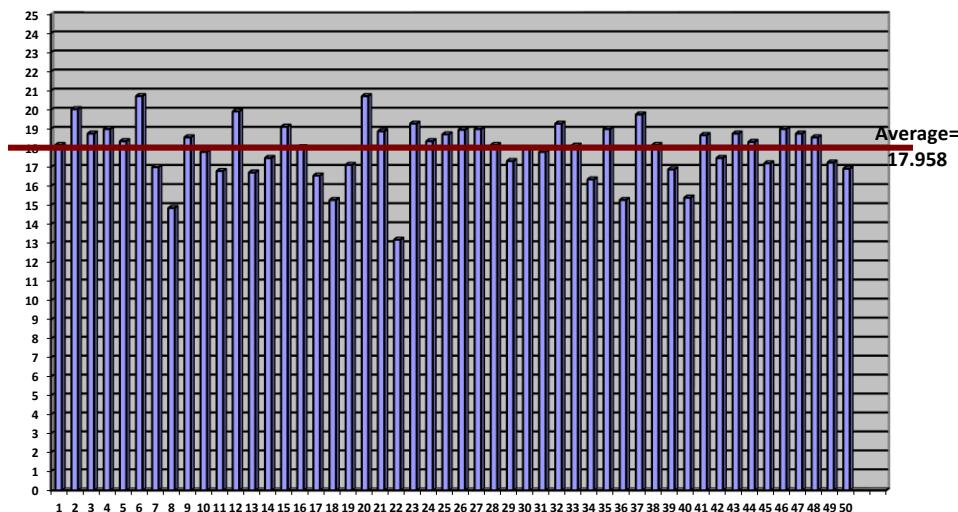
Fig.1. The emotional maturity of 50 meals, students of the 10th class of the Philological Gymnasium "ZENEL HAJDINI" në Gjilan
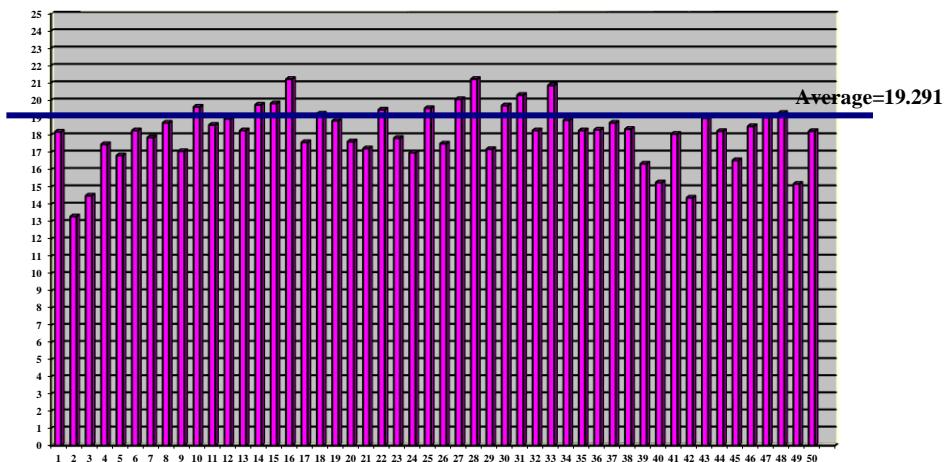
Fig.2. The emotional maturity of 50 femeals, students of the 10th class of the Philological Gymnasium "ZENEL HAJDINI" në Gjilan

SUMMARY

From the empirical researches with the structured sample of students, after the analysis of the tests for testing the emotional maturity, resulted the average emotional maturity of the adolescent students. The results of the research show that the females are more mature then the males of the same age groups. Also, these results show that the emotional maturity progresses in parallel with the age.

According to the empirical results, the average emotional maturity of the students who belong to the 10th and 12th class the Gymnasium "Zenel Hajdini" in Gjilan is the highest (18.63) while the students of the Gymnasium "Sami Frashëri" in Prishtina have demonstrated the highest emotional maturity (18.237) compared with other students who belong to the 10th and 12th class.

According to the empirical analyses of the emotional maturity of the students who belonged to the 10th class at the school "28 November" in Prishtina, made in 2011 and 2015 with the same sample, it can be noticed a slight increase in the percentage or more precisely 0.67% as regards the emotional maturity of females in 2015, compared with the results achieved in 2011, while no increase can be noticed as regards the emotional maturity of males.

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The Real Power of the Social Media, the Interpretation of the Establishing Communication Ways, as Illustrated by the Turkish Assistance during the Kosovo Crises

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Abstract

As it is always with new inventions in human history the role they play in their early stages is mostly none acknowledged before they make a more widespread impact. The social media is one of them. Due to the new aspects that this relatively new kind of media its role is mostly negligee in favors of the more vastly popular other forms. In the kind of era that we live technology means that the place where we get the information is irrelevant in the grand scheme of the things, however that does not mean that the impact is lesser or higher. To make the example more clear even though a news that the currency is going to raise or lower in the USA- for example its mostly limited to the USA citizens it has a dire impact in the rest of the world, but even though the means for this news is the generic media, the ones to give the means to understand and make amends to prepare for the consequences to the rest of the world. Due to this kind of functionality is always difficult to separate where the generic forms of the media begin and where the social media begin. What is interesting is that this function of social media begins since the first forms of the internet and it's just more pronounced nowadays. As an example of this functionality the more prominent one is the way Turkey interfered in the Kosovo Crises. More than the generic news and political affiliation at the time the most impact in the public opinion did the social media. This paper is a research in this regard. It's not very detailed and it shows a general picture of the situation and only deal with the main aspects of the behavior of the social media, however is a beginning which shows the great impact all forms of communications, especially the social media.

Key Word: Communication, Social Media, Interpretation, Media reality, Real life reality, Turkey, Kosovo.

1. INTRODUCTION

Generally when we speak of social media our first instinct is to think about the facebook, or other WebPages that promote socializing. And in a way this is true. The social media as we perceive it are the WebPages that promote interaction thru the internet, and some of these connections are bound to last a lifetime[1]. However the less promote side of the social media is that it can and actually does change the perception of the way we perceive reality.

Thru the social media we don't only find a way to interact with others, which is a necessity for the human being, and also an instinct, but the less studied aspect of the social media is how it is building trends and changing the perception of different things or matters.

Due to the somewhat impersonal type and anonymity that social networks[2] offer (you can lie about how old you are, where you live or how you look, etc) it make possible for the majority of the people to find a group to belong too and how to interact in a successful way with that group.

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Also it make able to meet people thru different countries, no matter the distance, and by doing that providing new point of views or ideas, or a simple new way to look at the world. And by doing that introduce new information to the group you are interacting with and that bring a new perspective on what you thought you knew.

Now this is a very large subject and it is not possible to make a study of it in a few pages, but there is an example that scraps the top of the iceberg and show how a few chartrooms and an exchange of information can change a whole perspective.

The case I am studding is how Turkey influence came into being during the Kosovo Crises. This is a isolated happenstance and there were different factors that contributed to it despise the social media, how the interacting way and the way it came into being is wholly due to the social media.

However this is a area that hasn't been studied enough and it needs more research and dedication, since social media nowadays is becoming a power on its own and up until now it is not controlled but being driven by momentous trends and whims of organized groups.

2.   The purpose and objectives of the study.

The object of this study is to demostrate the role that the primery forms of the social media, such as chatrooms, blogs and communities on the web played during the Kosovo crise, in not only serving as main points of information, especially for the youth of population but also in provideing help and donations to the refuges from Kosovo and how it put in touch generations separated by decades or more[1].

3.   Research question, hypothesis and methodology of the study.

This work is a description of the situation that developed in Turchey and Kosovo in 1999-2000, during the Kosovo war and the way most of the donations and information were provided by the social media more then the other legal authorities such as media or the Public media[2]. The different data was collected thru different sources, mainly statistical ones which are detailed in more depth in part fifth.

3.1.Our working hypothesis is: How the social media chnaged the perception of albanians from Kosovo living in Turchey?

3.2. The importance of this research

Even though has been many studies for the role the media played in the war of Kosovo, there is next to none regarding how the social media impact the perception of reality since the early days of its usage. The data obtained from the field and different roare processed under the program SPSS Advanced Statistics

4.   Social media in Kosovo and Turkey.

It sound strange to think about it but one of the main factors that being under the Serbian occupation brought for Kosovo, was that emigration had a very big influence in the way the internal economy was equilibrated. Most of the income was coming from the Albanians of Kosovo whom migrated outside the country, since due to the occupation the possibility for Albanians to find a job on their own country was almost impossible.[3]

So most of them migrated in Europe or Turkey, some for financial reasons and others for more existential reasons; insuring to stay alive.

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[1] Brown, E., & Cloke, J. (2004). Neoliberal reform, governance, and corruption in the South: Assessing the international anti-corruption crusade. Antipode, 36(2), 272−294.

[2] Axford, B., & Huggins, R. (2003). Towards a political sociology of the Internet and local governance. Telematics and Informatics, 20, 185−192

[3] Brown, E., & Cloke, J. (2004). Neoliberal reform, governance, and corruption in the South: Assessing the international anti-corruption crusade. Antipode, 36(2), 272−294.

There have been different fluxes before the 60th of Albanians migrating not only to Europe but also to Turkey, but up until the 1990 the contact between them as a community was sparse and missing. In most cases there were instances where families have lost connections with each other, due to this kind of migrating.

The more interesting fact that we need to specify is that Turkey and Albanians share a very close mentality, and the way they perceive life and habits is similar. Even some of the traditions are the same. However despite this, prior to 1990 the communication and information between the locals (Albanians living in Kosovo) and the outsiders (Albanians living in Turkey) was at the best way sparse.

Now this hold true until the 1990; and then with the development of the net and the first forms of the chat room and blogs, this whole picture change, and missing connections came into being once more. New communication ways were established and the lost families in most cases came into contact with each other.

The part that illustrates this best way is the way the connections were reenacted during the Kosovo crises. Most of the families that had been established there for decades and hadn't made contact with the part of the family back in the motherland came into play, precisely during this period[1].

The main way of communication were dedicated chat rooms whom purpose was to gather helps for the refugees and upholding the defensive war that was taking place in the area. Its most interesting to note that in the primary forms of the social media, its impact role is much more pronounced that in the late years[2].

A guessing thought about this output would be that the more sophisticated the technology become and the more widespread, it make it much more difficult to focus in a topic and to use it to make an impact in a precise way.

Social media and the Crises of Kosovo

The role that the media[3] played during the war of Kosovo is a much heated debate then most of the actual issues in the world; however this is not part of this research[4]. The main point of the paper is the role the social media played in providing facts and help in the aiding of the refuges of Kosovo war. The data below was collected using different resources such as statistic publications of Turkey and Kosovo Institute of statistics, and also international publications of statistics such as Gallup and World Bank.

The role of the social media is studied in the aspect of how it made the possible connections and the impact it made in connecting two communities whom even though came from the same country at the beginning were [5]separated by years of miscommunication and contact, and the role they played in upholding each other.

Even though this communication began since the early 1990 the pick time is in the 1999-2000, especially during the Kosovo Crises. It made possible not only the reconnecting of the two communities, but it also made availed the actual collaboration that exists between the two countries. Most of the investments in Kosovo come from the Turkey, and even most of the trades and business is very much connected with Turkey community.

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5.   Analyses, Data Interpretation

- According to the information gathered from different statistical data and research it shown that prior to 1990 it was this percentage of communication between Turkey Albanian Community (TAC) and the Albanian Community in Kosovo (KAC), 15% of them kept touch thru traveling every two weeks, while 15% of them had a direct family member in Kosovo whom they would see once a year, as 4% of them kept in touch thru chat rooms, while according to data shows that 66% of the

[1] Axford, B., & Huggins, R. (2003). Towards a political sociology of the Internet and local governance. Telematics and Informatics, 20, 185−192

[2] Brautigam, D. (1992). Governance, economy, and foreign aid. Studies in Comparative International Development, 27(3), 3−23.

[3] Braman, S. (2006). Change of state: Information, policy, and power. Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.

[4] Bernhard, N. E. (1993). Ready, willing, able: Network television news and the federal government, 1948-1953. In W. S. Solomon & R. W. McChesney (Eds.), Ruthlesscriticism: Newperspectives in U. S. communication history (pp. 291−312). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

[5] Bertot, J. C. (2003). The multiple dimensions of the digital divide: More than the technology 'haves' and 'have nots'. Government Information Quarterly, 20(2), 185−191.

statistic show that there were no communication contact Between TAC and KAC for years. The data that the main parts of the communities had no interaction with each-other[1].

Communication Contact Between TAC and KAC

Communication Contact Between TAC and KAC
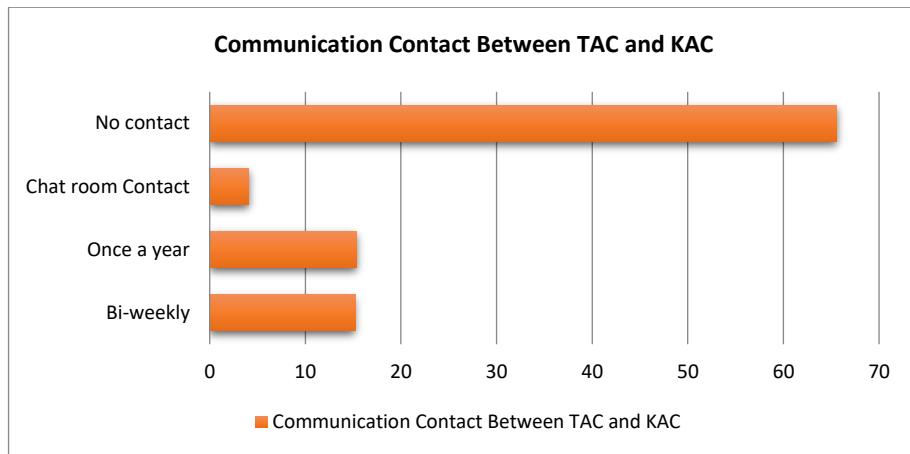
- Now the above situation change completely according to the data collected after the 1999, when the reports for communication from the statistical[2] sources come as such, 46% of the statistics show that they had gotten in touch thru the chat rooms (mostly yahoo and AOL), 23% of the TAC had gotten in touch thru main contact, while 6% of the data claim that there was direct contact between family members, whom have left Kosovo due to the crises. Only 25% of the TAC and KAC were with no communication as stated by the data. By this data we can deduce that the main point contact was made thru social media, in its primary forms for sure, but still from social media.

Communication between TAC and KAC during 1999-2000

Communication between TAC and KAC during 1999-2000
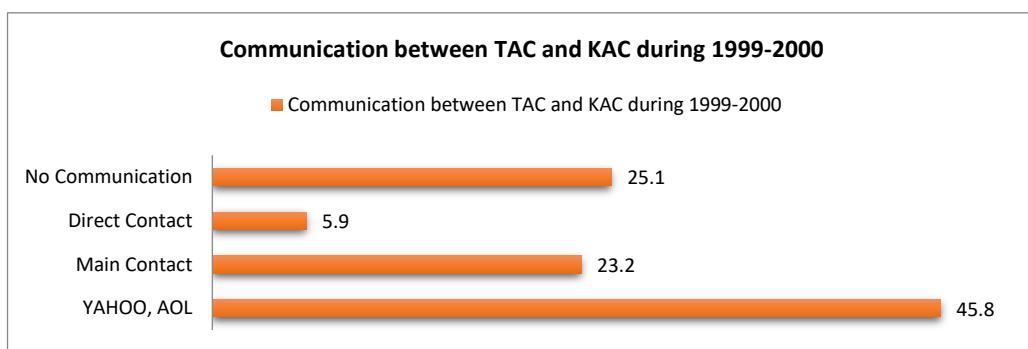
- Another interesting data that the statistics show is the way the communities impacted each other thru the humanitarian aid. The way the information was flowing shows how much impact different communities in the net brought people together. This is faced if we check the way the donations requests were answered from the TAC. 55% of the donations have been made thru direct instructions from the chat rooms and communities, followed by the 23% being made thru official channels, and 8% being made thru direct contact of the donator (they send financial aid to a family member), while 14% has been made thru international media call.

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[1] www.turkstat.gov.tr/

[2] Anechiarico, F., & Jocob, J. (1994). Vision of corruption control and the evolution of American public administration. Public Administration Review, 54(5), 463−473.

Donations forms of distribution from Turkish Albanian Community
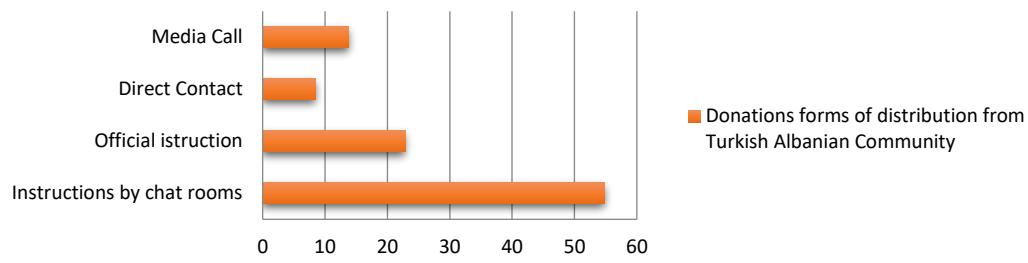
- The Next part of the data shows how did the communication ways stayed open after the 2000, between the two communities: 73% of the contact between the TAC and the KAC is being kept by social media (different forms are shown, mostly email), 1% is traveling almost weekly, 2 % of them communicate thru phone or other ways, and 24% of them shows that they have contact once a year. It is right to assume that mostly the social media is used since it is cheaper, and mostly is being used for keeping in touch for business matters between merchants, established or new enterprises.

Communication between TAC and KAC after 2000
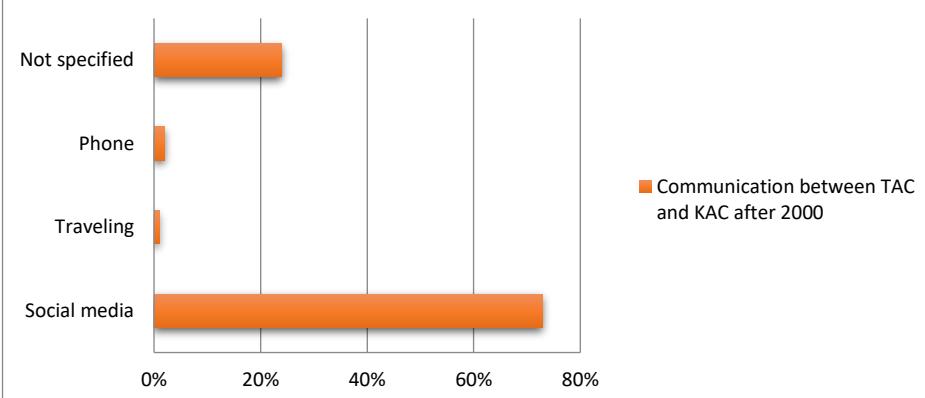
- To back up the above data below is a graph of the information taken from the Institutes of statistics of Kosovo and, the institute of Media and the Gallup institution in highlighting the data how the the investment of Turkey in Kosovo has been proceeding since 1900 to 2012. The actual number of turkish investment in [1]Kosovo for 2012 is 61% of the foreign investment market, in 2002 there were an investment from[2] Turkish companies up to 28%, while in 1990 the number of investments from Turkey in Kosovo was 11% and the number of investments in 1900 from Turkey in Kosovo is 0%. This show that the established comunication roads during

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[1] data.worldbank.org
[2] Bertot, J. C. (2009). Public access technologies in public libraries: Impacts and implications. Information Technology & Libraries, 28(2), 84–95.

the road thru the social media, it went by and got stronger, bringing a new aspect in the equation, that of providing help for the future.

Turkish Companies marketshare investments in Kosovo
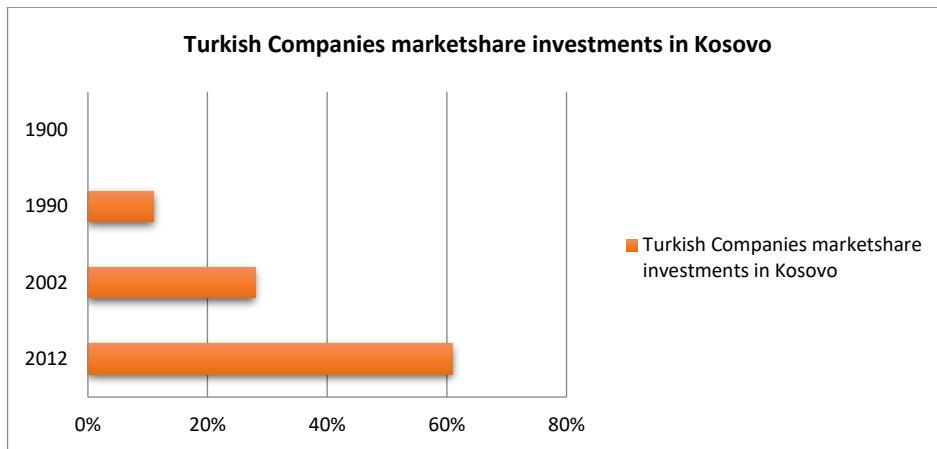
6. Conclusions

As already demonstrated the main sources of information at the time to the crises the Kosovo was going thru were the chat rooms and the communities. Actually there were around 17 thousand chat rooms and communities at the time mainly ad operated by Albanians which were serving as a different source of information regarding the crises[1] and possible ways to help the refugees, and more than half of them were kept in both Albanian and Turkish language. It provided a much more extended network then the actual media coverage, and it was so much more important because people were sharing ideas and information and were trying to come to the aid of those that were in the middle of a conflict.

The whole picture provided below point to the main potential of the social media which is the interconnecting of separated communities. The fastest way to come in contact is thru social media, and it is also a good elective, because it cannot become bothersome (you can log out if you are disturbed, or just block the person). Also it is a fast way to reenact lost connections which in the wholeness of them can make impact in the general picture.

The social media impacted in bringing together the two separated Albanian communities during the

     a.)   It provided information and made contact between lost families
     b.)   It provided help in a stressful and unmanageable situation
     c.)   It opened new avenues for business enterprises.

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Gender and Social Competence of Younger Students

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Abstract

The author found it interesting to check the level of expression of gender differentiated social competence among students of early school age. In this case, four factors constituting social competence were taken into account, namely learning motivation, antisocial behaviour, social inhibition and socialization. The data was provided by the results of the second part of the "Student Behaviour Sheet" drawn up by B. Markowska. The research was part of an experiment conducted among a group of 36 primary school third grade students, of which there were 19 (53%) boys and 17 (47%) girls.

Keywords: gender, social competence, younger student.

Introduction

The etymology of the word „competence" dates back to basic assumptions of psycho- and neo-behaviourism. The notion was used for the first time by R. W. White more relating to an original one, interpreted as the pursue of efficient influence upon the environment (effectance motivation). Thus, this competence was interpreted as every skill of a human being which contributes to an efficient interaction with the environment (White, 1958). The notion was easily absorbed by social psychology, where such concepts as social or interpersonal competence are used (Sęk, 1988). Currently, it appears more frequently among contemporary opinions on education and teaching.

'Social development, socialising and interpersonal communication competence are related, among others, with the feeling of social competence, or one's own imaginations of their possibilities and capabilities of certain social behaviours' (Huget, 2001). Therefore, the more stronger an individual is convinced about their competence, the more successes they experience in their active encounters with the environment, focused on achieving goals (Sęk, 1988); for this reason, it is assumed that people adjusted to function in a society will be characterised by a high level of the feeling of social competence, meanwhile those who are not adjusted will present a low level (Huget, 2001).

Social competence fulfils a plethora of various functions, such as the support for coping with new situations, extending the possibilities of fulfilling social needs, facilitation of providing social support as well as opening broader perspectives of participating in a civil society and revoking the process of self-creation and self-development. Besides, it is worth mentioning the advantages on the communicative level, or better understanding and communicating as well as knowing new people. Social competence also serves group objectives, increasing the effectiveness of cooperation and possibilities of resolving problems, conflicts and social pathology (Borkowski, 2003).

It should be underlined that many children's behavioural disorders result from deficiencies in terms of social competence. Among the most frequent problems among school children, there are aggression, isolation or seclusion from social contacts and excessive submission. These problem may have a clinical basis, which requires proper diagnostic and therapeutic procedure; however, they may be caused by the lack of competence of dealing with social situations (Hops, 1983). Taking into consideration the aforementioned, there is a need to teach children a set of basic elements of social competence which ensure proper and satisfactory functioning in the encompassing environment.

In the next part of the article, the research results will be provided, constituting part of the pedagogical experiment conducted among younger students. Referring to the data on quantitative stratification of boys (19% – 53%) and girls (17% – 47%) in

the examined group of 36 primary school third grade students, it seemed interesting to check whether gender differentiates the level of presented social competence.

Author's Study

Purpose

The author's own study was to discover a possible relationship between the gender and selected elements of social competence. In this case, four elements were taken into consideration: learning motivation, antisocial behaviour, social inhibition and socialization.

Research methods

In order to collect empirical material comprising the statistical analysis basis, the method of estimation was adopted, which involves assessing the examined group from the point of view of defined behavioural features with the use of a several grade scale.

B. Markowska's „Student Behaviour Sheet" used in the second part constitutes a standardised assessment of 50 features of visible child's behaviour. The tool allows an insight, according to the point of view of a teacher, into functioning of the examined children and into the level of presented social competence. The functioning is defined by B. Markowska by an attempt to assess:

- learning motivation, or the level of the features defining the positive and active child's approach towards school requirements,
- level of socialisation, encompassing features defining the positive child approach towards other people, conditioned by the ability of non-conflict contacts and behaviours full of benevolence and tolerance.
- The analysis of the second part of the sheet allows defining types of social and emotional disorders, which in turn proves deficiencies in the presented social competence. Thus, conclusions may be reached on:
- the level of anti-social behaviour, comprising the features related to lowered child behaviour control and an aggressive attitude towards others,
- inhibition, that is to say on features proving lowered social activity, panic reactions and a child's withdrawal tendencies.

In addition, the sheet helps to assess the level of sexual interest among the examined children. The factor is expressed in two types of behaviour – when a child likes the company of children of the opposite sex and when they are curious about sex difference issues; however, it will not have serious significance in the context of the described research.

The features are assessed according to a five-grade scale. The numbers on the scale indicate the increase of the feature strength in the order from 1 to 5, whereas the criterion of feature individuality constitutes its frequency. It is worth adding that high results in the scale of learning motivation and socialization are desirable, for they confirm a student's good social and emotional adjustment. Antisocial behaviour and inhibition are not desired, as they indicate deficiencies in terms of social competence.

Presentation of the research results

In order examine the above-mentioned relation, Student's t-test for independent group was used applying Statistica 6.0., statistical software.

The number of degrees of freedom for the Student's t-test was measured according to the following formula:

$df = N1 + N2 – 2$,

where in the analysed case, df = 34.

In every case described herein, the significance level of α = 0.05 was assumed, then the empirical value of the test was measured and compared with the t-test distribution critical values read out from statistical tables (Fisher, Yates, 1963).

All necessary data to compute Student's t-test value and to verify the hypothesis is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Gender and social competence of students of younger school age

SOCIAL COMPETENCE	average of girls;	average of boys;	t	df	p	girls' standard deviation;	boys' standard deviation;	No. of girls	No. of boys
Learning motivation	48,70588	43,15789	1,740926	34	0,090740	8,59335	10,31861	17	19
Anti-social behaviour	31,00000	34,31579	-0,951557	34	0,348038	10,59481	10,29591	17	19
Inhibition	30,17647	31,94737	-0,652441	34	0,518504	8,19478	8,07241	17	19
Socialisation	44,82353	41,36842	2,121807	34	0,041222	3,81175	5,65892	17	19

Source: own measurements.

Gender and the level of learning motivation

The first factor under analysis was learning motivation. The results show that primary school girls are much less reprimanded and less often hear negative comments from their teachers than boys do. Such a privileged situation leads to developing excessive self-criticism and non-coping with later school difficulties. Boys, more often admonished for bad ideas or incorrect solutions, lose in this situation only apparently. According to the research, the teacher gives boys more relevant hints which results in a situation that statistically they achieve better results, are more motivated to work and can use such advice in the next phases of learning (Konarzewski, 1992).

On the other hand, Belgian studies show another correlation. Poor results of some boys may be related with their general negative attitude towards learning, especially less positive relations with teachers, lack of well-being in their class and unwillingness to work at school. At lower levels of education, however, boys who are less focused during their lessons, less interested in performing tasks and less motivated to study achieve better results than the expected ones. The analysis suggests that such boys are talented, especially those strongly „demotivated" ones (van de Gaer et al., 2006).

With reference to the aforementioned analysis, it is worth looking whether the examined group of children present differences of the level of learning motivation between girls and boys.

Application of the t-test requires assuming two statistical hypotheses: null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis. For learning motivation, the formulated and tested hypotheses were as follows:

H0: there is no statistical correlation between gender and learning motivation;

H1: there is a statistical correlation between gender and learning motivation.

Table 5 and Figure 1 present the data in question.

Figure 1. Gender and learning motivation of the examined students
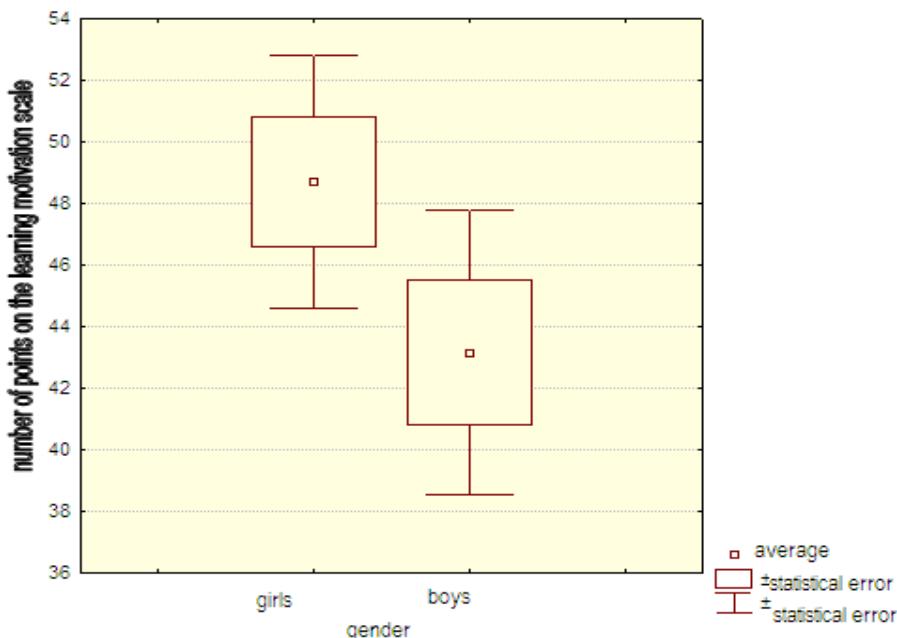
Source: own work.

Temp = 1.740 was measured. For the number of degrees of freedom in two independent samples df = 34 and the adopted level of significance α = 0,05, the theoretical value of the test is ttab = 2.042. Since ttab > temp, the null hypothesis is to be assumed; which means that no statistical correlation between the gender and the level of learning motivation has been noted. The p-value p = 0.09 additionally confirms the assumption of null hypothesis, because p > a, so there is no basis to exclude H0.

Gender and antisocial behaviour of the examined students

'At the age of 3 – 10, the process of aggression socialization according to sex patterns develops. Girls start presenting verbal and indirect aggression, i.e. they denounce others, they also try to supress this aggression. Boys, on the other hand, for being socially praised for the ability to defend themselves, get into fights more often" (Danilewska, 2002). For this reason, the next thing to test is the occurrence of an correlation between the gender and the level of antisocial behaviour of the examined third-grade students.

The following statistical hypotheses were formulated:

H0: there is no statistical correlation between the gender and the antisocial behaviour level;

H1: there is a significant correlation between the gender and the antisocial behaviour level..

All necessary data to compute the t-test value and to verify the hypothesis are in Table 1 and Figure 2 presented below.

Figure 2. Sex and antisocial behaviour of the examined students
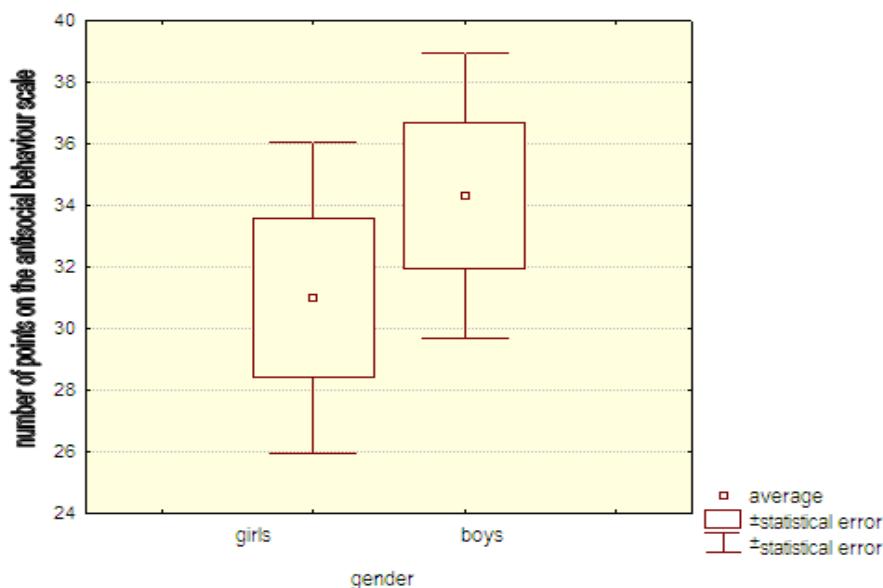
Source: author's study

In terms of results of the t-test for the second factor, one will notice that temp = -0,951, meanwhile the theoretical test value with df = 34 for α = 0.05 is ttab = 2.042. Thus, ttab > temp, so the null hypothesis on the lack of a statistically significant correlation between the gender and antisocial behaviour of the examined students is to be assumed. The same conclusions may be drawn on the basis of the p-value p = 0.34 which is higher than the assumed level α = 0,05 which confirms the null hypothesis.

Gender and inhibition of the examined students

Psychomotor inhibition is one of the five symptoms of social maladjustment. Some of the most common symptoms of inhibition are the following: excessive submission of a child towards others and towards the social environment, passivity in school work, no ambitious aspirations, frequent failures while competing with friends, getting discouraged because of failures, fear from risk-involved situations, shyness, lack of creativity and of initiative, reaction tardiness, low self-esteem and autism. Not all the symptoms, however, have to occur in order to diagnose inhibition of an examined child (Dymek-Balcerek, 1999).

In terms of the research for this article, it seemed interesting to verify the hypotheses on the occurrence of an correlation between the gender and the level of inhibition of the examined students. The hypotheses are as follows:

H0: there is no statistically significant correlation between the gender and the level of inhibition;

H1: there is a statistically significant correlation between the gender and the level of inhibition.

Figure 3. Gender and inhibition among the examined students
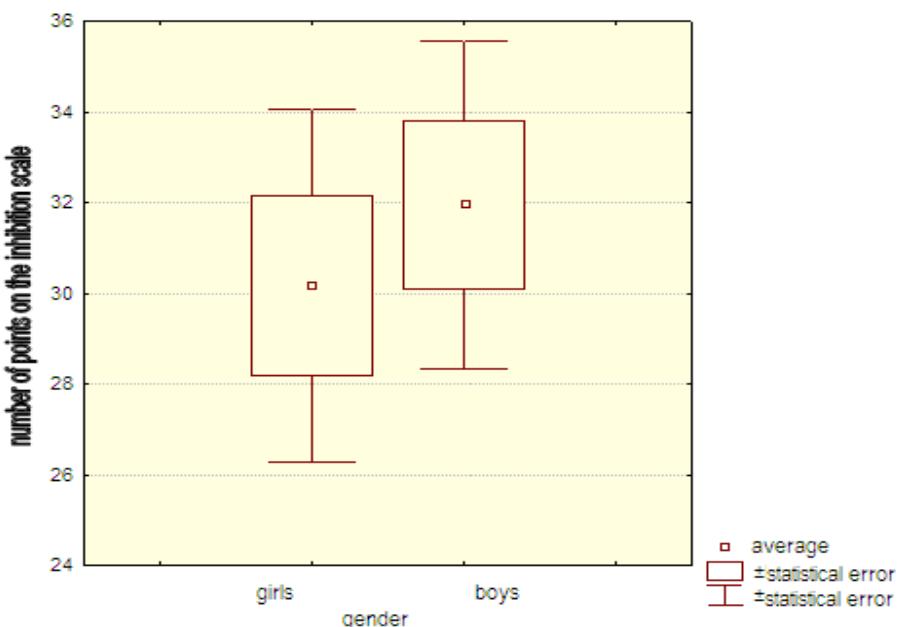
Source: own work.

With reference to the t-test results for the scale of inhibition presented in Table 5, one should notice that temp = -0.652, meanwhile the theoretical test value with df = 34 for α = 0,05 is ttab = 2.402. Thus, ttab > temp, so, as in the previous case, one will assume the null hypothesis because of the lack of a statistically significant correlation between the gender and the level of inhibition in the examined third-grade students. The p-value p = 0.51 additionally confirms the null hypothesis, as p > a, which indicates the lack of basis to exclude H0.

Gender and the level of socialization

Socialization of younger students is an important element of their development due to their integrating with the social group – socialization and learning the correct patterns of thinking, acting and experiencing, or shaping a human being in the given social group.

Bringing the research to an end, it is now necessary to examine the correlation between the gender and the level of socialization. For this reason, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H0: there is no statistically significant correlation between the gender and the level of socialization;

H1: there is a statistically significant correlation between the gender and the level of socialization.

Table 1 and Figure 4 present the data in question.

Figure 4. Gender and the level of socialization of the examined students
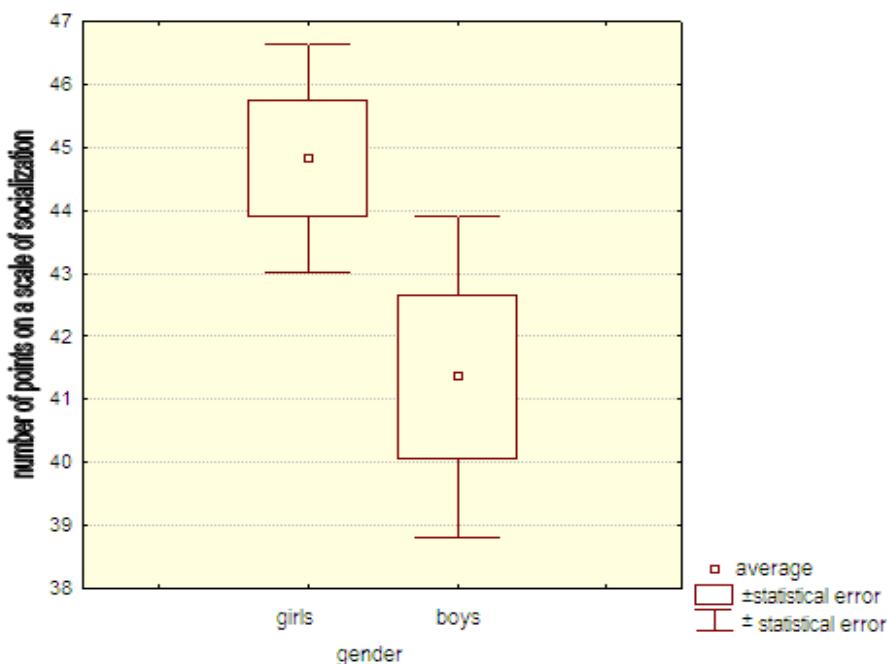
Source: Author's study

The final part regards the analysis of the t-test results for the socialization scale. With 34 degrees of freedom and level of significance α = 0,05, the critical value to be recovered from statistical tables, is 2.042. Since the test empirical value 2.121 is higher than the critical value from statistical tables: (ttab) 2.042 < 2.121 (temp), one will exclude the H0 hypothesis and acknowledge the alternative hypothesis H1. Similar results may be revoked on the basis of the p-value p = 0.04 lower than α = 0.05, which proves the occurrence of a statistically significant correlation between the gender and the level of socialization.

Conclusions

The aforementioned data, concluded in Table 1 and the above charts show that there is no statistically significant correlation between the child's gender and the presented level of learning motivation, antisocial behaviour or inhibition where in terms of learning motivation one may observe greater tendency of sexual differentiation. Girls have a higher level of learning motivation, such as in terms of socialization, where the correlation is clearly visible and statistically significant. In relation to the above, one may state that there is higher susceptibility among boys towards presenting socially unacceptable behaviours indicating their lower level of social competence, particularly in terms of the scale of socialization. It may be so,

because prosocial behaviours are, contrary to aggression, less patterned due to the fact their visually observable effects are less spectacular than the aggressive ones (Kohnstamm, 1989).

Moreover, other research confirms that aggressive and bossy children are often respected widely by their classmates; therefore, their behaviours become strengthened. A child who learned aggression at a very young age will not dispose of this feature even when they become an adult. It is also known that if children are verbally aggressive: they swear and pick on others, they copy adults. That is why one should not neglect symptoms of aggressive behaviours in their children. A friendly, yet consequently reprimanding position of the parents and teachers against aggression is the most efficient in order not to teach a child socially unacceptable behaviours (Wyckoff, Unell, 2004).

Therefore, it is worth noticing the development of social competence by delivering proper patterns from one's family, peers and other significant people which is part of the process of socialization. Although social development occurs for the entire life, it is the first experience of contacts with others that play a great role in undertaking future social roles and household activities. „Empirical research proves the existence of a correlation between problems in adult life, such as: passive withdrawal from stress situations, dependency from one's family, violent bursts of sudden anger, intellectual dependency from another one, fear from social interactions, and the social functioning of a person of school age" (Van Hasselt, Hersen, Whitehill, Bellack, 1979). In correspondence with the aforementioned, the knowledge of students' social competence should be the key point to start supporting their social development and to conduct further research and finding the correlation not only with the gender, but also with other variables.

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The Civil War in Syria and the International Response

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Abstract

Both parties involved in the civil war in Syria, reached to secure the support of other states and the control over considerable parts of the territory, but none of them could trigger a comprehensive military defeat against the other. The cost of the conflict where government forces as well as armed rebels continue to commit atroccities has been shocking. Security Council with regard to the problem of Syria was divided between a majority who wanted a strong response to implement the Responsibility to Protect and some who did not want. The debate between Western democracies was based on the fact if foreign governments should militarily intervene in Syria, being that they thought military intervention could aggravate the conflict and could increase the sufferings of ordinary Syrians. However individual countries and regional organizations took actions to maintain their responsibility to protect. The use of the veto by the permanent members of the Security Council to prevent the implementation of the "Responsibility to Protect " which aims to end the massive atrocities is inconsistent with the goals of the United Nations and makes the Security Council inappropriate on the situation when his involvement to resolve conflict situations is an urgent need. State sovereignty can no longer constitute an unrestricted license to mass killings and other atrocity crimes.

Key words: massive crimes, responsibility to protect, the right of veto, the principle of nonintervention, Security Council.

Introduction

The civil war in Syria caused immense destruction and disasters. It was characterized by fierce fighting between many parties that sought to militarily defeat each other. It resulted in various alliances amongst parties involved in the conflict with foreign countries and was accompanied by numerous international diplomatic efforts, aimed at ending disasters. The history of the civil war in Syria proves the existence of certain stages of the conflict that are characterized by severe fightings, achievements of the one party and then of the other one and from the interference of various allies.

The conflict in Syria could be considered to have had as its first stage the fierce fightings from March 2011 until the middle of this year. Initially it was about some small student protests in Deraa during February,[1] but soon a mass movement quickly developed across the country .This movement was characterized by widespread demonstrations, inspired by the revolutions of the "Arab Spring ", elsewhere in the region. These demonstrations were faced with an asymmetrical violence in the form of deadly government repression. The government relied on its security forces to shoot down protesters and systematically detain political opponents.

Approximately 850 Syrians were killed by mid-May 2011, as the death toll continued to rise. Although the movement started by the most popular of the country Sunni majority, who constitutes at least 65 % of the population, demonstrators came from all of Syria's diverse communities.[2]

In the second half of 2011 was increased the number of civilians who joined the newly formed Free Syrian Army or who participated in armed self-defense as well as those who defected the state security forces to join the Free Syrian Army. Free Syrian Army, which was officially formed in June 2011, during September fought a major battle with regime forces in Rastan and expelled government troops police that used to control several towns and villages.[3] Shocked by the revival of

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[1] "Syria: Clashes at mass Damascus protest," *BBC News Online*, 15 April 2011, http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/world-middle-east-13097926.

[2] "Syria's ethnic and religious divisions," http:// www.fragilestates.org/2012/02/20/syrias-ethnic-and-religious-divides/.

[3] Dr Simons Adams, Failure to Protect: Syria and the UN Security Council, Global Centre for the Responsibility to Protect, *www.globalr2p.org/media/files/syria*

the political opposition, which continued to organize large protests and already militarily threatened by the Free Syrian Army, the Syrian government changed its strategy.

In early 2012, Assad's government sought militarily seizes opposition centers of resistance. The city of Homs, which was controlled in large part by the opposition was surrounded and attacked. The government hoped that unleashing such forces would terrorize the majority Sunni population that was considered the opposition's core constituency. Although protests against the Syrian regime began to widely spread in March 2011, Assad's forces did not widely utilize helicopters to attack their opponents, until February 2012. The number of air strikes by helicopters began to grow rapidly during June.[1]

In contrast with the two other phases of the conflict, after the half of 2012 the use of air power against defenseless civilians dominated the behavior of armed hostile actions. Government helicopters werw now routinely used to attack the residential neighborhoods where there were armed insurgents. Using a policy of collective punishment, government helicopters and fixed aircraft bombed civilian places gatherings and areas where civilians were exposed, such as schools, clinics etc.[2] Meanwhile, the Free Syrian Army and other opposition armed groups, became more sophisticated in their military operations. By mid 2012 many parts of the country in the north and southeast of Syria had fallen into rebel hands. Armed rebels opposed, even government control of suburbs of Damascus and Aleppo, which were the political and economic centers of the Syrian government. As the International Committee of the Red Cross announced in May 2012, the country was involved in a full scale civil war.[3]

In early 2013, the Syrian conflict entered in another phase. Both opposing parties controlled significant parts of the territory, but neither could impose a comprehensive military defeat upon the other. Opposing parties sought additional external assistance to tip the balance of power on the battlefield.

Since 2013 Syria was no longer in a political conflict with sectarian tones. The weakest Syrian minorities, especially Christians stayed loyal to the regime.[4] The government organized paramilitary forces by these communities and used them to attack neighboring Sunni communities, which allegedly were disloyal to the regime. The civil war in Syria had divided the country into military unstable areas competing among themselves. Nobody had sovereignty on Syria as a whole. Political and economic fragmentation, as a result of the civil war has plunged millions of people into extreme poverty.[5]

Syria had become a proxy war in which different regional and international players were supporting one or the other side in the conflict. Some Iranian forces and many Lebanese Hezbollah fighters joined the military offensive in Syria, in June 2013.[6] Meanwhile, Turkey, Qatar and Saudi Arabia and behind them many major Western democracies continued to support the various components of the armed opposition including the Free Syrian Army. Although complete victory remained unachievable during 2013 and 2014 the Syrian government forces continued gradually to retake numerous villages along Lebanese border as well as areas surrounding Aleppo and Damascus, which were previously controlled by the rebels. The civil war in Syria now threatens the peace and stability of the entire Middle East.

Security Council's reaction to Syrian conflict

It is now known the fact that at the United Nations World Summit in 2005, was achieved the adoption of the doctrine of Responsibility to Protect, which gave priority to the Security Council, in situations where a State was unwilling or unable to uphold its sovereign responsibilities. On the basis of this document, the governments of the participating countries

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[1] Elizabeth O'Bagy, Christopher Harmer, Jonathan Dupree and Liam Durfee, "Syrian Air Force and Air Defense Capabilities," Institute for the Study of War, May 2013, http://www.understandingwar.org/

[2] Human Rights Watch, "Death from the skies: Deliberate and indiscriminate air strikes on civilians."
www.hrw.org/reports/2013/04/10/death-skies

[3] Neil MacFarquhar, "Syria denies attack on civilians, in crisis seen as civil war," New York Times, 15 July 2012,
http://www.nytimes.com/2012/07/16/world/middleeast/syria-denies-use-of-heavy-weaponsin-deadly-village-fight.html.

[4] Dr Simons Adams, Failure to Protect: Syria and the UN Security Council, Global Centre for the Responsibility to Protect,
www.globalr2p.org/media/files/syria

[5] Jihad Yazigi, "Syria's war economy," Policy Brief, European Council on Foreign Relations, 7 April 2014, 1,
http://www.ecfr.eu/publications/ summary/syrias_war_economy.

[6] Will Fulton, Joseph Holliday and Sam Wyer, "Iranian strategy in Syria," Joint Report of AEI's Critical Threats Project and Institute for the Study of War, May 2013, 21-23, http://www.understandingwar.org/sites/default/files/

committed themselves to take collective actions, as and when appropriate, through the Security Council, in accordance with the United Nations Charter, including Chapter VII, on a case by case basis and in cooperation with relevant regional organizations. The Responsibility to Protect was intended mainly as a preventive doctrine.

By the time when Syria crisis emerged in March 2011 and the Syrian conflict has worsened in the summer of 2011, it raised the question of the need to impose an arms embargo and other sanctions on the Syrian government by the United Nations Security Council. The Security Council held a formal position in principle on the conflict, condemning the widespread violations of human rights and the use of force against civilians by the Syrian authorities. The Security Council urged "an immediate end to all forms of violence" and urged all parties to the conflict to refrain from the "reprisals, including attacks against state institutions". The Security Council statement taking into account the commitments of alleged Syrian authorities to reform reaffirmed that the Security Council would respect the sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity of Syria.[1]

In the present situation when the barbaric mass attrocities were committed by the Syrian government, amongst the Security Council members began the debate between a majority who wanted a strong response to these crimes through the implementation of the Responsibility to Protect, and a small part who did not want. However in February 2012, when Russia and China used their right of veto on a draft resolution, the 13-to other members of the Security Council were clearly in favor of the international diplomacy and multilateral sanctions in order to stop mass atrocities in Syria. (No 47 of Syria) The most typical statement was that of the Guatemalan foreign minister who insisted that: Non-intervention in the internal affairs of sovereign states and the respect for their territorial integrity are cardinal principles of our foreign policy, but we also acknowledge the obligation of all states to observe certain norms of conduct in relation to their own populations. For this reason, in an era when the situation requires the application of the doctrine of the Responsibility to Protect, we need to support that principle.[2]

Although the Security Council reached a consensus on the issue of Syria, individual states and regional organizations took actions to enforce their responsibility to protect. The League of Arab States, European Union, Turkey and many other countries publicly condemned the Syrian government's actions and diplomatically isolated Syrian regime. In March 2012, a year after the conflict, at least 49 countries had imposed sanctions, while some other countries had closed their embassies in Damascus.[3]

Between 2011 and September 2014 the Human Rights Council in Geneva passed thirteen resolutions condemning the mass atrocities in Syria between 2011 and September 2014 and established a Commission of Independent Research to document such violations of human rights. The General Assembly also passed seven resolutions condemning the Syrian atrocities.[4]

Disagreements in the Security Council to act on Syria allowed during the conflict encouraged more extreme forms of lethal violence. In this context, perhaps the most obvious shortcoming diplomatic over a year and a half of the conflict in Syria was the failure to enforce the Responsibility to Protect and to implement the efforts of the former Secretary General Kofi Annan to achieve a ceasefire and to negotiate for ending the conflict. Kofi Annan's plan for Syria in 2011 and 2012 included the implementation of the cease-fire, the withdrawal of government troops and tanks from cities, the release of political detainees, freedom of movement for journalists, freedom of association and the right to demonstrate, provision of humanitarian assistance to besieged civilians and initiation of political negotiation process led by Syrians.

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[1] United Nations Security Council, "Statement by the President of the Security Council on the situation in the Middle East," S/PRST/2011/16, 3 August 2011, http://www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=S/ PRST/2011/16.

[2] Statement by H.E. Harold Caballeros, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Guatemala, at the United Nations Security Council Debate on the Situation in the Middle East on 31 January 2012. *www.guatemalaun.org/bin/documents/SCMESiria-Jan31-2012*

[3] Global Centre for the Responsibility to Protect, "Timeline of International Response to the Situation in Syria" http://www.globalr2p.org/ publications/135.

[4] General Assembly resolutions, http://www.un.org/documents/resga.htm.

However in the period leading up to the scheduled ceasefire, the security forces intensified their attacks on areas that were regarded as the main points of opposition.[1]

With a rarely display of unanimity on 21 March 2012, the Security Council issued a second presidential statement, through which expressed regrets about the deterioration of the situation and affirmed the support for the Annan Plan. On 21 April 2012 the Security Council established a 90-day Supervision Mission of the United Nations to monitor the ceasefire and the implementation of the Annan Plan.[2] In late April it became clear that the Annan Plan was at risk because of the numerous violations of ceasefire, by government troops and the armed rebels, together with the lack of will on the part of the Syrian government to seriously implement the other main provisions of the plan.

In particular, the success of Annan Plan depended upon the full and rapid deployment of the Supervision Mission through Syria, which the government barriers and the increasing of violence made impossible. Despite numerous obstacles due to the chaotic and dangerous situation, the Supervision Mission investigated and documented different atrocities commited by all sides in the conflict. They compiled summaries of atrocities and the forces suspected of perpetrating these atrocities.

But at a time when civil war was expanding, when the two opposing sides were engaged to achieve the military victory and the rest of the ceasefire was violated by all sides in Syria, the Supervision Mission was no longer a relevant way to resolve the situation.

Debates of the West and Russia's stance on Syria crimes

Starting since 2011 and during all stages through which the conflict in Syria passed intensifying, both parties as government forces as well as armed rebels have committed massive crimes and have caused a staggering human cost.

Syrian government forces have used aircraft, tanks, heavy artillery and cluster munitions to terrorize and kill anyone presumed to be supporting the regime's opponents, including civilians living in areas controlled by the opposition in Aleppo, Damascus, etc. Other barbaric crimes already documented include the targeting of the wounded fighters and civilians injured by state forces; the routinely use of government snipers to terrorize, kill or maim civilians.[3] Snipers's victims are often left to die from bleeding in the street, while civilians who approached to assist them, are also killed. The medical personnel serving in areas controlled by opponents had also been targeted. By government forces and their allied groups is forcibly prevented the arrival of aid and medical equipments necessary for civilians in besieged areas, which constitutes a direct violation of the Geneva Conventions. Regarding the detainees, government forces have used torture and other forms of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment.[4]

Armed opposition groups have also committed war crimes, including deadly reprisals against minority communities, destruction of religious sites and extrajudicial execution of captured government soldiers. These groups are assisted in their activity by increased foreign funding and increased access to weapons and a large influx of foreign fighters.[5]

Based on these discovered facts, in December 2013, the High Commissioner of the United Nations on Human Rights stated that: "The responsibility for performing these massive barbarous crimes belongs to the highest levels of the Syrian government". This situation of raising massive barbarian crimes, the western governments responded by publicly criticizing

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[1] Dr Simons Adams, Failure to Protect: Syria and the UN Security Council, Global Centre for the Responsibility to Protect, p. 18, *www.globalr2p.org/media/files/syria*

[2] United Nations Security Council, "Statement by the President of the Security Council on the situation in the Middle East," S/PRST/2012/6, 21 March 2012, http://www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=S/ PRST/2012/6

[3] Human Rights Watch, "Syria: Widespread use of incendiary weapons," 10 November 2013, http://www.hrw.org/news/2013/11/10/ syria-widespread-use-incendiary-weapons.

[4] Report of the Independent International Commission of Inquiry on the Syrian Arab Republic, United Nations Human Rights Council, A/HRC/25/65, 12 February 2014, 11-13, *www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/HRC/.../Session25/.../A-HRC-25-65*

[5] Human Rights Watch, "Syria: Armed opposition groups committing abuses," 20 March 2012, http://www.hrw. org/news/2012/03/20/syria-armed-opposition-groups-committing-abuses.

the Syrian government, by imposing sanctions against the government and urging President Assad to end the violence. But in fact the Syrian government, showed no sign of change in behavior and Assad did not return.

In Western democracies began a strong debate in 2012 about whether foreign governments should militarily intervene in Syria. Some United States intellectuals, argued for humanitarian corridors and safe havens near Turkey, Lebanese borders, or Jordan to be forcibly created, in order to protect ordinary Syrians.[1] Meanwhile other influential people urged Washington to lead a coordinated airstrikes against Syria's armed forces. In fact nobody wanted to encourage a wider regional conflict in the Middle East. In the discussions that took place in the western world diplomatic circles, prevailed the idea that foreign military intervention would aggravate the conflict and would increase the suffering of ordinary Syrians.

Western governments also debated on whether to further support Syrian rebels or not, in a moment that armed rebels were centered around the opposition Free Syrian Army and the documented list of the war crimes commited by rebel forces had increased from mid-2013. Different governments had different views on the delivery of heavy weapons although publicly calling the overthrow of Assad because they pretended that more arms could increase the level of atrocities and further destabilize the region.[2]

While killings continued and the flow of refugees across Syria's borders increased, was also increased the exasperation of a growing number of senior officials of the United Nations. Under Secretary General of the United Nations, argued in February 2013 that: "We have a responsibility to protect. We have obligations. Some of these obligations are set out in international humanitarian law. Many international humanitarian laws are often ignored. But even beyond the legal obligations we have a responsibility to each other as human beings.[3]

The Western world faced during its efforts to end the civil war in Syria with Russian barriers, which not only blocked the Security Council, but encouraged the Syrian government activity and somehow aggravated the civil war. While civil war worsened, Russian shipments of weapons and other supplies, which were sent to Damascus, rose. Rejecting through the use of multiple vetos the resolutions of the Security Council on Syria, Russia continued the support for the Assad government. Russia was in a contradictory position. She publicly supported the Annan Plan for Syria, but did nothing when the Syrian government failed to implement the key provisions of this plan.

Since the beginning of the conflict in Syria, Russian diplomats argued their opposition to the resolutions of the United Nations Security Council, which aimed to end atrocities in Syria, claiming that they were aiming at the protection of a sovereign state. The Russian government claimed that its efforts in the Security Council were aimed at defending the sovereignty of Syria rather than to provide a political cover for a dictatorship that was killing its own people.

The international reaction after the use of chemical weapons against the Syrian population

After all the troubles and disasters that had caused the conflict in Syria, a conflict that continued for more than two years and after a long time of diplomatic efforts by the Western countries and the Security Council of the United Nations to resolve the conflict, the population of the Syrian plain faced another disaster. Syrian government used chemical weapons against its people, although only a few weeks before using those chemical weapons, the Syrian government had denied to posess chemical weapons.[4] On August 21, 2013 rocket containing Sarin gas were thrown over in two residential areas of Damascus, causing within a few hours the death of approximately 1,400 civilians, including a large number of children.

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[1] Anne-Marie Slaughter, "How to halt the butchery in Syria," *New York Times*, 23 February 2012,
http://www.nytimes.com/2012/02/24/opinion/how-to-halt-the-butchery-in-syria.html?_r=2&

[2] Simon Adams, "The world's next genocide," *New York Times*, 15 November 2013, http://www.nytimes.com/2012/11/16/opinion/the-worlds-next-genocide.html.

[3] Judy Dempsey, "Syria: 'We have a Responsibility to Protect,'" Strategic Europe, Carnegie Europe, 18 February 2013, http://carnegieeurope.eu/strategiceurope/?fa=50963.

[4] Anne Barnard, "In shift, Syrian official admits government has chemical arms," *New York Times*, 10 September 2013,
http://www.nytimes.com/2013/09/11/world/middleeast/Syria-Chemical-Arms.html

The Syrian government tried to deny this action and accused armed rebels for chemical attack, but reliable investigations showed that the most likely source of the rocket was a base near the Republican Guard.[1]

The extremely serious crime of the use of chemical weapons by the Syrian government caused a strong reaction globally. It is widely known that chemical weapons are considered illegal by the Hague Convention of 1899 because of the nature of these weapons, which do not distinguish, are inhumane and immoral. After the Hague Convention of 1899, another step that the international community undertook to curb the use of these weapons launched from the horror that caused the use of gas during the World War I, was the Geneva Protocol of 1925 which established the international ban on the use such weapons.

After the attacks of 21 August 2013, Iran's foreign minister, condemned the use of chemical weapons and described the chemical weapons as weapons that "constituted a crime against humanity". Iran's new president, Hassan Roughen, urged the international community to take all measures to stop the use of chemical weapons anywhere in the world, while former Iranian President Akbar Hashemite Rafsanjani went further, stating that Syrian civilians "became the target of chemical attacks from their own government".[2] Iran has been one of the first countries that had signed the convention against chemical weapons and therefore the use of chemical weapons by the Syrian government caused a major moral objection to chemical weapons across Iranian society. The use of chemical weapons in the suburbs of Damascus also complicated relations between Iran and Syria.

Despite the fact that the Syrian government officially blamed armed rebels for the attack of August 21, it was clear that the large-scale of use of the chemical weapons was unacceptable for the supporters of Assad in Teheran. Public awareness on the attack with chemical weapons also posed a threat to the Iranian official support for Assad.

A strong reaction came after the use of chemical weapons by the United States and France that immediately after the attack with chemical weapons on August 21 began their air strikes against Syrian military targets which caused an intersection of diplomacy in the United Nations's Security Council. The Council quickly adopted a resolution supporting a US-Russian agreement, under which Syria must give up from the use of its chemical weapons. The Security Council failed to take a unanimous decision over the Syrian conflict. Resolution 2118 of 27 September 2013 was an immediate response to the use of an illegal weapon of mass destruction. The real importance of the resolution on the Chemical Weapons was the temporary space policy that was created for the Security Council in order to allow the Council to find other areas of cooperation to end the civil war in Syria.

On August 20, 2012, two years before going on the attack with chemical weapons, The President Obama of the United States had commented that if the Syrian government will use chemical weapons, it would cross the "red line" and would face retaliation military punishment.[3]

At the same time, President Putin of Russia considered Russia as an impartial protective force of the international rule, claiming that Russia is not protecting Syrian government, but international law. We believe that to respect the rule of law in today's complex and turbulent world is one of the few ways to maintain international relations, so that they do not slide into chaos. The law is the law and we have to apply it, the pleasing or not. The use of force under current international law, is allowed only for self-defense or according a decision of the Security Council. Any other use of force is unacceptable under the Charter of the United Nations and may constitute an act of aggression.[4] Still, according to Putin, "to avoid the use of force against Syria, would improve the atmosphere in international politics and will open the doors for other cooperation with basic matters".

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[1] "Report of the United Nations Mission to Investigate Allegations of the Use of Chemical Weapons in the Syrian Arab Republic on the alleged use of chemical weapons in the Ghouta area of Damascus on 21 August 2013," A/67/997-S/2013/553, 16 September 2013,http://www.securitycouncilreport.org/atf/cf/%7B65BFCF9B-6D27-4E9C-8CD3-CF6E4FF96FF9%7D/s_2013_553.pdf.

[2] Reuters, 24 August 2013, available at: http://www.reuters.com/ article/2013/08/24/us-syria-crisis-iran-idUSBRE97N06P20130824;

[3] James Ball, "Obama issues Syria a 'red line' warning on chemical weapons," *The Washington Post*, 20 August 2012, http://www.washingtonpost.com/world/national-security/obama-issues-syria-redline-warning-on-chemical-weapons/.

[4] Vladimir V. Putin, "A plea for caution from Russia.", *www.nytimes.com/.../putin-plea-for-caution-from-russia-on-syria.html*

After the adoption of the resolution on Chemical Weapons, the Security Council had still three very important matters seeking solutions. The first and foremost was the matter of humanitarian access to ordinary Syrians, nearly 5 million (almost a quarter of the population) who were displaced and for 2 million that were made refugees across the borders of Syria at the end of 2013. The United Nations estimated that millions of Syrians were in urgent need of humanitarian assistance as they were under threat of dying from cold, diseases or starvation except other threats caused by the war.

On 2 October 2013 the Security Council adopted a Declaration on the urgent need for humanitarian access, pointing to the "obligation to distinguish between the civilian population and combatants and the prohibition of attacks that do not discriminate". The statement reemphasized that "Syria lacked the responsibility to protect its own people" and urged all parties to facilitate safe and unhindered humanitarian access to the population in need of assistance in all areas under their control and through lines border. Despite this statement, the situation for Syrian civilians didn't improve. Syrian government besiege of the civilians continued, while millions more were displaced and were in a desperate need of humanitarian assistance. On 22 February 2014 after further negotiations the Security Council unanimously adopted Resolution 2139, which urged all parties in Syria to allow the humanitarian access to the civilians displaced or besieged.[1] The resolution required that "all parties should undertake appropriate steps to protect civilians, including members of ethnic and religious communities" and stressed particularly that "the primary responsibility to protect its population belongs to the Syrian authorities".[2]

Another issue that could have impact on the political solution, making peace talks have any hope for success, was that the main regional powers including Iran, Saudi Arabia, Qatar and Turkey to understand and accept the need for non-military engagement in the Syrian conflict, because a wider sectarian war was in the regional strategic interests of no one. Beside these powers, the Arab League, the United States and Russia had a key role to play as potential guarantors of any settlement through negotiations. It was also important that the Security Council showed its determination to punish each violation of any peace agreement.

Another issue seeking solutions was that of the responsibility for the three years of mass atrocity crimes in Syria. The Security Council's Commission of Inquiry on Human Rights had published numerous reports attending mass atrocities committed by all sides. They published details on how the government forces and their allies had been responsible for large-scale massacres, war crimes and major violations of international humanitarian law. In the absence of accountability for the atrocities can have neither peace nor justice. The impunity gave heart to all parties to become even more resistant toward a negotiated settlement of the Syrian conflict. The Security Council would refer the Syrian situation to the International Criminal Court for further investigations.[3]

The necessity of restricting the use of veto

Many attempts were made in the Security Council by drafting many draft resolutions that aimed to condemn the mass atrocities that have affected civilians, to respond to threats to international peace and security caused by terrorist acts and to outline the primary responsibility of Member States to protect the civilian populations in their own territories. But these resolutions could not be adopted due to the fact that the five permanent members of the Security Council did not reach an agrement. The same thing happened with the French draft resolution on 22 May 2014 which asked that the situation in Syria to be referred to the International Criminal Court for investigations. This draft resolution was stymied by Russia and China who used their right of veto, although many international non-governmental organizations supported the resolution

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[1] United Nations Security Council, "Statement by the President of the Security Council on the situation in the Middle East," S/PRST/2013/15, 2 October 2013, http://www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=S/ PRST/2013/15.

[2] Valerie Amos: Statement to the press on Security Council briefing on Syria. *www.unocha.org/media-resources/usg-statement-speeches*

[3] United Nations, Annex to the letter dated 2 April 2014 from the Permanent Representative of France to the United Nations addressed to the President of the Security Council, "A report into the credibility of certain evidence with regard to torture and execution of persons incarcerated by the current Syrian regime," S/2014/244, 4 April 2014, http://www.un.org/ ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=S/2014/244.

and requested for its adoption.[1] This was in fact the fourth draft resolution intended to stop mass atrocities in Syria since the conflict began in 2011, which was hampered by Russia and China.

The failure of all permanent members of the Security Council to agree, amongst whom there was a substantial share of the possibility of using the Responsibility to Protect had hindered the ability of the Security Council to end the civil war in Syria. Russian and Chinese barriers to action in order to limit the Assad government and others who had committed mass atrocities, the lack of an action in a timely manner from the international community, had affected the severity of the conflict in Syria.

During the 68-th session of the General Assembly held in New York on September 24, 2013, 154 of the 193 member states of the United Nations confirmed the terror that had caused the civil war in Syria. Many countries discussed the possibility of reforming the Security Council, and some specifically sought to limit the right to use the veto by permanent members of the Security Council in situations of mass atrocities.[2]

Regarding the debate the representative of Liechtenstein stressed that he believed in the application of the doctrine of the Responsibility to Protect, to protect populations from mass atrocities and that the use of the veto or the threat to use it is in a way incompatible with the purposes of the Nations Nation. All the five permanent members of the Security Council must be able to give the world one public commitment that they will not use their right of veto to block international action aimed at ending or preventing atrocious crimes. This will be essential to enhance the effectiveness of the Security Council and its credibility.[3]

More or less the same position also held France when it proposed that the Security Council should develop a code of conduct by which its permanent members collectively agree to restrict the use of the veto in cases of mass atrocity crimes, that the doctrine of the Responsibility to Protect is assumed that should prevent.[4]

Such debates no matter how less important and effective can be to resolve the conflict in Syria as they are somewhat delayed in the concrete case of Syria, after so much suffering caused by the atrocities committed there, however, they have a fundamental importance for the open path to the future implementation of Responsibility to Protect. They are also an excellent base to achieve the realization of the goal of a reform of the United Nations meaningfully. The case of the civil war in Syria and the many problems that the spread of international terrorism have caused, are facing the United Nations with the confrontation with new challenges, challenges of the XXI century, which the United Nations must be able to respond.

Conclusions

The conflict in Syria was marked by several different stages of development of events, based on the circumstances in which fighting took place and the temporary victory of one party or the other.

The opposing sides control significant parts of the territory, but none managed to trigger a comprehensive military defeat of the other, although additional external assistance was demanded to skew the balance of power.

The international community should be guided towards the protection of the vulnerable and must not allow mass atrocities to occur in the XXI century.

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[1] Michelle Nichols, "Russia calls U.N. vote on Syria 'publicity stunt,' vows to veto," *Reuters*, 21 May 2014, http://www.reuters.com/ article/2014/05/21/us-syria-crisis-un-icc-i

[2] Global Centre for the Responsibility to Protect, "The Responsibility to Protect at the Opening of the 68th Session of the United Nations General Assembly," 4 October 2013, 60-61, http://www.globalr2p.org/publications/264.

[3] Remarks delivered by Permanent Mission of Liechtenstein to the United Nations, quoted in Global Centre for the Responsibility to Protect, "The Responsibility to Protect at the Opening of the 68th Session of the United Nations General Assembly*.", www.globalr2p.org/media/files/2013-ga-quotes-summary*

[4] Laurent Fabius, "A call for self-restraint at the U.N.," *New York Times*, 4 October 2013, http://www.nytimes.com/2013/10/04/opinion/a-call-forself- restraint-at-the-un.html?_

The United Nations must commit specifically to prevent genocide, crimes against humanity, war crimes and ethnic cleansing in order to respond to the challenges that the new reality has brought, through the implementation of the United Nations commitment assumed in 2005 Responsibility to Protect.

In cases where a government is unable to protect the human rights of its own people or it itself is responsible for the violations of these rights, state sovereignty should stay apart and create the possibility for the use of the Responsibility to Protect.

The principle of respect for national sovereignty should not pose an infinitely license for killings and other mass atrocity crimes at the expense of massive vulnerable people.

Permanent members of the Security Council have the responsibility to fulfill the main objectives of the United Nation, therefore, they must be very objective in using their right of veto in extreme cases, when the world is confronting many dangerous crimes.

Despite the difficulties facing the Security Council is obliged to help to end war crimes and crimes against humanity in Syria, solving all issues dealing with humanitarian access, negotiations for a political solution and an end to impunity for mass atrocities committed by all parties to the conflict.

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Language Skills among Students in the Field of Engineering

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Abstract

The present paper aims to shed light on the importance of language skills perceived by students in the field of engineering. The English course is designed to help students to improve their reading, writing, listening and speaking skills related to the specific topics in engineering, and thus to prepare them for their future career. Students are aware of the fact that in today's globalized and competitive world companies need highly qualified specialists who possess not only professional knowledge and competencies but also adequate language proficiency necessary to succeed in the job market. So, the study examines students' perceptions and attitudes towards the use of language skills for understanding, explaining and doing engineering. The results of the research show a strong interest in taking a career-related course and strengthening knowledge of the English language.

Key words: English course, engineering students, language skills

1. *Introduction*

Today, in the age of international integration and the exchange of knowledge and ideas, the English language has received the status of the global language (Crystal 2003). As English has become "the primary means of communication *at workplaces both within and across boundaries"* (Purpura & King, 2003), there is an increasing demand for learning English for Specific Purposes (ESP). ESP as a form of English language teaching focuses on teaching a language with a particular aim to empower students to use a language in professional settings. The purpose of ESP is to prepare students (future specialists) to communicate effectively in the professional field and real-life situations. The ultimate goal is to become 'operational' in any learning situation (Živković, 2013).

ESP focuses on the specific linguistic knowledge and communication skills in order to accomplish specific purposes (Orr, 1998) within a specific discipline or profession. Students have the specific language needs (Basturkmen, 2010) for their field of study and work (Lowe, 2009). It means that ESP courses help students develop communicative skills they will need in the future target situation (industry or business settings).

Therefore, ESP is specialty-oriented which means it refers to specific needs of the students (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). This can be achieved with a content-based curriculum, where students learn the language by focusing on the subject matter with the help of authentic materials. This points to the rise of the ESP approach which has reshaped the English language curriculum to meet students' specialized communication needs. At this point, it should be noted that ESP is "goal directed" (Robinson, 1991) as "language does not exist for its own sake, but because people do things with it. In other words, language can be looked at from the point of view of function" (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

In order to be successful in the workplace and to follow the developments in time, students need to have not only the knowledge of engineering science, but a good command of language skills. Accordingly, in order to provide adequate preparation for future work, the ESP teacher should teach the following: a) reading (e.g. scanning, skimming, extensive reading, critical thinking); b) writing (e.g. academic discourse, genres, grammar); c) listening/speaking (e.g. lectures, oral presentation)" (Howard and Brown, 1997). Having a high level in listening, reading, writing and speaking helps students to communicate effectively and to become expert members of their professional and discourse communities (Basturkmen, 2010).

2.   ESP for engineering students

ESP courses are designed to teach language and communication skills that students need or will need in their disciplines or professions (Basturkmen, 2010). Engineering students are taught the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In addition, they need to acquire basic grammar and expand   specialized vocabulary in order to improve language proficiency. "This fourfold categorization of language proficiency has been adopted as the organizing principle behind the series because it continues to occupy a central role in the activities of examination boards and other language test providers"   (Taylor, 2011).

The importance of teaching vocabulary in ESP to succeed in the academic studies Cartner (2009) is widely accepted for "a successful achievement of a specific communicative purpose"(Swales, 1990). The emphasis on technical vocabulary development is crucial for the engineering students in the process of language learning. There are four distinct types of vocabulary (Cummins, 1999, cited in Herrel, 2004):

Reading vocabulary – words students are able to identify when reading a text,

Listening vocabulary - words students are able to understand when listening to speech,

Writing vocabulary - words students are able to use in writing,

Speaking vocabulary - words students are able to use in speech.

The important thing is to provide students with practical knowledge that they will be able to apply after completing the course. It means, to be familiar with technical terminology and practice using the domain-specific vocabulary words they need for future work.

To sum up, engineering students require an ever-increasing range of skills to maintain relevance with the global environment of the new millennium. "It is no longer sufficient for a new graduate to have knowledge of an academic subject; increasingly, it is necessary for students to gain those skills which will enhance their prospects of employment" (Fallows & Steven, 2000). Employers want a number of new competencies, with an emphasis on an increased ability to communicate, as well as good foreign language skills (Jensen, 2000).

1.   Goals and objectives of the course

"People are generally motivated to pursue specific goals; the use of goals in teaching improves the effectiveness of teaching and learning; and a program will be effective to the extent that its goals are sound and clearly described" (Richards, 2001).

Student-centered learning requires students to set their own goals for learning, and determine resources and activities that will help them meet those goals (Jonassen, 2000). It is said that the way you organize your course depends on a number of factors which include: "The course content, your goals and objectives, your past experience, your students needs, your beliefs and understandings, the method or text and the context" (Graves, 2000).

The ESP course for engineering students is designed to meet students' needs (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Munby, 1978; Nunan, 1988; Strevens, 1988). Any vocationally-oriented course must be based on the fundamental issue of "what learners need to do with English" (Dudley-Evans, 1997). It offers the opportunity to study English with a focus on technical terminology required in the particular field. The course concentrates on achieving an effective balance of linguistic skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing) and oral communication in the engineering setting.

The objectives of the ESP course in the engineering classroom are:

- to develop all four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing);
- to enhance the ability in listening comprehension;
- to provide practice in realizing the meaning of a text;

- to understand the general features of a text;

- to make students become familiar with different reading strategies;
- to make notes of the main points of a reading text;
- to write reports, business memos, emails;
- to understand and improve technical vocabulary;
- to enable students to use words appropriately in the engineering context;
- to enhance students' ability to communicate effectively in English in their professional field;
- to provide students the opportunity to speak in public (e.g. presentations) and take part in discussions, seminars, conferences;
- to discuss, ask and answer questions related to engineering topics;
- to develop proficiency in the language use in job-related situations.

"Stating your goals helps to bring into focus your visions and priorities for the course" (**Graves, 2000).**

3. METHODOLOGY

The ESP course for the engineering students focuses on the development of oral and written communication skills which are required in the globalized world community.

The study describes the implementation of four basic language skills into the engineering course. It has been examined students' attitudes towards basic language skills and how students perceive the use of the skills in the engineering classroom.

3.1. Research questions

The following research questions were used to guide the pilot study:

- What are students' attitudes towards basic language skills?

- How do students perceive the use of the skills in the engineering classroom?

3.2. Sample and data collection

The investigation was performed at the Faculty of Civil Engineering and Architecture in Niš, based on the sample of 95 undergraduate students. Data collection was done in winter semester, 2014. For the purpose of the study, a questionnaire method on students' attitudes (opinions and reactions) towards the significance of written and oral communication in the engineering classroom has been developed. Data analysis was carried out through qualitative analysis technique. It has produced insightful results into students' perceptions of the basic language skills in the engineering classroom as constructivist oriented.

4. Findings
4.1. Students' perceptions of the importance of language skills

The findings on students' attitudes towards basic language skills indicate that students support learning these skills, and in that way they increase knowledge and abilities. Taking this into consideration, results can be summarized as the following:

4.2. Students discussion

<u>Listening skills</u>

- Listening is useful since it enables us to understand specific information.

- Listening helps us to comprehend the main points of engineering.

- Listening is a good way of increasing technical vocabulary.

- Listening activities enable us to interact in oral communication.

- Listening helps us to be successful in communicating with our colleagues.

- Listening enables us to speak clearly to other colleagues about relevant topics.

- Listening is an important skill which helps us understand specific details in the field of expertise.

- We listen to each other when presenting and discussing different projects.

- We are used to hearing a variety of different accents.

- We are able to follow instructions given in class activities.

- We listen to intonation patterns and pronunciation.

- Listening helps us to pronounce words properly.

- We can understand telephone messages.

- We are capable of finding the main idea of a related text.

- We are able to comprehend a short presentation about the field of engineering.

- Listening helps us to discuss, give opinions and ask questions in class.

<u>Speaking skills</u>

- We can communicate effectively with our colleagues about expertise topics.

- We can ask and answer questions related to engineering topics.

- We are able to use vocabulary appropriately.

- We are able to use the correct forms of words.

- We can communicate in job interviews.

- We can organize presentations and present them in front of a large group of colleagues.

- Oral presentations help us learn English better and practice our speaking skills.

- We are able to carry on a conversation on a related topic.

- Speaking helps us to participate in seminars and conferences.

- We can share information and ideas with other colleagues.

- We discuss the content of the text in order to develop thinking skills.

- We gain ability to manage the various communication situations outside the classroom.

- Speaking helps us to practice pronunciation.

- We are able to use grammar structures accurately.

Reading skills

- Reading helps us to get the main point from authentic texts.

- Reading stimulates our interest in different topics.

- We can read a range of technical-related topics.

- We receive practice in reading for different purposes, such as finding main ideas, or discovering the author's point of view.

-We are able to identify key words from the text.

- We are able to scan a passage to find specific information.

- Reading helps us to understand texts in areas related to our research.

- We can distinguish the main idea from supporting details.

- Reading helps us to improve vocabulary skills.

Writing skills

- We learn how to write a CV which leads to a job interview.

- We are able to write clear and concise professional emails.

- We are able to summarize material which has been read.

- We can write summaries which include the topics in the engineering area.

- We learn how to take notes on lectures quite satisfactorily by taking engineering into consideration.

- We can write the English language correctly taking into account sentence construction.

- We are able to write short paragraphs about engineering topics.

5. Discussion

The ESP course for engineering students is focused on four basic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. By doing these activities, students increase technical vocabulary by knowing terms which helps to communicate effectively in English in their professional field. "No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds are mastered, without words to express wider range of meanings, communication cannot happen in any meaningful way" (McCarthy, 1990).

All four language skills are needed in the ESP context according to the needs of particular group of learners in the specialized area. One of these skills is sometimes more emphasized than the others. This depends on the objectives of language course, methods of teaching and needs of learners (Derradji, 1995). A linear acquisition sequence of skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing has led curriculum designers and language educators to introduce these four types of language (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Through reviewing these four skills of English, the last skill as well as the most complicated skill, writing could be constructed. Writing expertise can be accomplished in a more effectual and well-organized system if a lecturer can follow sequence of linear acquisition (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Everson (2009) emphasizes that "listening is vital skill of language in the sense that it enables one to be able to understand what other people are saying or communicating". Listening is necessary in the sense that it also enables individuals to be able to pay attention to others in order to understand what is being delivered or communicated to them (Littlewood, 1995).

"The reading purpose is to find answers to the questions (e.g. the main idea of a section)" (Jordan, 1997). The skill of reading enables individuals to develop ways of seeing through written texts, the descriptions of cultures and worlds, and how the text try to position or influence the reader to be part of the cultures and worlds. Reading texts is therefore always necessarily a "complex conjoining of "word" and "world", "text" and "context" (Cobb, 2008). It enables the reader to become aware of how reading skills could be used to read purposefully, actively and critically.

Students "must possess strong listening and reading abilities in order to succeed in university courses" (Murphy, 1996).

As far as speaking is concerned, Ostler (1980) lists oral tasks to highlight the order of importance: asking questions, discussing issues, giving talks, participating in panel discussions and receiving interviews. "The university students' needs for improved academic speaking abilities are considered more important than other skills" (Ostler, 1980). According to Krashen (1987) "speaking and listening are two essential language skills in the sense that without the speaker and an understander there can be no language at all".

As for writing, concise and clear writing is an extremely important aspect of an engineer's education. Engineering is certainly one field where proficiency in written communication is valued. 'Knowledge of genre is a key element in all communication and especially significant in writing academic or professional texts' (Dudley-Evans et al. 1998). "We may well find that writing helps us to come to terms with our experience and understand it better" (Brookes & Grundy, 1990).

6. Conclusion

To sum up, the research study presents a clear conception of what students perceive to be the quality of learning in the classroom. The study creates the opportunity for student voice "to express their opinions and make decisions regarding the planning, implementation, and evaluation of their learning experiences" (Rogers, 2005).

The course trains students in both theoretical knowledge and practical skills essential to transformative pedagogy (Giroux 1997; Benesch, 1993) in contemporary society.

The purpose of ESP is to prepare students to use a language to effectively communicate in real-life situations and cooperate with partners in professional fields. More specifically, the focus is on the practical experience and direct activity of students. Student-centered learning requires students to set their own goals for learning, and determine resources and activities that will help them meet those goals (Jonassen, 2000).

Course activities are designed to introduce teamwork skills, to encourage students in their learning, and to use processes to solve a problem and continue improving them (self-regulation). More specifically, students are encouraged to search for solutions to real-world problems, and thus, they are engaged in transformative learning, leading to critical and analytical thinking which is essential for success in the *21st century.*

ESP courses allow students to interact with learning materials, and to explore and construct vocabulary and meanings. The ultimate goal of today's ESP students is to acquire the ability to successfully communicate with others (professionals) in a meaningful and appropriate way. As stated earlier, ESP courses prepare students to use a language to communicate effectively in real-life situations and cooperate with colleagues in professional fields.

The teacher as a course developer (Graves, 1996) should encourage communication through dialogue interaction aimed at mutual development and enrichment. As previously noted, the Socratic method, as a form of dialogic discussion, can be really efficient in ESP constructivist settings, as it can empower and support group learning based on either individual or a social constructivist approach. It highlights students' engagement in the discussion with a specific topic as a central focus. Consequently, students learn to think critically by examining one another's ideas and questions in an attempt to create a better understanding and "to have their voices heard and build on their previous experiences and interests to plan for their continuing growth" (Dewey, 1938).

Students are encouraged to search for solutions to real-world problems, and thus, they are engaged in transformative learning, leading to critical and analytical thinking which is essential for success in the *21st century.*

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Miskawayh's Apologia for Greek Philosophy

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Abstract

In the East, Greek philosophy was studied as early as the fourth century, not however, by the Muslims but by the Arab Syrian Christians. It was Syrian Christians who brought wine, silk and other precious items to the West, but it was the Syrians also who cultivated Greek sciences for many centuries before they eventually transmitted them to the Muslim philosophers, especially in the tenth and eleventh century Baghdad. Miskawayh (d.1030), a great Muslim moralist, was among the philosophers who flourished in Baghdad at such times. He was well educated in Islamic studies as well as in philosophy, especially Greek philosophy. The many quotations from Greek sources which are found in Miskawayh's works, especially in his major work on ethics, Tahdhib al-Akhlaq (The Refinement of Character), provide important evidence for this study to argue that they also have contributed to the formation of his moral philosophy. This paper thus, seeks to investigate Miskawayh's own attraction to Greek ideas, which eventually led him towards the acceptance of Greek thought and also towards the need for an apologetic on behalf of philosophical study and on the relations between philosophy and the divine revelation.

Keywords: Miskawayh, Greek philosophy, apologia, Shari'a (Islamic law)

Introduction

Miskawayh did not write books or fragments on the question of the harmony between religion and philosophy. Nevertheless, the numerous references to Greek scholars and Greek books in his writings may suggest that Miskawayh basically shared the positive attitude towards Greek philosophy as held by the majority of the philosophers. The precise reason for his refusal to write on the subject is unknown. On the other hand, perhaps it was due to the very positive policy of most of the Buwayhid rulers (945 A.D. to 1055 A.D.) towards learning, who patronised numerous groups of scholars of the time especially the philosophers, including Miskawayh.

The existence of a few works on the subject, though mostly very brief, such as those by his predecessor al-Kindi, *Fi'l-Falsafah al-Ula* (On First Philosophy, 1968), and his contemporaries, Ibn al-Khammar, *Kitab al-Wifaq bayn Ra'y al-Falasifah wa'l-Nasara* (Treatise on the Agreement of the Opinions of the Philosophers and the Christians,Ibn al-Nadim 1871-1872:265), and Ibn Zur'a, *Treatise on the Innocence of Those who Inquire into Logic* (1963) on the other hand, may have caused Miskawayh to feel at home with philosophy, and hence, to leave this debatable subject undeveloped, but instead to devote himself actively to the study of the essence and history of philosophy. We are convinced, however, that Miskawayh was first of all a Muslim philosopher, and if a priority must be established between Greek philosophy and his religious beliefs, the supremacy always belongs to the latter, though he appeared to have accepted the general view that religion and philosophy or revelation and reason are complementary.

Baghdad in Miskawayh's time stands out among the most eminent intellectual centres of the world. Its rulers, the Buwayhids and their viziers, who maintained their supremacy over Baghdad for more than 100 years, from 945 A.D. to 1055 A.D., were not only famous as patrons of art and culture but, in many cases, were themselves scholars in their own right. They extended patronage to scholars of the time, accommodated their learned associates in their *majalis* (circles), and often made them their courtiers, secretaries, advisors, historians, physicians, astronomers and the like (Kabir 1964: 168-185).

When one of the Buwayhids' viziers, Sahib Ibn 'Abbad (d. 995), who was himself a celebrated scholar, was once asked about the centre he replied: "Baghdad among towns is like *ustadh* (a professor) among men" (Al-Tawhidi 1965:445). A mediaeval Muslim historian, Khatib al-Baghdadi (Lassner 1970:108-109), the younger contemporary of Miskawayh, took almost the same view, depicting Baghdad as follows:

"In the entire world, there has not been a city which could compare with Baghdad in size and splendour, or in the number of scholars and great personalities. The distinction of the notable and general populace serves to distinguish Baghdad from other cities, as does the vastness of its districts, the extent of its borders, and the great number of residences and palaces".

Hence, Miskawayh was extremely fortunate to have been well placed in the heart of Islamic civilisation which provided him with the opportunity to develop his own respective skills and interests as well as to participate in contemporary events, both political and intellectual, and then to make his contribution in his own right and his own way.

Miskawayh's Reaction

Miskawayh (1966: 35, 91-94,117,129) identifies the aim of the Islamic law *(shari'a)* and philosophy *(hikma)* as one and the same. They both lead man towards the achievement of the end for the sake of which he was brought into existence, that is happiness. However, in order to guarantee this ultimate aim, man should firstly believe in the Law and observe its duties, for it prescribes all virtues and forbids all vices. It reforms man, accustoms him to good deeds, and prepares his soul to receive wisdom, seek virtues and finally to attain happiness. He may then undertake the study of philosophy so as to perceive more deeply God's will for human salvation through His revelation embodied in the *Shari'a*. Hence, the agreement between philosophy and *Shari'a* is, according to Miskawayh, absolute. Here are his words:

"It has become clear that man is in need, at the beginning of his life, first of his parent's guidance (*siyasa al-walidayn*), then of the divine *law* (*al-shari'a al-Ilahiyya*) and the right religion (*wa'l-din al-qayyim*) to reform him and set him straight, and then to consummate wisdom (*hikma*) to assume his direction to the end of his life" (Miskawayh 1968:90).

Miskawayh (1900:66) further claims that the Prophets were sent by God to instruct both speculative and practical philosophy so that they might cure the people's diseases of ignorance and refine their bad morals. God is the prescriber of the law (*musharri' al-shari'a*); the prophet is its custodian (*sahib al-shari'a*); while the philosopher is the one who confirms the words of God, the words of the prophets and he who obeys that law (Miskawayh 1966:146). Hence, "both the sages and philosophers are the first of all creatures to confirm the prophets, for both agree in the perception of those matters of reality". While the difference between them, argues Miskawayh (1900: 103), "is only that the philosopher comes to his contemplation by advancing from the lower to the higher and the prophet has descended from the higher to the lower to apprehend reality".

Miskawayh, like other Muslim philosophers, also considered all the scriptures revealed to earlier prophets, primarily those of the Christians and Jews, as holy and authentic, for all of them came from the same God. Yet, the Qur'an which was revealed to the last prophet, Muhammad, is the mother of scriptures that consummates all truth-giving revelations based on the same way of faith as was commended to earlier apostles. It is beyond doubt that these ideas were derived by Miskawayh from the verses of the Qur'an (42:13-15), which he quoted in succession (1963:199). Those verses read:

"The same Religion has He established for you as that which He enjoined on Noah - the which we have sent by inspiration to Thee - and that which we enjoined on Abraham, Moses, and Jesus: Namely, that ye should remain steadfast in religion, and make no divisions therein: to those who worship other things than Allah, hard is the (way) to which Thou callest them. Allah chooses to Himself those whom He pleases, and guides to Himself those who turn (to Him). And They became divided only after knowledge reached them,- through selfish envy as between themselves. had it not been for a word that went forth before from Thy Lord, (tending) to a term appointed, the matter would have been settled between them: but truly those who have inherited the Book after them are in suspicious (disquieting) doubt concerning it. Now then, for that (reason), call (them to the faith), and stand steadfast as Thou art commanded, nor follow Thou their vain desires; but say: "I believe In the Book which Allah has sent down; and I am commanded to judge justly between you. Allah is our Lord and your Lord: for us (Is the responsibility for) our deeds, and for you for your deeds, there is no contention between us and you. Allah will bring us together, and to Him is (our) final Goal".

Another verse reads:

"We did send apostles before thee, and appointed for them wives and children: and it was never the part of an apostle to bring a sign (*ayat*) except as God permitted (or commanded). For each period is a Book (revealed). God doth blot out or confirm what He pleaseth: with Him is the Mother of the Book" (al-Qur'an, 13:18-19).

The basic difference between the *Islam* that God has revealed to earlier prophets and that of Muhammad, is that the former is designated to a particular group of peoples for certain periods of times, like Moses and Jesus for the children of Israel (al-Qur'an 5:22, 61:6); whereas the latter is for the whole world and for all time to come. God says: "We have not sent thee but as a universal (messenger) to men" (al-Qur'an, 34:28. See also verses, 4:79, 7:158 and 21:107). That is why every Muslim is obliged to believe and to say:

"Say: we believe in God, and in what has been revealed to us and what was revealed to Abraham, Isma'il, Isaac, Jacob, and the Tribes, and in (the Books) given to Moses, Jesus, and the prophets, from their Lord: we make no distinction between one and another among them, and to God do we bow our will (in Islam)" (al-Qur'an 3:84).

Miskawayh (1983:285) also holds that God alone is the giver of the real wisdom. He gives wisdom to whomever He pleased and he who is granted wisdom is indeed granted great good. This idea is again derived from the Qur'an (2:269), in which God says: "He (God) granted wisdom to whom he pleaseth; and he to whom wisdom is granted receiveth indeed a benefit overflowing; but none will grasp the message but men of understanding".

Accordingly, Miskawayh leaves no room for doubt about studying philosophy from those who have it or who have been granted it. It made no difference whether they are Persians, Indians, Arabs or Greeks. In his *Jawidan Khirad* (The Everlasting Wisdom), which he wrote towards the end of his life, he put this ideal into practice where he gathered together the wise sayings of the sages of these communities, and consequently concluded that they, regardless of the divergences of their religious convictions, geographical backgrounds and times, yet, they treaded the same path towards the truth (Miskawayh 1983:25,375-376). It was also due to such a personal conviction, that Miskawayh (1917: 49,58) esteems the individual Greek philosophers - for example Aristotle - primarily as eminent compilers of philosophy who first discovered the ultimate end for the sake of which man is created, that is happiness. Thus, he affirms:

"Prior to this sage (*hakim* i.e., Aristotle) philosophy (or: wisdom: *hikma*) was dispersed just like other useful things created by God, Who entrusted to the natural disposition of human beings and to the strength He gave them for this purpose the charge of utilising these (things): (such things), for instance as medicaments, dispersed in the country-side and in the mountains, when these are put together and combined, a useful medicine is the result. In a similar manner Aristotle put together the dispersed (parts) of philosophy and combined every (part) with that which was consonant with it and placed it in the appropriate place, so that he produced from them a perfect healing, which cures the souls of the diseases of ignorance" (Miskawayh 1917:58. English translation by Pines 1972:123-124).

Miskawayh (1966: 131-132), likewise maintains that the *Shari'a* prescribes virtues (*al-fada'il*) in rather a general way and does not get down to every particular. It is, then, left to man to interpret it, the *Shari'a*, into the multiplicity of which man is made up. The *Shari'a* is viewed in this context as providing the essential groundwork for all aspects of life as well as for reasoning and philosophical reflection. Man should, therefore, follow all the obligations laid down by the *Shari'a*, while at the same time exercising his reason (*'aql*) in order to comprehend more deeply its meanings. Reason, Miskawayh (1966: 13,47,132) continues, is God's deputy in man that distinguishes him from animals. So, he who does not use his reason diminishes his human status to that of the beast. In order to strengthen this view, Miskawayh (1964:83) accordingly quotes the verse of the Qur'an (7:179), which reads:

"Many are the jinns and men We (God) have made for hell: they have hearts wherewith they understand not, eyes wherewith they see not, and ears wherewith they hear not. They are like cattle - nay more misguided: for they are heedless (of warning)".

That is why Miskawayh (1966:140-142) interprets some tenets of the *Shari'a* by means of philosophical arguments. For instance, he insists that the name "man" (*insan*) is derived from the root word *uns* (fellowship) not from *nisyan* (forgetfulness) as some people would think. Every man, he says, is endowed with this quality of fellowship. Then the *Shari'a* develops it and makes it obligatory upon people by means of religious duties such as prayer (*salat*) and pilgrimage to the Holy Place at Mecca (*hajj*). Through daily prayers, especially communal prayers, the members of small communities and of households come together five times every day; through Friday prayer the inhabitants of the city gather together once every week; while

through the *hajj* people from all over the world meet one another. In this way, that is to say, by observing the *Shari'a*, man may, at the outset, experience this inborn fellowship which exists in him in potency, and thereafter, realise it in actuality which is the origin of all love that binds them together.

Conclusion

Miskawayh, to sum up, was never servile imitator or blind follower of the Greeks but always kept his independent and critical attitude towards them. He did not leave Greek ideas raw or unmodified but very often impressed his personal stamp on what he received. This attitude is best illustrated by many of his extant writings where he freely adapted and even rejected several philosophical arguments set forth by his predecessors. The fact that Miskawayh was well-grounded in his own traditional learning as well as in Greek philosophy, is likewise no less evident. Miskawayh was also strongly convinced Muslim prior to his acceptance of Greek thought. Hence, the latter is used basically as an instrument to express his personal convictions, clearly the case for him. This would also imply that "philosophy" to him, does not appear to contradict with his faith, but rather to confirm and supplement it. Consequently, the "philosopher" is seen as neither God nor a prophet but rather the true scholar who confirms the words of both.

Thus, in Miskawayh's vision, the great Aristotle is viewed primarily as a philosopher who gathered together the dispersed parts of philosophy belonging to many previous nations. Therefore, the study of ancient sciences and philosophy was regarded by him, both as a renovation and as an innovation of such an important heritage. It appears to us that the study on the empirical circumstances of Miskawayh's life show him to have been well placed in the heart of Islamic civilization which provided him with the opportunity to develop his own respective skills and interests, and to participate in his contemporary events, both political and intellectual. Miskawayh seem to us to represent an excellent example of the creative interaction, we may say "dialogue", between Greek thought on the one hand, and Islamic terms and concepts on the other. His world, medieval Islamic Baghdad, appears to be comparable with the Western world of today. In the one, the westerners from various parts of that world came to Baghdad to pursue their academic interests and specialities. In the other, the Muslims of today go to the West for very much the same purposes.

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Diplomatic Means of Resolving the International Dispute: Case of Iranian Nuclear Program

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to explain the necessity of resolving the conflict with Iran through diplomatic means and avoiding military confrontation, as much as possible and start cooperation with the state as other important regional issues concerns, which in turn is the most effective track for resolving the conflict. Moreover the article aims to serve as an example of resolving the future potential conflicts by diplomatic means as proposed in "Resolved Iranian Dispute". The main goal of this article is conceptual exploration and identification of concepts theoretically applicable in the field of international relations, as mean of building peaceful resolution on international disputes. Furthermore the enforcement of theoretical concepts to a specific and generally complex cases such as the Iranian nuclear program.

Keywords: *Diplomatic Means, Iran Nuclear Program, Peaceful Resolution*

1. Introduction

For more than three decades, the United States (as a leader of western countries) has relied more heavily on the pressure track than on the diplomatic track of its "dual-track" Iran policy. After the presidential election in Iran is a right time for a reexamination of the United States' policy approach, even while Iran continues to expand its nuclear program.

Although by their nature, negotiations take time, the US should make clear to Iran to understand that the time for diplomacy is nearing its end. Stopping in progress more quickly toward making Iran a de facto state with nuclear weapons requires important diplomatic action, quick and without interruptions.

This paper explains and analyzes the steps of resolving the case of Iran nuclear program, the proposals of the parties and the failure to reach a resolution. Moreover this paper explains and analyzes the step by step Russian proposal and silence on these proposals by the Western countries. In this article will be discussed the impact and effectiveness of the Security Council Resolutions against Iran who has approved six resolutions as part of international efforts to address Iran's nuclear program.

2. The Steps toward Resolution

Diplomatic initiatives to resolve the Iranian nuclear issue have produced several proposals for a negotiated settlement, or to build confidence between Iran and the international community. So far, none of these proposals have not been accepted by all parties involved (except the last agreement), so efforts to address Iran nuclear program still are ongoing.[1]

 One of the reason to reject the proposals by interested parties is that the multilateral negotiations are more difficult to reach agreement when it comes to deal with many subjects, values and interests, which with their diversity of consensus or agreement it makes very difficult to be accepted generally by all parties involved in negotiations.[2]

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[1] Devenport, Kelsey, History of Official Proposals on the Iranian Nuclear Issue, Arms Control Association, January 2014, http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/Iran_Nuclear_Proposals,19.03.2014.

[2] Bashkurti , Lisen, Negociatat, Historia, Teoria, Praktika, Tetovë, 2010, pg. 7.

While Iran progressed continuously in its nuclear program, the difficulties in finding a compromise to the parties involved, which would prevent Iran to possess nuclear weapons as something unacceptable for Israel as well for US were increased obviously. Teheran in the interval time 2003-2005 had drafted a number of proposals, some of which included provisions to limit nuclear operations at its main facilities and the implementation of transparency measures for its nuclear activities.[1]

While other negotiating party (France, Germany and the United Kingdom- EU3) in the same time interval mentioned above, had offered to Iran some proposals to resolve the nuclear issue during the negotiations. Later the diplomatic game had joined China, Russia and United States as part of a format known as the "P5 +1", whose at the same time are the permanent members of the UN Security Council, plus Germany, which provided approximately similar comprehensive proposals for Iran. This truck P5 +1 negotiations with Tehran regarding these proposals is perceived as a way of a "dual strategy" to address Iran's nuclear program. The second way, which had been followed by the P5 +1 consists of Security Council Resolutions that impose sanctions on Iran and demand to suspend all activities related to uranium enrichment and reprocessing and building heavy water reactor. But it can be said that recent initiatives are more focused on short-term measures of building the confidence and not in the solution of the nuclear issue, in order to overcome the deficit of trust between the two parties before entering into the more difficult and long-term negotiations.[2]

Very important in resolving the issue through diplomatic means it is which party takes the diplomatic initiative, as parties often reluctant to take such a step in order to maintain the prestige and failure to submit. In Iran's case referred to Karl Rove (White House deputy chief of staff to President George W. Bush), who had received a copy of a secret proposal by Iran to negotiate with the United States in early May of the year 2003.[3]

This is also confirmed by Tim Guldimann, former Swiss ambassador to Tehran, where he said that Iran made a proposal to the United States in May 2003 calling for negotiations on a range of contentious issues between the two countries. This document contained a number of points on the agenda that the two countries will negotiate and, simultaneously, the proposal to establish three parallel working groups to carry out negotiations on disarmament, regional security and economic cooperation.[4]

Among the key points of this proposal was the removal of all US sanctions against Iran, banning US hostile behavior against Iran, the lifting of the status of Iran in the relationship to the US as the "axis of evil ", cooperation to stabilize Iraq, full transparency on the Iranian nuclear program, including the Additional Protocol, cooperation against terrorist organizations, acceptance by Iran of the Arab League Declaration constituted as" Land for Peace ", in 2002, dedicated to Israel and Palestine, full access to Iran-nuclear peaceful technology, chemical and bio-technology, prevention of any material to support the Palestinian opposition groups (Hamas, Jihad etc.) from Iranian territory, pressure on these organizations to stop violent actions against civilians within borders of 1967, conversion of Hezbollah in a simple political organization.

The Bush administration rejected the proposal in favor of placing additional pressure on Iran.[5]

If we analyze the proposals above in detail, and if same proposals it would be treated more seriously by the United States for sure the case of Iran it will take another direction from what it is today; and other tools will be probably unnecessary to turn Iran in the right direction in that the west wanted. China, Russia and the United States along with the three countries in June 2006 EU3 offered another proposal for comprehensive negotiations with Iran. The proposal reflects some of the previous offers for negotiations[6] but Tehran rejected the terms of the proposal because the proposal demand that Iran to

[1] Devenport, Kelsey, History of Official Proposals on the Iranian Nuclear Issue, Arms Control Association, January 2014, fq,3-5,
/http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/Iran_Nuclear_Proposals?page=54ros,19.03.2014.
[2] Ibid, pg. 7.
[3] Porter, Gareth, Rove Said to Have Received 2003 Iranian Proposal, 17.02. 2007.
http://www.antiwar.com/orig/porter.php?articleid=10535, 16.03. 2014.
[4] Devenport, Kelsey, History of Official Proposals on the Iranian Nuclear Issue, Arms Control Association, January 2014,
http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/Iran_Nuclear_Proposals,19.03.2014.
[5] 2003_Spring, Iran Proposal, google.search, 02.02. 2014.
[6] Elements of a proposal to Iran, as approved on 1 June 2006 at the meeting in Vienna of China, France, Germany, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom, the Unites States of America and the European Union, European,
http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/reports/90569.pdf,Council, Council of European Union, S202,
http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/reports/90569.pdf   26. 03.2014.

suspend its uranium enrichment activities, but he noted that the proposal contained some " useful elements for a constructive approach".[1]

If Western Countries had had accepted Iranian proposals, Iran will certainly cooperate in point, which had declined, and certainly that Khomeini's regime would be returned politically from the West and that it will cooperate in point ,which had been rejected before. One of the reasons why Iran would cooperate even at this point has to do with it exactly the after military intervention by the US- United Kingdom coalition in Iraq, Iran had expressed willingness to reestablish the relations with the United States indirectly intentionally to be supported by USA to remain major regional power. After the election of US President Barack Obama, he began abandoning the previous policy of the United States, asking Iran for fulfilling the requirements of the UN Security Council to suspend nuclear fuel cycle, and urged the P5 + 1 to issue a statement that five other countries welcomed "the new truck of US policy towards Iran", calling for the resumption of talks officially once again.[2]

3. Step by step Russian Proposals

During a speech in Washington, Russian Foreign Minister Sergei Lavrov publicly proposed a "road map", which will need to be followed by the 5 +1, those proposals have not contained details, but its main elements are described by former head deputy of Iran's top nuclear negotiator Hossein Mousavian. According to him:

First step- Iran should limit uranium enrichment in Natanz, will not install any additional centrifuge and prevents production of advanced centrifuges, while the P5 + 1 will suspend some of the sanctions imposed by the UN, including financial sanctions shipping inspections.

Step 2- Iran will gives design information to the IAEA concerning its enrichment levels up to 5% and should allow greater monitoring of the IAEA on its centrifuges, while the P5 + 1 will suspend UN sanctions and gradually unilaterally will lift sanctions.

Step 3- Iran must implement the Additional Protocol adopted by the IAEA, while the P5 + 1 will suspend all UN sanctions in further stages.

Step 4-Iran shall suspend all activities related to uranium enrichment for the next three months, while the P5 + 1 will remove all sanctions and begin to implement a program to stimulate the cooperation proposed by the P5 + 1 group.[3]

P5 + 1 have not expressed public opposition, to the Russian proposal, but some of them do not even have supported it publicly.[4]

Analysis of this diplomatic truck suggested that has often this way had given proper results in settling international disputes. Example we can mention diplomatic way of practicing step by step diplomacy by Kissinger after the war of 1973, which has had positive results not only in terms of tactical positive result but as well as strategic one. Through this way has reached bilateral agreements with Egypt, which has changed drastically regional politics for 25 years and the other, where the Arab countries and Israel have maintained in a cold peace, which we can say that there has been success in this direction.[5]

The truck and methods followed in the resolution of the Iran case, based on the logic of the proposal gives to understand that the intensity and Russian diplomatic strategy relies more on "giving carrot" than in "the use of the stick".

4. Impact of Security Council Resolution on Iran

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[1] Devenport, Kelsey, (202) 463-8270 x102,*Timeline of Nuclear Diplomacy With Iran,* January 2014, 202) 463-8270 x102,
http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheet/Timeline-of-Nuclear-Diplomacy-With-Iran, 22.02. 2014.

[2] Arms Control Association*,* Fact Sheets & Briefs, http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/Iran_Nuclear, 13/02/2014.

[3] Kei, Helen&Bryan Lee, G8 or SCO, *Which Way to Go?, NTI, Building a safer world*, 06.07. 2012,
http://www.nti.org/analysis/articles/g8-or-sco-which-way-go/, 02.02. 2014.

[4] Sadri, Mohammad, Iran – P5+1: *What Happened from Moscow to Almaty?*, Iran Riview, Saturday, 23.02.
2013, http://www.iranreview.org/content/Documents/Iran-P5-1-What-Happened-from-Moscow-to- Almaty-.htm, 02.02. 2014.

[5] Bordeaux Parke, Richard, The October War: A Retrospective, University Press of Florida, 2001, pq.301.

An International Monetary Fund mission led by Mr. Abdelali Jbili, Assistant Director in the Department of the Middle East, completed a review of economic developments in Iran and held discussions with the authorities policies under the IMF's annual consultations with Iran. The mission noted that during the past three years, Iran has achieved one of the highest rates of growth in Eastern Region East-North Africa against the background of increasing openness to international trade and investment, economic reforms and stable prices oil. General economic situation in 2002/03 has been favorable, with high growth and broad-based real GDP, a drop in the unemployment rate for the first time in recent years, lowing international debt, and increasing international reserves. The mission welcomed progress in economic reform in some areas, including trade liberalization, establishment of private banks, the adoption of the law of foreign direct investment, amendment of the tax law and the preparation of the reforms underway in some other areas.

Security Council of the United Nations adopted six resolutions as part of international efforts to address Iran's nuclear program. The key demand of the Council was that Iran must suspend its program of uranium enrichment, as well as to take some concrete measures affecting confidence building by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), including the review of its building, heavy water reactor and ratification of the Additional Protocol to the IAEA. Council initially filed these calls with a non-binding statement of the Security Council adopted in March 2006. Almost all resolutions were adopted under Chapter VII of the Charter of the United Nations, making provisions legally binding resolutions against Iran, and that all resolutions were adopted as a result of the failure of previous resolutions. Four of them include a series of progressive sanctions on Iran, Iranian individuals and legal entities. Sanctions represent a track with a "dual approach", followed by the five permanent members of the Council and Germany (P5 + 1) to address Iran's nuclear program. Another way involves the proposal for comprehensive negotiations with Iran, which is updated on June 2008's.[1]

Council Resolution 1696 calls on Tehran to suspend its enrichment program and to verify its compliance with the requirements of the IAEA Board of Governors. The resolution expresses "the intention to adopt appropriate measures under Article 41 of Chapter VII of the Charter of the United Nations", if Iran does not cooperate the resolution warns Iran that its failure could result in sanctions of the Security Council not excluding the application of economic sanctions.[2]

Resolution 1737 was adopted in response to Iran's failure to comply with Resolution 1696. This resolution requires Iran to suspend uranium enrichment and to take other measures to build confidence. It also calls on Iran to ratify the Additional Protocol to the IAEA. The resolution impose sanctions on Iran, Iranian individuals and legal entities that are considered to provide support for proliferation activities of Iran. Firstly, the resolution calls upon states to exercise vigilance regarding the entry into their territories of persons engaged in nuclear activities or Iran's ballistic missiles. Second, states should freeze funds, financial assets and economic resources of certain individuals who are involved with Iran's nuclear programs. Thirdly, the resolution calls upon states to prevent the specialization and training of Iranian nationals to boost the ambitions of Iran's nuclear purposes.[3]

Resolution 1747 of the Security Council-this resolution was adopted as a result of Iran's failure to meet the two previous resolutions. The resolution reiterates and enhances some of the key sanctions Resolution 1737 and introduces some new measures. It requires states to prevent the entry or transit into their territories of certain individuals involved group of persons on Iran's nuclear ambitions.[4]

Unlike his predecessor, **Resolution 1835** has not been approved under Chapter VII of the UN Charter, nor envisages new provisions for Tehran must meet. Instead, he merely reaffirms four previous resolutions. It reaffirms the Council's commitment to a negotiated solution to the Iranian nuclear issue. This resolution would not describe the new sanctions against Iran or new monitoring mechanisms.[5]

Resolution 1929 imposed sixth round of sanctions on Iran. It forbids Iran to invest in nuclear and missile technology abroad, including investments in uranium mines. It creates a comprehensive arms embargo against Iran, banning the sale of tanks-

[1] Davenport, Kelsey, 202-463-8270 x.102 , 2012, http://www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/Iran_Nuclear_Proposals, 05.02. 2014.
[2] United Nations, Security Council, Resolution, 1696, 31.07. 2006.
[3] United Nations, Security Council, Resolution 1737 31.07. 2006.
[4] United Nations, Security Council, Resolution 1803, 03.03. 2006.
[5] United Nations, Security Council, Resolution 1835, 27.09. 2008.

combat, armored combat vehicles, artillery systems, large-caliber, combat aircraft, attack helicopters, battleships, missiles or missile systems to Iran. Also it is forbidden undertaking any activity related to ballistic missiles at the same time it requires states to take the necessary measures to prevent relevant to ballistic missile technology to Iran. Resolution 1929 requires the Secretary General to establish a panel of eight experts who will assist the Commission in carrying out its mandate, which will make recommendations for action to the Council, the Committee or State, may also take to improve implementation appropriate measures.[1]

Although most of the above Resolutions provide sanctions against Iran, where significant number of them are aimed at damaging the economy of this state, and almost successful implemented these sanctions, this path followed did not give expected results, has postponed Iran's nuclear program ahead, which the latter has bought time by long-term application of these sanctions[2] Fundamentally number of sanctions against individuals and legal entities against Iran has increased in much greater if we compare with North Korea. In this aspect, even though North Korea had tested a second time its nuclear weapons, however, sanctions have grown much more to Iran than on North Korea.[3]

Conclusions

Implementation of coercive diplomacy means like sanctions, pressure and threats of military intervention although given their positive effects have not given the expected results as to halt the progress of Iran's nuclear program and have not forced the state to decrease to the negotiating table. It may be argued that:

a) Military threat against Iran cannot intimidate this country to sit at the negotiating table, because Iran's supreme leader knowing the pressure on his regime, has created such circumstances that the cost of military intervention is much greater than the benefits, especially because one in every five barrels of oil that flow into international markets, passing through the Strait of Hormuz, where any military action against Iran, may be block the trade in this strait, where the same time will have enormous increase of oil prices, which can quickly affect higher prices for Americans, undermining economic recovery of America's poor and the global economic crisis.

b) Military attack on Iran would provoke a violent counterattack from Iran and Muslims in the Middle East. Iran possesses ballistic missiles with medium range, which can be filled with chemical weapons, where the first target is Israel. Iran could destabilize Iraq and also its impact on Hamas and Hezbollah, may require the latter to act militarily. Also do not cooperate on the Syria and Afghanistan case. Will be increased Russian and Chinese influence in the region. And from all these above mentioned policy makers in Iran are not afraid of a possible US attack on Iran.

The most favorite alternatives to resolve the Iranian crisis is active diplomacy. Iran must agree to limit its uranium enrichment program. The US and its negotiating partners must agree to accept Iran's peaceful nuclear program (including enrichment) and lift some of the most severe sanctions (including sanctions for trading in precious metals, European restrictions on imports oil and some banking restrictions). The US and its negotiating partners should agree on a process for the removal step by step of all UN sanctions in response to further progress.

Iran and the P5 + 1 must be agreed to a settlement under which Iran will adhere to all international nuclear conventions and safeguards agreements on nuclear program set by the IAEA. Moreover, Iran should be flexible in uranium enrichment, below 5% (percent), and this will boost the confidence of the international community that its nuclear program is only for peaceful purposes and that the state will remain free of nuclear weapons in the future. This would ensure the peaceful nature of Iran's nuclear activity. In response, the United States and other members of the P5 + 1 must agree to recognize the legitimate right of Iran to enrich uranium in accordance with the Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty and gradually remove all sanctions. This framework can be realized in the upcoming talks through a plan step-by-step to build mutual trust between the negotiating parties.

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Slum Kampong Tourism "Jakarta Hidden Tour": Designing Eco-Cultural Based Pro-Poor Tourism

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Abstract

Forecasts of high tourism development in Jakarta, Indonesia, where massive poverty cases also exist, has directed tourism as a way of alleviating poverty; this is usually termed "pro-poor tourism" which involves multi variant stakeholders and interests. Jakarta has widespread poor areas called "slum Kampongs", where government and business sectors are supported by international development agencies have tried to tackle down poverty by economy-community (eco-community) based development programs. However, distinguished from those programs, slum kampong development based pro-poor tourism is yet unsupported by bureaucracy agencies. "Jakarta Hidden Tour" (see "Jakarta Hidden Tour" in Trip Advisor): a "wild" tour activity which is promoted by community movement led by Ronny Poluan indicates a term of economy and cultural (eco-cultural) based slum kampong tourism that basically can pursue a better community development and economy condition through a unique culture and real life portrait experience. This paper analyses the dilemma of "Jakarta Hidden Tour" which is claimed as a poor exhibition while in another hand tries to offer a new design and approach of pro-poor tourism by utilizing thematic Kampong development with local culture excellences: as such "Green Slum Kampong in Ciliwung river", or "Sailor Slum Kampong in North Jakarta". Key learn from Brazil with slum kampong tourism in Santa Marta is a motivation for government to live a recognition, that like any other global/industrial policies, tourism is highly driven by political interest. By conducting a system thinking perspective base, this paper analyses how "Jakarta Hidden Tour" and government's supporting policy will ensure eco-cultural pro-poor tourism development and how stakeholders as a system's element need to uphold poverty alleviation towards sustainability.

Keywords Pro-poor tourism, *Jakarta Hidden Tour*, Thematic based Kampong

Development, Slum Kampong tourism, Sustainability.

A. Introduction

Jakarta is a melting pot for its unique and dynamic life pattern. However, the economic growth, which it was recognized to increase rapidly, has been driving

overwhelming impacts on socio-culture and environmental sectors for over last decades. In the midst of such a promising future of economic development, gaps between rich and poor are often wider; uncontrolled urbanization has directed the emergence of slum settlements where poor people have no choice but to live in less accessible areas with dirty environmental condition.

Slum area; which it was claimed as such an ironic fact, has become a major priority of urban development agenda in Jakarta. Many policies to relocate slum settlement have been approaching to be succeed includes pro-poor apartment project, "Kampung Deret" or cluster based Kampong are parts of revitalization policies done by governor of Jakarta. In another side, the spirit of *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika* (unity in diversity) has led local government, donor agencies, business player and civil society to jointly work and balance the synergy between economy, socio-culture, and environment as main parts of sustainable development and poverty eradication goals.

This practice of Good Governance has also directed local community movement in which, poverty eradication does not merely rely on government's responsibility but also local community's. The trend of community empowerment based development is recently becoming a massive approach includes slum settlement development. In this case, in order to support the structurally weak categories (class, gender, race) (Ife and Tesoriero, 2006: p.149), local community put active roles in managing slum areas and assisting help for poor people by developing pro-poor tourism or slum tourism namely *Jakarta Hidden Tour*.

Jakarta Hidden Tour, a "wild" tour activity which is promoted by community movement led by Ronny Poluan indicates a term of economy and cultural (eco-cultural) based slum Kampong tourism that basically can pursue a better community development and economy condition through a unique culture and real life portrait experience. This type of slum tourism in an extent of pro-poor tourism which offers tourism benefits for the goodness of the poor. From São Paulo, Brazil to Mumbai, India, and Jakarta, Indonesia, urban slumming tour has

become a global reality, a tool for certain people to unite tourists as well as for some non-profit aid and community groups to earn donors and give feedbacks to the poor. Meanwhile, a lively debate comes from many perspectives arguing about the ethics of what promoters call "slum tourism: the hidden reality" as a way of dehumanization and poor exploitation.

In the other side, *Jakarta Hidden Tour*, even though this debatable tourism earned many protests, it did put harmless impacts for the poor. There, in some slum areas of tour destinations, financial assistance, public facility development, and shared knowledge are given by tourist communities. Despite its less support, the authenticity of *Jakarta Hidden Tour* successfully attracts tourists to see and feel the real life experiences of being poor and let them be care of other people's life. Some benefits may be built informally by those communities on how they actually assist the poor financially and physically through some aids to build schools, public toilets, and also to serve education.

Local government may take some success clues from São Paulo, Brazil, where local government had turned slum city to be a famous tourism site with local culture attraction. This case tells that eco-culture is meant to be well developed by local government of Jakarta through the concept of thematic Kampong project development. This project is used to revitalize slum areas and improvise *Jakarta Hidden Tour* to be a top tour of Jakarta. Slum tourism is also a way of community movement to criticize local governments for their corrupt behavior and ignorance, meanwhile, at the same time, tries to grab aids and concerns from international networks.

The global debate over slum tourisms may be not just an intellectual conversation to the donor agencies and academia, but, some questions and issues are about to arise as public discourses. This research means to analyze *Jakarta Hidden Tour* as a promising tool of tourism development uses perspective of community empowerment, public-private partnership and eco-culture based thematic Kampong development to enhance tourism potential in Jakarta.

B. Problem Statements

Jakarta Hidden Tour is not yet clear to get its social acceptance; as its debatable perspective, academic and practitioners assume that *Jakarta Hidden Tour* is fragile. It needs a strong political commitment towards sustainable development and empowerment. Analyses of questions and debates are attempted to solve this situation include consideration of appropriate system/policy scenario in the framework of eco-culture based pro-poor tourism development.

C. Pro-poor Tourism and Community Empowerment

1. Understanding Pro-poor Tourism (PPT)

Pro-poor tourism is meant to be one of tools of alleviating poverty since the end of the 1990s, it's due to largely, discourses about tourism studies has successfully refocused attention in some considerations on the need to confirm tourism as a means of poverty eradication, especially in developing countries.

Pro-poor tourism strategies are concerned specifically with impacts on poor people, though the non-poor may also benefit. Strategies focus less on expanding the overall size of tourism, and more on unlocking opportunities for specific groups within it (on tilting the cake, not expanding it). However, these strategies have to be integrated within general tourism development for two reasons: mainstream activities (such as tourism planning) need to be influenced by pro-poor perspectives; and pro-poor tourism cannot succeed without successful development of the whole tourism destination (DFID in Harrison, 2008: 854).

Characteristics of pro-poor tourism are complex; those are briefly explained in the table below:

Table 1. Characteristics of Pro-poor Tourism

Pro-poor Tourism DOES NOT	Pro-poor Tourism DOES
anti-capitalist	focus on incorporating the poor into capitalist markets by increasing job and entrepreneurial opportunities and collective benefits. Like fair trade, it is a form of market intervention, which relies heavily on the private sector
separate from wider tourism systems	depend on existing tourism structures and markets
a theory or model	orientates research to the net benefits from tourism that can or could accrue to the poor
a niche type of tourism	apply to any kind or type of tourism, including large and small-scale tourism, even if the non- poor also benefit. Can be from regional or national policies or private sector involvement
specific method	use numerous methods, none of which are specific to PPT, including value chain analysis, to collect data and show how the poor are and can be further involved in tourism
only about the poor	recognize that the non-poor may also benefit from tourism, even disproportionately. It is less concerned with the relative than the absolute (net) benefits received by the poor
just about hunger and no/ inadequate incomes	have a broad definition of poverty, including lack of freedom, opportunity, power, skills, and education. It is about development.
only about individual benefits	focus on community benefits; water, sanitation, health, education, infrastructure, etc.
only for those occupying the "moral high ground"	require wide stakeholder cooperation and commitment, including national and local authorities, planners, the private sectors, etc, ideally combining to ensure the poor benefit from tourism

Source: (Harrison, 2008: 856)

As explained in the table above that pro-poor tourism is not anti-capitalist, some practitioners have different quotes; some believe in capitalization, others reject it. In Indonesia, various religion and cultures decide different ideology. Some anti-capitalist groups believe that pro-poor tourism is a form of imperialism and dehumanization, moreover, when the poor becomes an object of tourism. But, democracy and globalization have successfully opened a wider opportunity for international relation practices and international transaction/commodity including

tourism. In this case, pro-poor tourism is defined as a strategy to incorporate the poor into capitalist markets by enhancing job opportunity and public private partnership benefits which provide services and goods to the poor through development.

As a system, tourism has many elements, and pro-poor tourism is only one element. It needs an interaction and feedback as well as support from all stakeholders. Pro-poor tourism needs markets to be its association in holding promotion and re-innovation. Crucially, it needs whole support from local government to deliver access and legality, or, since slum areas are 20%-30% of total areas of Jakarta and more than 30% of population are poor, local government needs to open more access towards pro-poor/slum tour mechanism by formulating a certain local regulation. In Jakarta, support from local government is formed by a policy of *One Village One Product*, where each Kampong will have different local brand and commodity, unfortunately, this policy is far away to succeed because coordination of stakeholders is not yet acclaimed

in a clear regulation.

Pro-poor tourism is better understood as an approach or strategy, not a theory; model; or paradigm of development. It is indeed, a way or tool of netting the poor into benefits from tourism activities, of course, uses a bottom up approach which put community participation in the first level. However, community based tourism is not pro-poor tourism. Pro-poor tourism uses community empowerment strategy on how the poor can actively involve, but, the benefit will not be given to all level of community, thus, this type of tourism in community empowerment based pro-poor tourism.

2. Pro-poor Tourism and Sustainable Development

From its modern beginnings till this last decade, pro-poor tourism has been viewed as an agent of development and modernization in the Third World countries, largely because of its purported economic benefits for the poor. It was common for general assumption that adventurous tourists from develop countries, not surprisingly, began to seek an interest in more exotic Third World destinations; places where economic options were often limited as a result of poor communications, low commodity prices and/or lack of a modern manufacturing base; tourism became a seemingly obvious choice as a

tool for development (Brown & Hall, 2008: 840).

For some reasons, international world debates and argues the essence of pro-poor tourism and its sustainable impacts towards development. It is claimed, as many people believe, to be more problematic for particular reasons as such capitalization (result from foreign/outside control of the industry); environmental degradation; and an immorality amusement. Somehow, these debates are still running under new paradigm of sustainable tourism as a response of sustainable development goals (SDGs) that actually give more supports to the practice of pro-poor tourism as an element of development.

Pro-poor tourism, in the globalizing world acclaims many ways to achieve balance of development between the rich and the poor. The dynamic changing of pro-poor tourism considers tourism may now be being viewed in a more positive term; pro-poor tourism can be accepted to contribute in attaining sustainable development's goals: economic, socio-culture, environment. It is stated that pro-poor tourism delivers income not only from tourists but also international aid assistance. It may be no longer become a commodity of private sector to raise capital, or, a concern of community movement, but it may become a development agenda of governmental institution.

3. Slum Tourism: Its Development and Debate

Slum tours have existed in some form for a long time. Nineteenth-century New Yorkers toured the Bowery to satisfy their curiosity, and perhaps to stimulate their charitable instincts. Today, however, the Internet has helped expand and popularize the concept as never before, so that travelers to almost any major city can find or arrange a tour of the urban underbelly. A 2009 article in *National Geographic Traveler* called this brand of reality tourism "the latest frontier in travel," and credited its growth to tourists' eschewing "indulgent vacations in favor of more meaningful travel experiences." (Dufresne, 2010: 10).

Ronny Poluan, a founder and creator of *Jakarta Hidden Tour*, has chosen to portray slum Kampongs in Jakarta as an opportunity to make changes by

conducting slum tourism. Mumbai, Manila, Rio, and Jakarta have similar realities, however in different ways. Critics were coming about the practice of globalizing the abject poverty of the slums and making them look physically exotic under a Western gaze. As is to be expected, discourses of slum tourism mean more to appeal for global readership, which is understood by Danny Boyle's *Slumdog Millionaire* as a message to worldwide societies and concerns that have become commodities in a global market through global media (Hanrahan, 2015:101).

In worldwide dimension, media gives tremendous impacts on the tourism growth, international actor, as its role in Sound Governance's dimension, it has big role to affect development includes tourism development (Farazmand, 2004). In particular, there are some major films about slum tourism; for Kibera, it was *The Constant Gardener* (2005), for Rio, *City of God* (2002), and for Mumbai, *Slumdog Millionaire* (2008), and a novel titled *The Solemn Lantern Maker*

(2008) for Philippines (Dufresne, 2010:10, Hanrahan, 2015:103). These movies and novel have helped to spread the reality about the slums, it might tell that in a positive way, the media has led tourist and travelers to share charitable impulses and help slum dwellers.

In Jakarta, a tour to experience The Hidden Jakarta (*Jakarta Hidden Tour*) costs US$25, this is the average price that provides tours to some Kampongs in several hours and includes interaction with residents. There is no private tours offered, one package is all included in one group of tourists. The interview notes informed by Ronny Poluan indicates that one group of tourists in *Jakarta Hidden Tour* consists of 4 people, but it can be 30 tourists per day, so that, I have to recruit additional tour guides. Residents in slum Kampong are very interested, it is due to half of tour cost (50%) goes to them, while at the same time, tourists often give helps directly to the slum dwellers, where most people live on less than $3 a day.

With each visit to The Hidden Jakarta, the residents seemed happy and thankful. It is a difficult matter for most tourists that usually come from America,

Australia, and European Countries. The place, as it is seen, full of dirt and improperly built, but it does more a matter of a social and cultural interaction, the way how tourists could begin to see The Hidden Jakarta as a community, not just a slum. The interaction is a good socio-cultural exchange that brings economic support, however, it does need time and process. *Jakarta Hidden Tour*, as it named, is an activity which explores a hidden poverty story of modern city; a capital of country, it matters because in a poverty zone, a real tourism will get hard to develop, or may be, will lead a false interpretation. Thus, *Jakarta Hidden Tour* cannot only sell its slum; it must lead the tourism development to be a more socio-culture tourism with economic advance given to the people.

4. *Jakarta Hidden Tour*: Slum Needs Community Empowerment Project

Jakarta's tourism potentials are immense-with a large variety ranging from rich cultural diversity, modern-historical buildings, heritage and architectural monuments, and also festivals, to a wild and exotic tourism activity in *Jakarta Hidden Tour*. Indeed, Jakarta is not a specific tourism place for its role as a capital of Indonesia; however, its tourism attraction makes it different from many tourism sites in Indonesia. The uniqueness is its authenticity as a metropolitan city where problems are found everywhere. *Jakarta Hidden Tour* offers a reality of life in the Third World country as well as how the culture, environment, and community welfare show the dignity of a country.

Community empowerment based tourism development run by national and local government is part of national development/policy agendas named NAWACITA; nine ideas/priorities of Indonesian government directed by President of Indonesia Joko Widodo. The spirit of NAWACITA has enlivened local values and commodities to be the foundation of tourism development, particularly in Jakarta. However, it has never been as beautiful as preached in the theory; the development of local based tourism needs more supports and improvements. Uniformity of artificial structures in tourism areas does not blend with the natural diversity of undisturbed areas. Inter-

governmental linkages and complexity with several missed coordination and communication make cooperation and community participation difficult.

Research on *Jakarta Hidden Tour* especially on policy and development planning project gives high priority on the system or linkages of community empowerment as an approach of development and NAWACITA based tourism development that uses local values as tourism products. The term of community empowerment is crucial for its important role in educating and empowering people. It is because *Jakarta Hidden Tour* has never been and will never be a common tourism activity; it tells more about morality and reality than amusement.

Debates over *Jakarta Hidden Tour*, particularly - as a result, it is poorly studied and understood as wild and unacceptable tourism activities that no government's effort is involved. However, tourism, as well as any other business activities, needs social and political supports both from government and civil society. Indeed, like it was said in many critical reviews about poor bureaucracy in developing countries, Jakarta has confronted with fragmented and poorly coordinated policies; the agenda of community based long term sustainable development often get crashed by political interest of certain parties in the parliament.

Governor of Jakarta had planned his tourism Kampong to be an authentic Kampong development which multiplier effects are prominent – can enhance poverty alleviation and alternative livelihoods; even though it is rarely understood by the implementing agencies. Jakarta really needs to re-develop its spatial and temporal dimensions - implications for physical planning. An integrated community empowerment program - *PNPM (Mandiri) - A national Program of Community Empowerment* - is a massive effort of central and local governments to reform *Jakarta Hidden Tour* and empower community especially the structurally weak category includes the poor, low-cost labor, and women.

Most people in slum Kampongs; Kampong Luar Batang (sailor Kampong), Kampung Pulo and Kampung Melayu (Ciliwung river Kampongs), Kampung

Bandan (the Old Colonial City) work as low-cost labors and street vendors. Some priority programs for the poor in slum Kampong are *Bank Sampah* or *Waste Bank* that is run by women to help government preserving environmental sector. *Waste Bank* improves traditional solid waste management into economic based solid waste management; it empowers women to do recycle-reuse-reduce activities and to gain economic benefits from waste. Another program is *Kampong Deret* or *Line in Line Kampong* (slum houses are rebuilt more modern and cleaner line in line each other, they are built with the same design/homogeneous houses), however this program raised many critics; it was claimed to be an obviously expensive project and less effective in empowering people.

Community empowerment project in *Jakarta Hidden Tour* must involve the processes of possibility; reinforcement; protection; support; maintenance. It means that the program must sustain in a long term period. The strategies built vary; Indonesian people have suffered from tight economic competition for several decades, but core problem tends more to the political leader commitment. Strategy of community empowerment needs high political will from local government; it can be formed as;

- **Micro Strategy**

Guidance, counseling, stress management, and crisis intervention. This strategy can be effective to small group of the poor with small impacts to the whole level of community.

- **Mezzo Strategy**

Education, training, and dynamic group consultation can offer effective solutions to community group that affects greater scope of community member. Education and training are major to raise community encouragement to be more independent.

- **Macro Strategy**

Policy development, social planning, campaign, social action, lobbying, community organization, and conflict management are main strategies to develop a better *Jakarta Hidden Tour*. Central government needs to uphold national policy development to make an integrated slum Kampong development and tourism enhancement.

The resume of community empowerment model can be seen below:

Table 2. Community Empowerment Model

Purpose: *To increase the* *authority or ability*	*Structurally Weak Category*	*CLASS* *The poor, unemployment, and low cost labor.* *GENDER Female RACE/ETNIC* *Local community and minority group.*
	Special Weak Category	*Old people, children and teenager, physic and mental defect, gay and lesbian, isolated people (geographically or socially)*
	Personally Weak Category	*Troubled people in individual, family, grief, and Loss*

Authority type has ability upon:	Personal choice and life opportunity; basic assessment; idea; institution; sources; activity; economy; reproduction
Process	Possibility; reinforcement; protection; support; maintenance
Strategy	Micro
Guidance, counseling, stress management, crisis intervention
Mezzo
Education, training, group dynamic
Macro
Policy development, social planning, campaign, social action, lobbying, community organization, and conflict management
Principles	Building aids relation; building the communication; Involved in solving problem; Reflecting social work profession attitude and value

Source: Ife and Tesoriero (2006: 149)

5.   Thematic Kampong Scenario System in *Jakarta Hidden Tour*: Eco- Cultural based Pro-Poor Tourism

In 2014, thematic Kampong development was highly concerned by central

and local government to be a new project to maintain culture, enhance economic sector, and create a unique tourism destination. In slum tourism context, thematic Kampong is designed to support *Jakarta Hidden Tour* that requires the engaged sustainable development sectors to control its negative impacts, because if it is not, it will cause, on a cumulative basis, a decline of the resource base with significant effects on the natural, cultural, social interaction, heritage attractions,

and the unpopularity of tourism trends.

Thematic Kampong is a Kampong development which government and community partnership can uphold sustainable development within tourism activities that maintains the originality of social interaction, authentic cultural diversity, and local economic resources. Key lessons from Brazilian people have led global discourses into a deep understanding of slum tourism with traditional and heritage art excellences.

Brazil has developed its slum tourism with "Rio Top Tour: Rio de Janeiro in a Different Perspective," through which the government partners with slum residents to promote tours celebrating local arts and culture. It is shrewd politics in advance of hosting the 2016 Summer Olympics, but it also shows how slum tours could evolve into something genuinely beneficial to residents. If slum residents from Rio can start marketing something other than their poverty to tourists, poverty is more likely to disappear. (Dufresne, 2010:11).

Jakarta Hidden Tour is never meant to be dismissed; this authenticity must be supported by the project of thematic Kampong development. A *creative Kampong* can be managed to serve tourism attraction in *Visit Jakarta*'s leading programs. Foreign tourists can have experiences of a wide range of cultural and traditional art, especially Betawi and Javanese cultures. Most of them also come as a backpacker who can plunge directly knowing the social and cultural life of traditional Betawi and Javanese people who are really original and diverse.

Thematic Kampong development is also a strategy to make tourists get easier in enjoying the life of the indigenous people of Betawi ethnics. Further, local economic development will help people to promote and provide one packaged tourism accommodation includes local culinary, souvenirs, traditional art show, and homestay in the homes of residents who meet the requirements of the specific standards. This thematic Kampong will give more references toward global readership on the discourses of pro-poor tourism development, which is, pro-poor or slum tourism not a matter of poverty exhibition, slum tourism or *Jakarta Hidden Tour* only need more role of local government, thus, in the future, this slum tourism will not only merely be judged by its slum but more about its cultural life that is economically beneficial for its people.

Figure 1. *Batik* Graffiti in Slum Kampong: Local Culture Arts

Figure 2. Graffiti in Slum Kampong: "Green and Clean in Frame"

A creative art such as graffiti is often missed claimed as vandalism, and somehow, if it is managed well by government it will be a tourism attraction. In Yogyakarta, another province in Indonesia, a thematic Kampong which offers local graffiti has become a unique interest for foreign tourists; somewhere in Brazil, graffiti and traditional dance are perfect attractions fill in the colorful slum city; meanwhile, in Jakarta, slum Kampong can be reincarnated into something more artistic than slum by designing local graffiti art.

Community participation is part of successful keys in managing thematic Kampong development. The persistence of Good Governance has gained public private partnership that puts citizen control and independence as main indicators to achieve sustainable development goals (Arnstein, 1971:70). The role of stakeholders in thematic Kampong development varies; those are explained in table below:

Table 3. Role of Stakeholders in Thematic Kampong Development

Government	Donor	Jakarta Hidden Tour Activists	Community
Funding	Funding	Consultation	Local Economic Developer
Regulation	Facility Provider	Assistance	Tourist Guide
Facility Provider	Conflict Mediator	Tourist Guide	Environmental Cadre
Conflict Mediator	Assessment	Assessment	Heritages Arts Provider
	Facilitator	Facilitator	
		Executor	
		Marketing and Networking	

Slum tourism is a dynamic, complex, and systemic problem; force field analysis defines driving and restraining factors in developing scenario design of thematic Kampong development.

Table 4. Driving and Restraining Forces: Force Field Analysis

Driving Forces	Score	Restraining Forces	Score
Cultural and	5 (most significant	Political Will	3 (average)
Local Economic	3 (average)	Bureaucracy	4 (significant
Indigenous Local	4 (significant	Property Management	2 (sufficient)

Poverty	5 (most significant

In systems thinking perspective, the whole process or transformational process is seen as a system with input-process-output diagram (Senge, 1994). The systemic input-output diagram explains the relationship among elements in system as figured below:
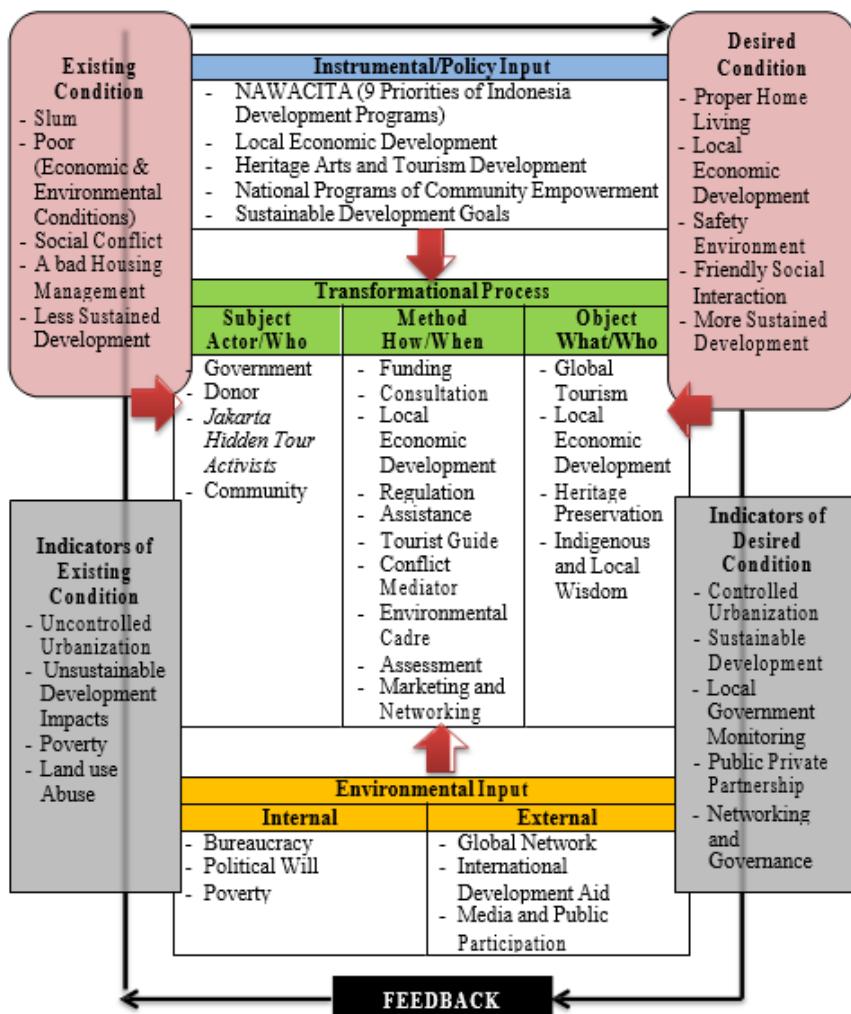
Figure 3. Input Output Diagram: Transformational System

Poverty, economic growth, sustainable development, and thematic Kampong development give significant impacts on *Jakarta Hidden Tour* as a system. The networks among those elements can be seen in Causal Loop Diagram (see below), which gives a clear understanding of each element's sub-systems and relation (Coyle, 1996). Solutions can be taken by maintaining the performance sustainable development; it may put the biggest role and impact on the

sustainability of the economic sector, poverty eradication, socio-culture interaction, environmental preservation, and surely slum tourism.
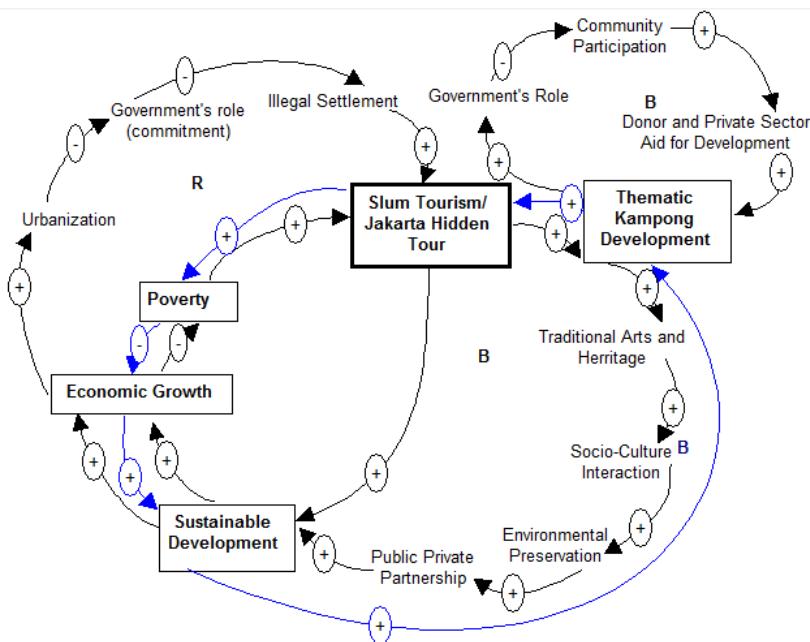
Figure 4. Systems Thinking Analysis: Causal Loop Diagram

D. Conclusion

More than 14 decades, since 2000, development is meant to seek its ability to net the poor into a better quality of life. In Indonesia, especially Jakarta, where every day biggest problem happens, a massive urban empowerment program has been implementing for several years. Economic development has tried to never merely count on global market and capital; it found more cultural spirits in the development process which also has a close relation to its local community. Tourism development is searching for means that will enable the poor to take economic benefits for their basic needs through pro-poor tourism.

As it is debated and argued in a global world, slum tourism still becomes a controversy for its acceptance as a continued development of pro-poor tourism. From Brazil, Mumbai, Philippines, Africa to Jakarta, slum tourisms have its dilemma, somehow, perspectives cannot be reasons to tackle down development process. *Jakarta Hidden Tour* must not be illegalized; political commitment on thematic Kampong development may become more effective to support *Jakarta Hidden Tour*. In this paper, the concluding remark states that slum needs to be fixed not erased, because slum and the poor are not problems, the real problem is development. A community empowerment program must base on local economic sector and never leave socio-culture connection; no matter how global dimension will always grow.

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Synonymy Relationships between the Subjunctive and the New Infinitive in the Syntactic Aspect

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Abstract

The object of this study is the relationship between the subjunctive mood and infinitive in the Albanian language. Subjunctive is one of the inherited moods in Albanian. Apart from the indicative, subjunctive is also widely used, because it expresses a variety of modal meanings. The frequency of subjunctive mood usage, mainly in the south dialect, is related to its use as a synonym to the infinitive. The subjunctive mood coincides with the non-finite forms, especially the infinitive. This coincidence is evident on the syntactic aspect and its functional point of view, as well. The synonymy of infinitive to the subjunctive is observed in the present standard Albanian language. In most of the infinitive uses, we can easily replace them with the subjunctive, without causing any changes in the modality or relationship with other syntactic units. This substitution is not always possible. This occurs in the category of subordinate or main clauses and simple sentences in the function of the simple predicate. Nevertheless, nowadays, we notice synonymy relationships between the subjunctive and infinitive, especially with the grammatical constructions that denote meanings of purpose. In the relative clauses, this synonymy is much more limited. Substitution of the infinitive with the subjunctive in such constructions can bring slight changes of meaning. Anyway, we should emphasize that despite the value of the infinitive, the subjunctive mood is widely used in the national literary language.

Keywords: synonymy relationship, subjunctive, infinitive,syntactic aspect, albanian language

Introduction

Subjunctive is one of the inherited moods in Albanian language. Apart from the indicative, subjunctive is widely used, because it expresses a variety of modal meanings. This grammatical mood is contrasted with other moods in the aspect of construction (with the use of the preceding *particle të*), (Sh., Demiraj, 1977:103), as well as its special modal meaning (its core meaning is that of *possibility*). The frequency of this mood (particularly in the south dialect), is connected with its use as a synonym of the infinitive.

Centuries before the publication of the first Albanian book, known today, the Gheg dialect (northern dialect) has created a nonfinite form of the type *me ba* (*to do*) (Sh., Demiraj, 1973:422), which has the value of the infinitive. During a later period, in all Albanian dialects, there is distinguished a nonfinite form of the type *për të bërë / për të ba* (*to do*) with the value of infinitive (*paskajore*) and limited syntactic functions.

 In order to present the relationship between these categories, thus subjunctive mood and infinitive, in some synonymy constructions, as well as the tendencies of language development, we are going to confine our attention to the approaches various linguists have provided at different periods.

 In the grammars of Albanian language before 50-ies, these relationships have been regarded as a very close synonymy. According to Cipo (K.,Cipo, 1949:*115)*: "*Coniunctivi is sometimes characterized by other functions that allow its independent use. These functions include: a. To replace the infinitive that the Tosk dialect lacks. E.g. Po shkoj të marr ushqimin = me marrë ushqimin (I'going to take the food = to take the food). b. Fill in the category of person the imperative lacks…*" Sheperi (I.,D.,Sheperi, 2001:90), has thoroughly treated the syntactic problems of this period. He states: "*Instead of the infinitive Tosk dialect uses: a. subjunctive mood e.g. me shkrue = të shkruaj, të shkruash (to write) etc. b. neutral type of participle adjective with the preposition pwr*, e.g., "*me shkrue = për të shkruar" (to write).*

In later years, Demiraj (Sh., Demiraj, 1973: 425) writes: "*In Greek and Bulgarian language, the substitution of the infinitive by subjunctive remains a general linguistic fact, whereas in Albanian language during the latest centuries, it is observed an*

opposite tendency. This is related to the tendency to create non-finite forms that appear as synonyms for the subjunctive and have been much more used compared to subjunctive".

For the linguist J. Mita (J., Mita, 2006:172), "*Subjunctive does not have a time reference, but it is much more similar with the infinitive*". Çeliku, (M. Çeliku, 2000: 55) has an important contribution to non-finite forms, especially for the relationships of infinitive with subjunctive. He emphasizes that some uses of infinitive of the type *për të bërë* (*to do*) under the circumstances of literary Albanian language existence are controversial from the normative aspect. Statistics show that, in the standard Albanian language, the subjunctive is used in most cases in the function of the subject.

The subjunctive in such cases is much more used compared to the infinitive, but it can hardly be regarded as a normative construction and able to *compete* with the subjunctive. Also, in the journalistic genre, where cases of the infinitive functioning as subject are present, the subjunctive predominates after constructions as *jam + emër (to be + noun), jam + mbiemër (to be + adjective),* after verbs *dua (want), dëshiroj (desire), mendoj (think), them (say)* etc.

The coincidence of the subjunctive mood with the non-finite forms, especially with the infinitive and the type *me ba (to do)* and *për të bërë (to do),* is proved in the syntactic aspect from the functional point of view.

The synonymy of the subjunctive with the infinitive should be taken into consideration only within the Albanian language system, but not on the comparative aspect. We highlight this idea, because in those subordinate clauses in which the subjunctive functions as the infinitive of the northern dialect or as an infinitive of literary language, it will not be possible to distinguish the main modality of this mood. In such uses, it would not be possible to contrast this finite form with the indicative form based on the modality truthfulness – falsehood. E.g. *Po shkoj në bibliotekë (që) të lexoj (I'm going to the library to read.)*; and *Tjetër herë s'dua të bisedoj (Next time I don't want to talk.)*. This synonymy is impossible in those languages where the infinitive is not used independently.

It is known that the substitution of the subjunctive is a Balkan phenomenon. As far as this phenomenon is concerned, linguists have had different approaches that are not the object of this study.

In the Albanian standard language the synonymy of infinitive with the subjunctive can clearly be distinguished in both the old form of *me* and the new form of the infinitive *për të*. In this study we will give special attention to the relationship of the subjunctive and the new type of infinitive *për të bërë (to do)*. Sh. Demiraj, highlights: "*At later periods in all dialects of Albanian language, a new non-finite form of the type për të bërë* (to do) *has been created, similar to an infinitive with limited syntactic functions. The non-finite form of the type me ba (to do) is synonymous with the subjunctive mood either followed or not with subordinate conjunctions in most of its functions. Also, the non-finite form of the type për të bërë (to do) is synonymous with the subjunctive mood is some of its uses*", (Sh., Demiraj, 1973: 423).

This substitution is a complete one. We can speak in terms of an absolute synonymy in the use of both forms interchangeably. In most uses, the infinitive can be substituted with the subjunctive without any change in its modality and connection with other syntactic units. These substitutions can be made also in subordinate clauses. The subjunctive mood and infinitive can be mainly used in some sentence constructions that modify or explain the main clause as well as in other constructions with adverbial nuances.

Even in these types of sentences, where the nuances of coincidences are evident, there are cases of incongruity, due to the fact that the infinitive is an abstract verb form (S. Mansaku, 1982: 140). This assigns a general action without grammatical elements (that indicate the grammatical categories) and it expresses its grammatical meanings through the context where the infinitive is placed. E.g.: *Të ardhurit e vendosur në prona të tjetërkujt, do të dilnin të protestonin kundër një vendimi të qeverisë për t'i shkulur prej andej, qoftë edhe duke u shembur shtëpitë, po të mosbindeshin me të mire…Prandaj tani më vjen për të qarë* (F. Kongoli, 2005: 118). (The ones settled in other people's land, would go out to protest against the decision of the government to send them away, even to pull down the houses, in cases of disobedience).

The subjunctive mood cannot always be replaced by the infinitive as well as the infinitive cannot always be used instead of the subjunctive. The subjunctive displays a wide and irreplaceable usage is some categories of subordinate clauses, in main clauses or in independent sentences functioning as a simple predicate. We think that this comes as a result of a totality of grammatical, semantic and structural features as well as the modality of this mood. E.g.: *Ikë e bjerë, atë të bëç që të viç në vehte dhe mos rri akoma në këmbë, pa punët i bëj unë. Ta k'anda në shtëpi, të ka duk dhe puna, ke kohë të uleç në shesh, të hedhësh nja di gjëlpëra si ka dhënë zoti*. (M., Kokalari, 1939: 35). (Go and have a sleep, this should you

do to pull yourself together, don't stand here, I will do the house works. It is pleasing to be home, you work considerably, have time to relax, to mend clothes as you are blessed to this).

1. The subjunctive mood is a conjugated verb form (Akademia e Shkencave, 2002: 293), which has formal means in order to express this grammatical category. E.g..: *Ç'prisnit të dëgjonit nga shpirtrat.* (What did you expect to hear from the souls); *Kam nevojë të shkoj në…* (I need to go to …); *Të ngriheshin e të ikinin.* (To get up and go).

2. The subjunctive mood expresses also the modality of falsity (F., Agalliu, 1988: 18), thus the attitude of the speaker towards an action existing in his mind, but obviously appears not to be performed, have been performed or to be performed in reality. The infinitive marks an action, but not tending to react about the truth of its realization. It simply denotes the action. E.g.: *Ndofta kanë ardhur të qahen* (Perhaps they have come to complain); *Ishte më i përshatshëm për të të gëricur, ashtu siç qe më i përshtatshëm për të dhënë krenarinë e saj si vajzë udhëheqësi.* (I., Kadare, 2003). (She was the right person to annoy, as well as the best to share her pride as the daughter of a leader).

3. The subjunctive mood has the category of tense. It is a mood that has the present, past, present perfect and past perfect tense.

4. The subjunctive mood has the category of person and number. It has three persons and two numbers. The infinitive, not only in Albanian language, but almost in all languages that have this form, is characterized as *impersonal* verb form (S. Mansaku, 1982: 149).

5. The subjunctive has the grammatical category of diathesis. Verb forms of the passive conjugation of this mood are constructed by some linguistic means. This grammatical category is characteristic even for the infinitive, which is built by the particle *u* or through the use of the auxiliary verb *jam*. Diathesis is the single grammatical category of the infinitive easily distinguishable, which is expressed formally the same as other person verb forms. Not only in Albanian language, but the most part of languages that have the infinitive, distinguish an active and a passive infinitive (S. Mansaku, 1982: 144).

E.g. *…Se ishte vonë dhe ishte e pamundur për t'u kthyer, për të mos na gëlltitur terri, secili kishte filluar të jepte copa të vetvetes. Kjo s'është për t'u gëzuar, por për të vënë kujën.* (I., Kadare, 2003: 51, 54). (Because it was too late to return, not be swallowed up by the dusk, everybody had begun to give from themselves. This is not to be delighted, but to weep).

6. The subjunctive mood can be used even in one-member sentences with undefined or generalized person, giving imaginative states or actions (Akademia e Shkencave, 2002: 382-383). E.g: *Si mund ta kuptoje se ç'donte të thoshte? Më mirë të dish se sa të kesh.* (How could you understand what she wanted to say? Better known than have it).

7. During the historical evolution the subjunctive mood has received additional meanings despite its fundamental modal one. This is noticed in the present tense of the subjunctive, a tense which can also express the modality of desirability in the form of a wish or curse, in the form of an order or request (Sh., Demiraj, 1977: 105). E.g.: *Të marrtë zoti mendtë! Më ke ngrënë jetën, të hëngërt mortja!*

Due to this status of the subjunctive mood, even in some subordinate clauses can be used the subjunctive and not the infinitive. Most of the subordinate clauses where the subjunctive is used are: some time clauses expressing simultaneous activities or after time activities, some conditional clauses, clauses of result, manner, and concession or in object clauses type. Indefinite pronouns, different adverbs of indefinite meaning, conjunction phrases relative pronoun *që* (that) (T., Kelmendi, 2006: 13), etc., serve as linking means for the expression for the abovementioned syntactic relationships. E.g.: *Kur të takohemi do të flasim përsëri.* (When we meet, we'll talk again). *Sapo çupa u mundua të ikte, beu e arriti.* (As soon as the girl attemped to leave, the pardon reached her). *Sado guxim të kini, nuk e vërtetoni dot atë që thashë unë.* (Despite the bravery you have, you cannot provide proof for what I said). *Nuk do t'i ndodhte ndoshta kjo, sikur ajo të mos ishte aktore, dhe jo vetëm kaq, por aktorja që lozte "pulëbardhën".* (This perhaps would not have happened to her, if she had not been an actress, and what's more, the actress who played the innocent part).

This attitude is fully reinforced in the book Dialektologjia e gjuhës shqipe *(1974: 393).* In the dialect of Hot and other northern dialects, it can be noticed the frequent use of the infinitive of the type *me punue,* used to express those relationships denoted by the subjunctive mood in the literary language. Anyhow, there are some conjunctions, conjunction phrases or verb forms which appear as set elements, originate from subjunctive forms. Such forms include: *kur* (when), *pasi* (after), *deri ç'* (till), *n'dasht* (if it wishes), *kur t'vish* (when you come), *kur t'niset* (when it goes), *pasi t'marrsh* (after you take), *pasi t'hash ata merr tjetrën* (after you eat that take the other), *deri çi t'des s'e harroj at gas* (till I'm dead I want forget that amusement), *n'dashtmo:n'dasht t'shkoj elle aj me ta"*(if he wishes, let him go with them). Different linguists have noticed

that the subjunctive mood has a higher frequency in the southern dialect than in the northern one. This can be explained by the lack of infinitive in the Tosk dialect.

In all the cases where the subjunctive is used instead of the true infinitive, the modality of this mood equals zero. This phenomenon is clear in the use of the subjunctive following the semi-auxiliary verbs *mund* (can) and *duhet* (have to) or verbs and syntagm that state the will of the speaker. Some examples of the verbs are: *dua* (want)*, uroj* (wish), *lejoj* (allow), *preferoj* (prefer), *ndaloj* (prevent*), kundërshtoj* (contradict), *dyshoj* (doubt), *pres* (expect), *dëshiroj* (desire), *porosit* (order) etc.

Even nowadays in many constructions there are distinguished synonymy relationships between the subjunctive and the infinitive form *për të* (to) + *participle*. Both forms are widely used in cases of purpose constructions. Eg.: *Pas rënies së trishtë, Qerosi bëri çmos për të gjetur udhën (që të gjente udhën) dhe mënyrat që të ngjitej (për t'u ngjitur) prapë në botën e sipërme. Doja të jepja përshtypjen, se lëvizja për të gjetur (të gjeja) një vend të përshtatshëm për të qëndruar (të qëndroja), ashtu siç bënin të porsambërriturit.* (After the gloomy fall, the baldheaded tried hard to find the way (to find the way) and means to climb to the upper world again. I wanted to give the impression that I moved to find (to find) an appropriate place to stay (to stay), as the ones who had just arrived did).

In the relative constructions the synonymy relationships are rather limited and their substitution can bring changes of meaning. In our opinion this comes from the origin of the formants *me* and *për* of the infinitive. These formants have once been prepositions (S., Mansaku, 1982:139) and have played certain syntactic functions. Today, they have lost every marker as a preposition and have been transformed in infinitive indicators, the same as has occurred with other formants of Albanian language. In these cases of use, the infinitive appears as defining the noun. Generally, the noun that is qualified by the infinitive is a noun with the meaning of desire, possibility, impossibility, will etc.: *Përpjekja për të futur kompjuterin (të fuste kompjuterin) mund të quhej e dështuar.* (The attempt to make use of the computer could be called a failure). *Mua më mungonte vullneti për të vepruar (të veproja), por jo dëshira.* (I missed the will to act, but not the desire.) *Do të thoshje se, po t'i jepej mundësia për të bërë sqarimin (të bënte sqarimin), ishte gati të merrte në telefon instancat përkatëse.* (You wanted to say that once he had the possibility to give the explanation, he was ready to call the relevant institutions). We think that in these cases the use of infinitive is very common.

The infinitive is widely used even in sentences where the agent is not expressed. The verb form in these sentences has clearly defining functions of the noun and it reinforces the action. In these cases the substitution with the subjunctive is possible and can generate any change of meaning. Eg.: *Duhej të ishe aty, mu në sytë e të gjithëve, që të zgjoheshe një grimë nga dremitja për ta dalluar (që ta dalloje). (You should have been there, to wake up and recognize). (I.,Kadare, 2003: 76), …Pra, spektakël klasik për t'i hedhur (që t'i hidhte) hi syve të turmës.* (Hence, a classic spectacle to deceive the crowd). (I., Kadare, 2003: 82). The use of the infinitive instead of the subjunctive in subordinate predicate clause after the verbs *mbetem* (remain) and *lë* (let) has a high frequency and is of a special significance. E.g.: *Në një farë kohe më qe dukur se ajo kishte mbetur , për të buçitur prapë më fort* (I., Kadare, 2003) (For a while it appeared as if she had remained to scream louder). *Ai e kishte lënë të lirë për të gjetur rrugën e daljes* (I.,Kadare, 1996). (He had set her free to find the exit). In the literary works the subjunctive is mostly preferred by the authors.

For centuries, the Albanian language has created the non-finite form of the type për *të bërë*, which has gradually come into use in some typical functions of the infinitive. Since the pre-literary period, the Albanian language has always developed the type *me të ardhur, një të ardhur*, that belong to a relatively later period. They are also synonymous with the subjunctive preceded by any subordinate conjunctions in some of their uses (Sh., Demiraj, 1973: 425). It is observed that phrases such as *me + të ardhur* and *një + të ardhur* are built by means of neutral verbal nouns, which like the respective verbs denote physical or psychic- physiological actions. Each one is used to express a fast action immediately followed an action presented by the verb of the head clause.

Also, these phrases of verbal value appear with a higher frequency in the southern dialect and narrative style.

    U nis pa lindur dielli - (para se të lindte dielli) etj.   (He left before the sun rose), (before the sunrise) etc.

    Me të nisur, ose një të nisur - (porsa të nisesh),   (as soon as she left)

Finally, we have to once more emphasize the fact that nowadays, the subjunctive mood is much more used in the standard language, in spite of the value of the infinitive and some constructions with the non-finite forms. It can be seen in all its syntactic functions, thanks to the linguistic characteristics of this mood.

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Collective Identity, Anglo-Saxon Bond and the Persistence of the Anglo-American Special Relationship

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Abstract

There have been many "end of affair" comments on the Anglo-American special relationship (AASR) in the post-Cold War era. Notwithstanding this, the AASR has managed to persist without losing its vitality up to the present. This article seeks to explain the persistence of the AASR from the perspective of collective identity. It argues that a strong Anglo-American collective identity has been an indispensable positive contributor to the persistence of the AASR after the end of the Cold War. The strong Anglo-American collective identity facilitates Anglo-American common threat perceptions, solidifies embedded trust between the UK and the USA, and prescribes norms of appropriate behaviour for these two countries.

Keywords: collective identity, the UK, the USA, special relationship, trust

Introduction

Identity is socially constructed, allowing actors to be "recognized as something particular vis-à-vis others" (Eder, 2009, p. 428). It impacts how actors view the world and define their interests. Policymakers of states are not purely rational in the realist sense. They are not robots programmed to act purely rational in world affairs in pursuit of their cold-hearted national interests. In fact, their worldview and perception of national interests are unavoidably shaped by their own identity. The identity of a policymaker is reflected by the values he or she adheres to. It turns out to be rather difficult for policymakers in any country "to step outside of themselves when judging others. And they have rarely realized how much their own values unconsciously smudged the lenses through which they viewed the world" (Stuart, 1988, p. xiii).

Collective identity establishes a demarcation between friends and foes. It creates affinity and similarity among its in-group members, and strangeness and difference between itself and out-group outsiders (Eisenstadt and Giesen, 1995, p. 74). Collective identity not only defines who we are, but also delineates the boundaries against the others (Risse-Kappen, 1996, pp. 366-367). Collective identity is important, because it is "the sense of us" that enables states to define their common interests in a particular manner (Gibbins, 2014, p. 4).

This article explores the strength of Anglo-American collective identity and what role it plays in strengthening the persistence of the AASR. In order to fully analyse the influence of collective identity on the persistence of the AASR, this article unfolds in the following sections. First, it illuminates contributors to Anglo-American collective identity. Second, it measures the strength of Anglo-American collective identity by drawing on public opinion polls and discourse analysis of speeches of the Presidents and the Prime Ministers since 1991. Third, it elucidates how Anglo-American collective identity facilitates the persistence of the AASR in the post-Cold War era. The conclusion follows in the last section.

Contributors to Anglo-American Collective Identity

Common sentiments are an indispensable contributor to Anglo-American collective identity. Anglo-American common sentiments refer mainly to common language, common historical heritage, common values, and common popular culture. English is the common language for the UK and the USA, despite that the American English and British English have some subtle differences. The UK is not the only country who shares a common language with the USA. Canada, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand, Jamaica, Guyana, Barbados, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Grenada, Dominica and Palau are also English-speaking countries (Crystal, 2003, p. 109). However, among these English-speaking countries the UK is the most important ally of the USA.

Common language facilitates mutual understanding, and enables the UK and the USA to have "more extensive and more intensive communication than would otherwise have been possible" (Reynolds, 1986, p. 6). Even though common language cannot always guarantee an easy-going relationship, it makes Anglo-American relationship "easier to make up, mend fences and carry on" (Parsons, 2002, p. 461).

Apart from facilitation of communication and mutual understanding, common language also cultivates common values. According to Reynolds (1989, p. 100), "Through that common language a common liberal inheritance was transmitted and then transformed". The UK and the USA are two liberal democracies, sharing similar political values. In fact, American democracy emanates from British traditions (Churchill, 1946).

Due to their shared historical heritage, the UK and the USA enjoy common values, such as democracy, freedom, rule of law and human rights up to the present. Both of them are active upholders of these common values. However, these Anglo-American common values should not be taken for granted. As a matter of fact, before the late 19th century, it was hard to identity their common values.

Before the late 19th century, the USA constantly identified Britain as a "significant other", associating the British with aristocracy, tyranny, monarchy and empire, which are characteristics inimical to American democracy and liberty. To the Americans at that time, the British values were alien to their values. What was prevalent in that period was "a historical hostility to the British oppression which had provoked so many American symbols of patriotic pride from the Declaration of Independence to the Star Spangled Banner" (Strout, 1963, p. 134). The anti-British nationalism was prevalent in the USA (Crapol, 1973, p. 4).

For the British during that period, they regarded the American way of lifestyle as vulgar and less civilized, and viewed slavery in the American society with disdain (Burk, 2007, p. 278). The mutually unfavourable feelings between the UK and the USA made the already tense relationship more likely to slip into conflicts, since both of them tended to think the worst of each other when they disputed.

Values are not static. Rather, they are socially constructed and can be changed by society. Due to the social changes occurred in the USA and the UK in the second half of the 19th century, the Americans and the British started to share more common values. On the one hand, the Americans ended slavery in the Civil War and hence ameliorated the negative attitudes of the British towards the Americans. On the other hand, there were more Americans showing favourable feelings to the British due to the gradual democratization of the British society since the implementation of the 1832 Reform Bill (Campbell, 1974, p. 203).

The changed attitudes between these two countries gave rise to a new sense of Anglo-Saxonism, "a discourse of racialized identity that obliged the British and American elites to think of themselves as the twin vanguards of modernity" (Vucetic, 2009, p. 24). To some extent, the emergence of Anglo-Saxonism helped pave the way for "the Great Rapprochement" (Perkins, 1968). However, British colonialism was still hated by most Americans when the British maintained their empire. As Moser (1999, p. 2) puts it, "If colonialism and wars of conquest were institutions which Americans claimed to despise, the British were unquestionably closely wedded to both". The gradual dissolution of the British Empire after the Second World War removed the last heavy stumbling block which jeopardized the further solidification of Anglo-American collective identity. After the British relinquished their empire, Anglophobia has been no longer powerful enough to drift apart Anglo-American solidarity.

The Americans and the British have a lot in common in the popular culture. Literature is transferred across the Atlantic Ocean, as evidenced by the appeal of British authors such as William Shakespeare, Charles Dickens, J. R. R. Tolkien, Jackie Collins, and J.K. Rowling in the USA, and American authors such as Harriet Beecher Stowe, Mark Twain, Ernest Hemingway and Dan Brown in the UK. Any frequent traveller will have noticed the striking overlap of bestsellers on offer at airport bookstores, whether in London or Washington or New York. Many formats for new TV programmes shown across the USA originate in the UK while American popular culture from TV, music, film and fashion permeates British cultural life imperceptibly due to the common language and shared cultural heritage (House of Commons Foreign Affairs Committee, 2010, p. Ev129). The level of shared popular culture is huge. The fact that governments and publics of the UK and the USA can understand each other with minimal explanation results in a huge level of shared culture (House of Commons Foreign Affairs Committee, 2010, p. Ev115).

Apart from common sentiments, the other contributor of Anglo-American collective identity is the repeated cooperative acts. Common sentiments do not guarantee the formation of a strong collective identity. Only by repeated cooperative acts could

common sentiments be positively constructed in contributing to a strong collective identity. There have been abundant cases of cooperative acts in Anglo-American relations in the realm of intelligence, nuclear and military affairs.

Common sentiments and repeated cooperative acts mutually reinforce each other. Common sentiments facilitate implementation of cooperative acts and repeated cooperative acts in turn strengthen the positive representation of common sentiments. Both are indispensable contributors to Anglo-American collective identity. On the one hand, without common sentiments, it is hard for states to constantly engage in cooperative acts over a long period of time. Stark circumstances like the Second World War could push Britain and the Soviet Union to put aside their sentimental differences. However, such stark circumstances are rare in international relations. In most cases, sentiments greatly matter. Sentimental commonality cannot always guarantee intimate cooperation. But sentimental differences could prevent states from engaging in long-term robust cooperation.

On the other hand, without repeated cooperative acts, the positive representation of common sentiments may fade into insignificance in the preservation of a strong collective identity. On account of repeated cooperative acts which had occurred over the better part of the 20th century, President Clinton pointed out in November 1995 that, "We (the USA and the UK) overcame the legacy of our differences. We discovered our common heritage again, and even more important, we rediscovered our shared values" (Clinton, 1995). Cooperative acts between the UK and the USA enhance their favourable feelings to each other and hence strengthen the positive representation of common sentiments.

Strength of Anglo-American Collective Identity

This section seeks to measure the strength of Anglo-American collective identity in the perception of both the public and political elites. Collective identity is nebulous and inherently difficult to measure. But its strength can be assessed by making use of public opinion polls which investigate people's opinion towards other countries and political speeches delivered by leaders of the UK and the USA.

Public Perception of Anglo-American Collective Identity

People in countries which share strong collective identity tend to have more favourable feelings toward each other. They are more likely to trust each other and consequently regard each other as their reliable ally. The more mutually favourable feeling they have, the stronger their collective identity is. This subsection utilizes public opinion polls conducted by widely respected polling organizations, such as the Chicago Council on Global Affairs, Gallup, Pew Research Centre. The purpose of drawing on polling data from more than one organization is to minimise anomaly and possible inaccuracy in the public opinion polls as much as possible. By using different public opinion polls conducted by different organizations from different time periods, dangers of distortion in the public opinion polls could be significantly decreased.

Public Opinion Polls of the Chicago Council on Global Affairs

In public opinion polls of the Chicago Council on Global Affairs, the mean score is on a scale of 0 to 100, with 100 meaning a very warm, favourable feeling, 0 meaning a very cold, unfavourable feeling, and 50 meaning not particularly warm or cold. From 1978 to 2002, the UK had been the Americans' second most favourable country following Canada. Since 2004, Canada has not been included in the sample of surveys. As a result, the UK has been the most favourable country for the Americans among the surveyed countries (see Figure 1).

The above graph shows clearly that the Americans had comparatively more favourable feelings to the UK than to France, Germany and Israel from 1990 to 2010. During this period, the mean temperature of warmth of the American people on the UK was roughly 72 °C in comparison with 59°C of Germany and 52.8°C of France. From the survey data prepared by the Chicago Council on Global Affairs, the UK has been the most trustworthy European power of the USA in the post-Cold War era. It is widely argued that Israeli-American special relationship is the strongest competitor of the Anglo-American special relationship. Between 1990 and 2010, the mean temperature of warmth of the Americans on Israel was 54.8°C, far lower than that of the UK. Countries hostile to the USA tended to get low "temperature of warmth" of the American people. For instance, the "temperature of warmth" of the American people on Iran and North Korea were 27°C respectively, the lowest among the surveyed states in 2010.

The Gallup Public Opinion Polls

Gallup has conducted annual public opinion polls on how the American people view other countries for the past decades. There are four options available for interviewees to choose regarding a particular country: very favourable, mostly

favourable, mostly unfavourable and very unfavourable. Between 2003 and 2013, the UK was viewed as one of the top two favourable countries for the American people (see Figure 2).

According to the above graph, the UK was the second most favourable countries surpassed only by Canada in the period 2003-2013. The mean percentages of the American people's favourability of these mentioned countries in the graph were as follows: Canada, 90.4%; the UK, 88.3%; Germany, 78.6%; Israel, 66.5%; France, 62%. Such results are in concordance with the surveys conducted by the Chicago Council on Global Affairs. The UK was the most favourable state among the big powers of Europe between 2003 and 2013. In addition, it seems that the American people showed more favourable feelings towards the Anglo-American special relationship than towards the Israeli-American special relationship.

The Pew Research Centre Public Opinion Polls

Since its inception in 2001, the Pew Global Attitudes Project has conducted surveys across the world on people's opinion on the USA and the American people. The interviewees choose their own options from the following four options: very favourable, somewhat favourable, somewhat unfavourable and very unfavourable. Favourable combines "very favourable" and "somewhat favourable" while unfavourable combines "very unfavourable" and "somewhat unfavourable". On average, the British showed the most favourable feelings to the USA among the three big European powers in the period 2001-2012 (see Figure 3).

According to Figure 3, the mean percentages of these three countries' favourable feelings towards the USA from 2002 to 2012 were the following: the UK, 61.2%; France, 53.8%; Germany, 46.7%. The first outstanding feature in this graph is that the Bush administration's Iraqi policy was rather unpopular in these three countries, especially in France and Germany. After President Obama took office in 2009, these three countries had become significantly more pro-USA. The French people had more favourable feelings towards the USA under the Obama administration than the British, which in some degree demonstrated the high unpopularity the Bush administration in the eyes of the French. The second outstanding feature of this graph is that the British's favourable feelings to the USA were more stable over the 2002 through 2012 timeframe than that of the French and Germans. Attitudes of the French and Germans towards the USA fluctuated dramatically between 2002 and 2012.

By analysing the aforementioned four graphs, it is evident that people in the UK and the USA hold highly favourable feelings toward each other in the post-Cold War era, indicating that a strong "we-feeling" rooted in the collective identity exists between these two societies. Such a strong "we-feeling" provides the solid bedrock on which to base the special relationship between the UK and the USA (Rasmussen and McCormick, 1993, p. 518).

More importantly, these graphs demonstrate the stability and durability of favourable feelings between these two societies over an extended period of time, which to a large extent testifies to a stable and durable Anglo-American collective identity. Compared with France and Germany, the British favourable feelings fluctuated far less. Such stable and durable affinity between societies of the UK and the USA helps to keep the special relationship strong in the long run. The stable and durable mass sentiments between these two societies also serve as a cushion to alleviate the severity of Anglo-American discords, enabling the UK and the USA to heal wounds and recover from the damage quickly.

Elite Perception of Anglo-American Collective Identity

Political elites play a much larger role than the general public in shaping the destiny of the AASR. Their perception of Anglo-American collective identity therefore deserves particular attention. As Hendershot (2008, p. 3) argues, "Sentimentality, or elite perception of cultural affinity, has been key to the durability of the special relationship".

Since Presidents and Prime Ministers play more crucial roles than other political elites in Anglo-American relations, it is more plausible to focus on how Presidents and Prime Ministers in the post-Cold War era think about the special relationship. This subsection makes use of speeches of four American Presidents and four British Prime Ministers in the post-Cold War era. Their speeches are analysed based on three criteria, including what words they use to describe the special relationship, what factors contribute to the special relationship from their viewpoints, and how they perceive the importance of the special relationship in the world (see Figure 4, Figure 5 and Figure 6).

By comparing what these four Presidents and four Prime Ministers said in their respective speeches, it is possible to recognize the tremendous similarity of their views on the special relationship. As the above tables show, there has been a bipartisan consensus on the special relationship both in the USA and in the UK since 1991. Even the hardened critics of

the AASR could not deny the fact that the Presidents and the Prime Ministers in the post-Cold War era hold extraordinarily similar outlooks on the special relationship.

It is noteworthy to point out that by focusing on the speeches of Presidents and Prime Ministers, this section tries to illuminate to what extent a similar perception of the special relationship has been shared by leaders of the UK and the USA. It does not deal with the question that how personal relations of Presidents and Prime Ministers shape the special relationship. Personal chemistry between Prime Ministers and Presidents facilitates, to some extent, Anglo-American intimate cooperation, but cannot decide the destiny of the special relationship.

The special relationship has apparently outlived personal relationships between the two countries' political leaders. Prime Ministers and Presidents come and go, but the special relationship remains in place. Its longevity turns out not to be decisively influenced by personal relationships between political leaders. The special relationship has the ability to "transcend high-level differences of opinion and conflicting leader personalities" (Dumbrell, 2012, p. 307).

Notwithstanding the short time span of any given Prime Minister's or Presidency's term, by means of textual analysis of a host of speeches by Presidents and Prime Ministers on the special relationship, an enduring and consistent feature is revealed. A positive representation of the special relationship is pervasive in the speeches of Presidents and Prime Ministers. In terms of description of the special relationship, these Presidents and Prime Ministers held a positive view of the special relationship by using words such as "enduring", "unique", "extraordinary", "essential" and "vital", demonstrating their confidence in the persistence of the special relationship. In terms of the importance of the special relationship, all Presidents and Prime Ministers in the post-Cold War era considered the special relationship as a force for good in the world. In terms of the contributors to the special relationship, all of them highlighted Anglo-American shared culture and values.

The American presidents' regular and consistent rhetoric on the AASR are not "cheap talk". Rather, it reveals the genuine perceptions of the unparalleled intimacy between the UK and the USA. That all Presidents and Prime Ministers in the post-Cold War era have placed a high priority on common values reveals their shared sense of a strong collective identity. Given that speeches delivered by these Presidents and Prime Ministers also reflect, to the large extent, the general beliefs of the overall political elites, it could be safely concluded that the political elites of the UK and the USA also share a strong Anglo-American collective identity especially in terms of shared values. Undeniably, the elite perception of the special relationship matters significantly. As Edwards and Sanders (1989, pp. 1-2) argue, "The attitudes of the elite, after all, represent a perceptual filter which conditions the way in which the behaviour of other states is interpreted: they constitute an important part of the make-up part of the key decision-makers".

In addition, the speeches delivered by two countries' leaders help consolidate Anglo-American collective identity by consistently emphasizing their collective memories about their joint sacrifice of blood and treasure in hard times (Digeser, 2009, p. 339). Such collective memories shared by two countries' political elites engender a strong sense of "we feeling" and togetherness. Prime Minister Cameron emphasized Anglo-American joint sacrifice of blood and treasure in the Second World War and the Korean War in a joint news conference with Obama on 25 May 2011. As he put it, "Barack and I know well the shared history of our countries. From the beaches of Normandy to the Imjin River, our soldiers have fought together" (Obama, 2011). Prime Minister Cameron's remarks resonated with what President Obama said in a welcoming ceremony for Cameron in the White House on 14 March 2012. When explaining the reasons why the rock-solid alliance of the USA and the UK became the constant feature of world affairs, he said that "the reason is simple. We stand together, and we work together, and we bleed together, and we build together, in good times and in bad" (Obama, 2012).

Impact of Collective Identity on the Persistence of the AASR

First, a strong collective identity contributes to US-UK common threat perceptions, thereby consolidating their highly compatible national interests. A strong collective identity cannot guarantee that the UK and the USA will act in concert for the sake of their common interests all the time. Occasionally, they disagree with each other. Their relationship reached a low point in the Bosnian War due to their disagreements over how to respond to the humanitarian disasters there. Notwithstanding this, the UK and the USA incline to see eye to eye on most international threats due to their strong collective identity. They are more often than not working together in harmony in the face of the international threats which put their interests and values in danger. Both the UK and the USA are the outward-looking countries, with global outlook and global interests in a plethora of areas. They share highly compatible security interests. When facing the out-group challengers,

they tend to unite together and put aside their disputes if there are any, as indicated in the two World Wars and the Cold War (Bell, 1972, p. 106).

After 9/11, Islamist terrorism epitomized by Al Qaeda has become the most prominent threat for both the UK and the USA. Islamist terrorism not only threatens Anglo-American interests, but also poses a challenge to Western values and Western way of life. As Gove (2006, p. viii) argues, "Islamism poses a challenge to Western values, indeed to universal human values of freedom, dignity and equality, just as potent as past totalitarianisms". Hence, both the USA and UK feel threatened by Islamist terrorism and they have worked in tandem in dealing with such a serious threat since 9/11.

The UK and USA's shared concern about the proliferation of WMD amongst rouge and despotic states, as well as terrorist non-state actors, also has its roots in their collective identity. Both worry about a nuclear Iran and a nuclear North Korea, and have made efforts to prevent them from developing nuclear weapons, albeit with limited success. They were so worried about the potential threat of Saddam's Iraq armed with the purported WMD that they rushed to launch a preventive war with the aim of regime change in Iraq, creating a big foreign policy blunder after 9/11.

By contrast, the UK and the USA do not worry about each other's nuclear weapons. Both even enjoy the second-to-none nuclear cooperation. They also do not have a parallel fear of Israel's or India's nuclear weapons. It is not because nuclear weapons of North Korea or Iran (if it succeeds) are more powerful than those of Israel or India. Rather, it is because the UK and the USA have engrained distrust of the North Korea and Iran whose political values are alien to Western values. For the UK and the USA, North Korea and Iran are "out-group" strangers which cannot be trusted while Israel and India are "in-group" friends that can be trusted. Therefore, the UK and the USA are inclined to assume the worst scenario about the despotic states' nuclear weapons.

Second, a strong collective identity solidifies embedded trust between the UK and the USA, helping to sustain the longevity of the special relationship. Basically, there are two types of trust. The first type is trust-as-predictability, which refers to the scenario that "A trusts B when A predicts that B will at least do no harm in a circumstance in which A's interests depend on B's behaviour" (Hoffman, 2002, p. 379; Booth and Wheeler, 2008, p. 229). This type of trust is borne out of rational calculation.

The second type is trust-as-bond, which refers to the scenario that the trustor is confident that the trustee has moral obligation to fulfil the trust placed in it even if it means sacrificing some of their own interests (Hoffman, 2002, p. 379; Booth and Wheeler, 2008, p. 229). This type of trust is borne out of affinity and positive emotion rather than rational calculation. The trust-as-bond not only involves predictability, but also involves moral obligation and responsibility. The embedded trust between the UK and the USA is more analogous to trust-as-bond. Therefore, the AASR exemplifies normative international friendship, which "assumes that international friendship exists for normative and moral reasons as opposed to strategic calculations (Oelsner and Koschut, 2014, p. 14).

Due to the positive relationships between political leaders of these two countries and highly favourable feelings between these two societies, there exists embedded trust between the UK and the USA. Embedded trust extends beyond the intimate relationship at the elite level. It exists at the inter-societal level (Booth and Wheeler, 2008, p. 230). The strong collective identity gives rise to embedded trust between the UK and the USA. Embedded trust is more endurable and persistent than personal trust between political leaders. It is crucial to sustain the AASR in the changing world.

Embedded trust makes it easier for the UK and the USA to engage in long-term security cooperation. The AASR is a relationship "built on a long-lasting friendship between the two nations, involving cultural affinities and shared values, not just a marriage of convenience between states which happen to find their current interests aligned on the international stage" (Hawley, 2012, p. 107). Trust minimizes uncertainty, enabling the UK and the USA to keep their long-standing close cooperation against all the odds. Because of embedded trust, the UK and the USA are willing to "tolerate mutual vulnerability despite irreducible uncertainty about the other's motivations" (Kupchan, 2010, p. 49-50).

States cannot escape from uncertainty. In the 1990s, the UK and the USA did not expect that they would unite together in the War on Terror after 9/11. Likewise, they do not know what will happen to them in decades ahead. On account of embedded trust, the UK and the USA can move rapidly to unite together against any challenges in the foreseeable future. Thus, they are highly likely to keep engaged in long-term security cooperation.

Apart from facilitating their long-term security cooperation, the presence of embedded trust also enables the UK and the USA to swiftly overcome their occasional disagreements. The AASR is not perfect. A strong collective identity cannot

prevent discords from occurring between these two countries. Like any other relationships, the AASR also experiences ebb and flow. What makes the AASR exceptional is that all Anglo-American squabbles are temporary. A strong collective identity can prevent Anglo-American disputes from escalating into unrepairable crises. There has been no entrenched enmity between the UK and the USA. Embedded trust creates strong bonds between the UK and the USA, enabling them to empathize with each other. As a result, they consider their occasional disagreements as "family spats" between brothers (Hendershot, 2008). Family spats do not last long. Since both the UK and the USA regard each other as their trustworthy partner, they do not allow the occasional unhappy event to jeopardize their long-standing partnership.

Embedded distrust engenders an "inherent bad faith model" of an adversary (Holsti, 1967, p. 26). Relationship between the USA and Russia has been influenced by the "inherent bad faith model", preventing them from building trusting relationship after the end of the Cold War. Even though there has been no overt hostility to each other militarily, mutual distrust between the USA and Russia has apparently become more serious in recent years. By contrast, embedded trust gives rise to an "inherent good faith model" of a friend. In the post-Cold War era, the UK and the USA have constantly regarded each other as close friends.

Third, a strong collective identity prescribes norms of appropriate behaviour for the UK and the USA, pushing them to act in accordance with their collective identity. Both the UK and the USA believe that the AASR should be a force for good in the world. As liberal democracies, they should abide by international norms and uphold international law when engaging in military actions.

In reality, however, the UK and the USA acted in violation of what their collective identity required them to do under certain circumstances. They sometimes have to compromise their appropriate norms in pursuit of their so-called national interests. Whenever their actions violated their collective identity, the strong domestic pressure would push them to reorient their inappropriate policies. There were some cases in which the UK and the USA acted in contravention of their collective identity after 9/11, with Anglo-American collusion on torture as the most prominent example.

There have been allegations that the UK and the USA were complicit in the torture of suspected terrorists during the War on Terror. It remains unclear to what extent the UK was involved in torture. However, some evidence shows that the UK colluded with the USA on torture in some cases. The UK government publicly admitted for the first time that it had been involved in extraordinary rendition in February 2009 (BBC News, 2009). Moreover, the British intelligence agencies also "had directly colluded in the torture of various British suspects at interrogation centres in Egypt, Bangladesh and Pakistan" (Self, 2010, p. 222).

Anglo-American collusion on torture of suspected terrorists in the name of counter-terrorism tarnished the reputation of both the UK and the USA and squarely defied their collective identity. Due to the overt defiance of international law and human rights, it weakened the soft power of these two countries as a result. Because of the UK's complicity in torture, Prime Minister Cameron admitted that "our reputation as a country that believes in human rights, justice, fairness and the rule of law risks being tarnished" (The Detainee Inquiry, 2013, p. 2). Due to strong allegations from the public, both the UK and the USA eventually took measures to correct their errors with regard to torture. President Obama signed an executive order to outlaw torture in 2009.

The ethical aspect of the AASR should not be omitted. Both the UK and the USA have asserted that their special relationship is for the good of the world, contributing to the peace and justice of the international community. However, Anglo-American collusion on torture has eroded the special relationship's moral ground. A special relationship without solid moral footing will become weakened in the world.

Conclusion

There exists a strong collective identity between the UK and the USA, which has played a unique role in helping sustain the AASR in the post-Cold War era. The strong Anglo-American collective identity facilitates the persistence of the special relationship by forging sustainable common threat perceptions, solidifying embedded trust and prescribing norms of appropriate behaviour.

The positive influence of Anglo-American collective identity, however, should not be exaggerated. A strong collective identity cannot guarantee a harmonious relationship between the UK and the USA all the time. After all, national identity

remains stronger than transnational collective identity in either the UK or the USA. Thus, national interests of the UK and the USA cannot be perfectly aligned all the time.

Even though their national interests are aligned in certain cases, the strong collective identity cannot make sure that the UK and the USA have harmonious working relationships in dealing with their common concerns. On balance, a strong collective identity is a positive contributor to the AASR. It makes the UK and the USA only experience a rather small proportion of difficult times over the past decades, and in the meantime helps to avoid crises.

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Figure 1 Percentages of the USA's Favourable Feelings towards Its Four Allies, 1990-2010
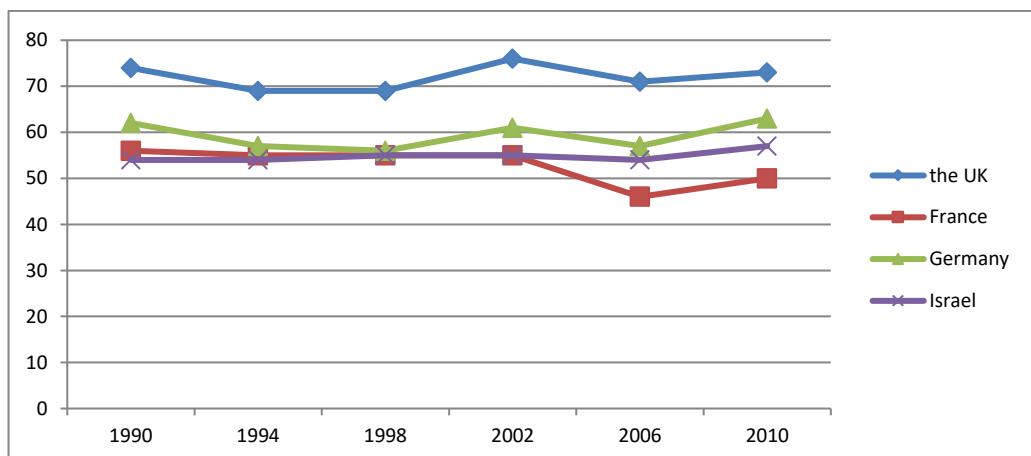
Source: Chicago Council on Global Affairs (2010). American Public Opinion and United States Foreign Policy Series. Retrieved from http://www.icpsr.umich.edu/icpsrweb/RCMD/series/00004

Figure 2 Percentages of American People's Very/Mostly Favourable Foreign Countries, 2003-2013
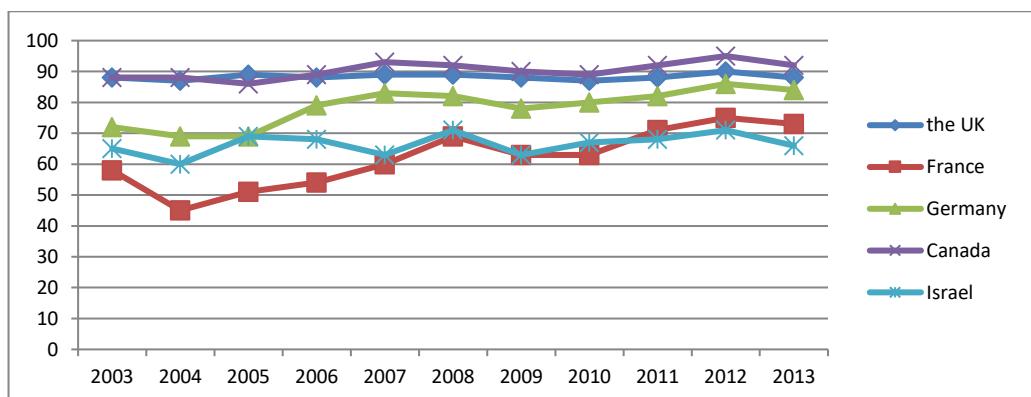
Source: Gallup Brain (2013). Gallup Poll Social Series: World Affairs, 2003-2013. Retrieved from https://institution.gallup.com/sorry/AccessDeniedInstitution.aspx?r=/Brain/QuestionSearchResults.aspx

Figure 3 Percentages of the Favourable Feelings on the USA, 2002-2012
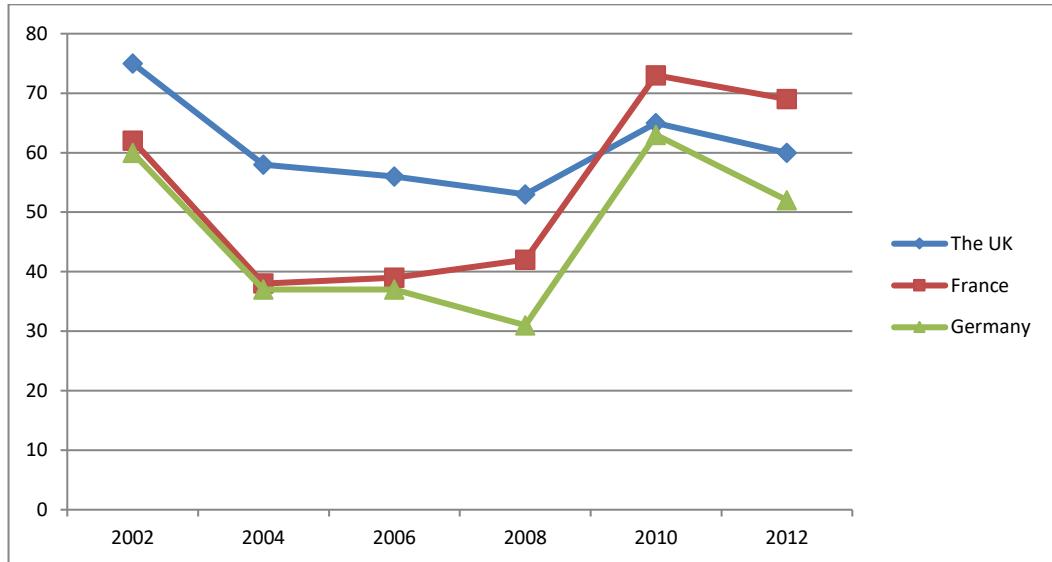
Source: Pew Research Global Attitudes Project (2012). Opinion of the United States. *Global Indicators Database*. Retrieved from http://www.pewglobal.org/database/indicator/1/survey/1/

Figure 4 Words Used by Presidents and Prime Ministers to Describe the AASR

	Words used to describe the special relationship
President George H.W. Bush (1989-1993)	a very, very special relationship
	enduring special relationship
President Bill Clinton (1993-2001)	enduring partnership
	a unique and enduring relationship
	an extraordinary relationship that unites us in a way never before seen in the ties between two such great nations
	an enduring alliance and a genuine friendship
	the unique partnership
President George W. Bush (2001-2009)	the uniquely close relationship
	a special and unique relationship
	the unique alliance of values and common purpose
President Barack Obama (2009-)	an extraordinarily special relationship
	a truly special relationship
	a unique relationship
Prime Minister John Major (1990-1997)	the vital relationship
	the longstanding relationship between my nation and your nation
	a very close relationship, a very hard-edged relationship
Prime Minister Tony Blair (1997-2007)	the great comradeship and partnership
	It is a very strong relationship, a very special one
	Ours is, indeed, a special and unique relationship
	It's an alliance of values. It's an alliance of common interests; It's

	an alliance of common convictions and beliefs
	the historic partnership of shared purpose between our countries
Prime Minister Gordon Brown (2007-2010)	Britain's single most important bilateral relationship
	a partnership of purpose that is borne out of shared values
Prime Minister David Cameron (2010-)	This relationship isn't just an extraordinary special relationship. It is also an absolutely essential relationship
	there are some countries whose alliance is a matter of convenience, but ours is a matter of conviction

Source: Speeches of George H.W. Bush, Bill Clinton, George W. Bush, Barack Obama, John Major, Tony Blair, Gordon Brown and David Cameron, the Public Papers of the Presidents in the American Presidency Project, Retrieved from http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/; John Major website. Retrieved from http://www.johnmajor.co.uk/speeches.html

Figure 5 Contributors to the AASR from the Perspective of Presidents and Prime Ministers

	Contributors to the AASR
President George H.W. Bush	common culture and civilization; rule of law; belief in the sanctity of the individual; common values
President Bill Clinton	common heritage; shared values; common aspirations; common vision
President George W. Bush	common history; common values; common interests around the globe; common language; common beliefs including open societies ordered by moral conviction and private markets humanized by compassionate government
President Barack Obama	common language; common culture; common legal system; common heritage; common values; common interests; common adherence to the rule of law; shared ideals and shared values
Prime Minister John Major	ties of kinship, language and shared values; shared interests; strong cultural ties; Anglo-Saxon sensibilities including respect for the individual, the rule of law, the virtues of prosperity and the liberty of progress for all
Prime Minister Tony Blair	shared language; shared outlook; the same values; the same interests; common history
Prime Minister Gordon Brown	common interests; shared history; enduring values; the joint inheritance of liberty
Prime Minister David Cameron	ties of culture and history and emotion; sentiment; shared language; kindred spirits; shared interests; values

Source: Speeches of George H.W. Bush, Bill Clinton, George W. Bush, Barack Obama, John Major, Tony Blair, Gordon Brown and David Cameron, the Public Papers of the Presidents in the American Presidency Project. Retrieved from http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/; John Major website. Retrieved from http://www.johnmajor.co.uk/speeches.html

Figure 6 The Importance of the AASR in the Eyes of Presidents and Prime Ministers

	The importance of the AASR
President George H.W. Bush	"Our desire never deeper to build a free and peaceful world"
President Bill Clinton	"We live in a time of remarkable opportunity for peace and prosperity, for open markets and open societies, for human dignity and human decency. Together the United States and the United Kingdom have helped to shape this hopeful moment in our history"
President George W. Bush	"The United States and United Kingdom are acting together in a noble cause. We're working together to make the world more peaceful"
	"The close partnership between the United States and Great Britain has been and remains essential to the peace and security of all nations"
	The special relationship " is essential to the security and

	prosperity of our two countries and the world"
President George W. Bush	"Our alliance is essential to the security and prosperity that we seek not only for our own citizens, but for people around the world"
	"Our alliance will remain indispensable to the goal of a century that is more peaceful, more prosperous, and more just"
Prime Minister John Major	"There is a great deal that we will wish to talk about that will affect our future, your future and the future of people in other countries around the world"
Prime Minister Tony Blair	"the relationship between the United States of America and Britain is a relationship that is in the interests of our two countries and in the interests of peace and stability of the wider world"
	"It's a good alliance and a good partnership for our two countries, and I believe, for the wider world"
Prime Minister Gordon Brown	"no international partnership has served the world better than the special relationship between our two nations"
Prime Minister David Cameron	"And together, I'm confident that we can help secure the future of our nations and the world for generations to come"

Source: Speeches of George H.W. Bush, Bill Clinton, George W. Bush, Barack Obama, John Major, Tony Blair, Gordon Brown and David Cameron, the Public Papers of the Presidents in the American Presidency Project. Retrieved from http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/ws/; John Major website. Retrieved from http://www.johnmajor.co.uk/speeches.html

Challenges of Self-Management Techniques in Providing Better Classroom Settings

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Abstract

One of the key elements in having an effective teaching and learning atmosphere goes through classroom management that has gone through series of innovations, from animal leathers used to store data, cave walls used for talents and other purposes; to the alleged digital age, with digital tablets, touchpads, smart boards, special schools with utmost utilities serving both teachers and students spreading all over the world. Moreover, internet oriented education is widening the concept of school to anywhere, anytime. Nevertheless, different needs brought different approaches and strategies to solve the problems of classroom management. The 21st century self-management techniques require quite complex approaches. In today`s world technological devices are part of everyday life as our needs brought us to overcome difficulties as well as making life easier. We started education on clay tablets, and had blackboards, then white boards, and now we are getting back to tablets, but this time multitasking digital ones. Smart boards, labs, and multimedia rooms are now serving educational purposes. Thus, in this article, together with aforementioned innovations, it is aimed to present some better ways that may help overcome today`s challenges of classroom management in terms of self-management techniques. The set of 10 principles suggested by Thomas J. Zirpoli is dredged up to shed light on the issue or help instructors to develop their own techniques within the process of classroom management. The vitality of students` study skills and secure attachment are perceived in regard with redemption of overwhelming challenges of self-management techniques.

Keywords: self-management techniques, effective teaching, challenges, classroom management

1.   INTRODUCTION

Students facing the teacher in a class, waiting for instructions, and being taught new subjects is quite a burden on teacher`s shoulders as each individual requires different approaches to their inner worlds of comprehension. There are no two people in the world that have exactly same values of interest, or sharing same characteristic traits. Thus, motivating different people around the same purposes or set goals is quite a difficult task for instructors, educators, especially the ones that are willing to educate students for a better future in terms of a better university, and a better or satisfying job which requires a long term plan of diligent hard work. The followings are some of the headings that can be applied in order to reach a healthier classroom management suggested by Thomas J. Zirpoli:

"*(1) Provide Appropriate Supervision, (2) Provide Appropriate Structure and Routines, (3) Model Appropriate Behavior, (4) Reinforce Appropriate Behavior, (5) Provide Predictable and Consistent Discipline, (6) Avoid Looking for Biological Causes of Behavior, (7) Be A Teacher, Not A Friend, (8) Let Students Know You Like Them & Are Interested In Their Interests, (9) Have Fun! (10) Be Consistent.*" (Zirpoli, T. J. 2008).

Based on the above mentioned techniques details on management techniques are presented throughout the study with an emphasis on consistency management technique, the tenth approach, as consistency would also cover the other techniques by playing the most crucial role in classroom management.

Sating importance of consistency, one should also mention the key roles of enhancing study skills and providing secure settings for students in order to reach the best fruitful atmosphere of classroom management as to reduce maladaptive behavior on both student and instructor side. One of the key elements in having students obtain correct study skills in this regard is critical thinking, suggested by Aslan, M. (2014) as students from a mediocre high school in Albania mostly responded positively when asked about the importance of hardworking as to preserve self-esteem while being asked questions by the instructors in terms of readiness which would help in a positive way for classroom management (Aslan, M. 2014). Having individuals equipped with necessary skills to conduct research, enhance and transform information, think

critically and reflectively, and make higher order decisions in this competitive world is vital for the survival of the societies as well (Duran, et. al, 2012).

Secure settings, considering reduction of management problems, could buffer interactions between students, peers and instructors; "*The surroundings and facilities of a school shouldn`t be separate from the idea of safety as academic achievement is correlated with students` sense of safety in regard with feeling comfortable to receive information, otherwise his or her receptions will be closed to outer inputs*" (Aslan, M. 2014). Findings by other researchers also indicate the correlation between sense of safety and academic achievement (Bryan et. al, 2012).

2.　　　LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature on the issue mostly, suggests that greater measures are needed to be taken by effective classroom managers in order to prevent misbehavior from happening (Emmer, Evertson, & Anderson, 1980) and maintenance of such measures should be emphasized before and during the first days of the school year (Wong & Wong, 2009)*,* and (Broome, 2013). Thus; if a measure is to be taken for classroom management it should be from the beginning and consistent in its application. Consistency plays a key role in self-management techniques as its significance is emphatically accepted by almost all researchers in the field. The principles should be set by the instructors at the very beginning of educational year and they should be well explained to students in order to avoid confusion. The principles should not be complex, rather simple both in language and practice. Garrett (2013) suggests that we set four to six simple rules by helping Students` comprehension which should be one of our top priorities, more importantly rules should be internalized by students as well. If possible, some rules can be defined or even set by students themselves. Wong H., Wong R., Rogers & Brooks (2012) mention about such procedures.

Teacher-student relationship can be enhanced by using two independent characteristics of teacher behavior which are named by Wubbels, Brekelmans, Brok and Tartwijk (2006a) & Wubbles (2011) as "*control and affiliation*". Positive reinforcement both in enhancing expected behavior and in providing secure heavens for students is also majorly handled by majority of the literature on self-management techniques. Positive Behavior Support model suggested by Ihlo & Nantais (2010) as an intervention to promote prevention oriented positive environment indicated by Roskos, et. al (2012) are proposing valuable data on the 4ᵗʰ principle of Zirpoli, T. J. (2008) suggesting to "*Reinforce Appropriate Behavior*".

As stated earlier most of the literature mostly explicitly and sometimes implicitly refer to the significance of consistency in applying previously set principles. Among many, Lewis, Powers, Kelk, & Newcomer, (2002) & Roskos, et. al, (2012) refer to importance of establishing stabilize procedures and routines through small, yet well-defined set of expectations.

Scanted literature on self-management techniques for classroom management is perceived to provide and support data on principles suggested by Zirpoli, T. J. (2008), on the other hand consistency as the last principle is given the key role. Study skills providing critical thinking and secure attachment are other elements having impact on management skills.

The article aims to provide valuable contribution to hitherto mentioned principles by other researchers, however it`s different from others by emphasizing the principles through consistency, study skills (especially critical thinking) and secure attachment of students in regard with school, peers and teachers as to help instructors to build their own principles or utilize the principles set by other researchers in the most possible efficient way. However, it`s important to mention that the article is mostly based on theoretical framework of Zirpoli, T. J. (2008) as the key model for self-management techniques in overcoming challenges of classroom settings in terms of self-efficacy as an instructor who holds the key role in education and its all components.

3.　　　METHODOLOGY

The study is mostly based on analysis of 10 principles presented by Thomas J. Zirpoli as the primary source from his work called "*Behavior Management: Applications for Teachers*" to determine best possible solutions for instructors as well as to help them find their own way of classroom management technique. Secondary data analysis is also conducted through other articles written on the same issue. A partial data analysis obtained from a questionnaire (Aslan, M. 2014) on school bonding implemented to a high school in Albania is also reflected in regard with challenges and self-management techniques.

Followings are main suggested principles for self-management techniques in classroom management;

a.   **Provide Appropriate Supervision**

Students being observed throughout the lesson may indicate better performance, however the ones that are supervised even in their daily lives would perform much better performances in terms of being planned as in what to do, when to do, and how to do. Wong H., Wong R., Rogers & Brooks (2012) also mention that students feel more secure when they know what will happen on daily basis as to make sure students have their days planned and sure of being supervised; On the other hand procedures are required to execute such measures; *"There are procedures that help students organize their day"* (Wong, et. al, 2012) suggesting supportive viewpoints on the first principle given by Zirpoli, T. J. (2008).

b.   **Provide Appropriate Structure and Routines**

On daily basis, students need to know the things they have to do in completing their daily learning or knowledge gaining process. Teacher should provide some principles and routines that will help students avoid distraction. For example daily assignment checks should be done via check lists in an orderly fashion which will also help the teacher to have a reliable collected data on student`s improvement. At this point it`s worth to mention Garret`s (2013) suggestions on creating four to six classroom rules as to emphasize simplicity, yet firmed patterns; *"• Create four to six classroom rules that clearly specify appropriate behavior • Consider Involving the students in the generation of the rules. • Write the rules using positive language. • Post and refer to classroom rules as necessary. • Develop routines to provide direction about how different classroom tasks are accomplished. • Teach and demonstrate classroom rules and routines as specifically as you do academic content"* (Garrett, 2013). As observed providing such patterns also requires learner-teacher interaction as to have the rules accepted and comprehended by students.

c.   **Model Appropriate Behavior**

Role modeling is also essential in having students reflect the expected behavior as their personality and characters get shaped by what they observe from their parents and teachers. As instructors, we don`t only teach, we also help children find their identities, their true selves both materially and spiritually as stated by Aslan, Mehmet (2014) in his article on spirituality and identity. Children turn into what we put in front of them; if they have good role models in front of them, only then they can manage to build strong characteristic traits. As described by Wubbels, Brekelmans, Brok and Tartwijk (2006a) & Wubbels, (2011) mapping teacher-student relationship can be achieved by two independent characteristics of teacher behavior; *"control and affiliation"*.

d.   **Reinforce Appropriate Behavior**

Reinforcing positive behavior is also an essential element in canalizing students` behavior into the positive learning. Students should see that their positive behavior is valued by the teacher so that he\she can reflect the same behavior when needed; otherwise the behavior would diminish throughout time. This principle gained momentum Ihlo & Nantais (2010) as a new direction of Positive Behavior Support model in a multitier system of intervention, thus promoting positive environment through prevention which involves universal support that have been successful in the past (Roskos, et. al, 2012).

e.   **Provide Predictable and Consistent Discipline**

Teachers should provide predictable and consistent discipline. In order to gain trust and fairness among students, the rules and guidelines should be clear and perceivable. Once the rules are explained though rational reasons their consequences should also be given as to avoid misunderstandings on both student and teacher side.

f.   **Avoid Looking for Biological Causes of Behavior**

When encountered with unwanted behavior, biological reasons such as tantrums behind the behavior shouldn`t veil the real reason behind it. A good teacher should be able to see beyond the matters when needed. Sometimes normally well-mannered students may reflect negative behavior which could be given a logical explanation by the student when given the chance of expressing himself\herself.

g.   **Be A Teacher, Not A Friend**

The relation between teacher and students shouldn't trespass the red lines which is quite vital in keeping the balance as it may cause loss of control and make the whole process of hard work going astray. On the other hand, it is important that a teacher keeps a good relation with his\her students.

h.   **Let Students Know You Like Them & Are Interested In Their Interests**

While being able to keep the distance between the teacher and student, teacher should also be able to show his\her interest in students' hobbies or areas of fun. They might be able to make some little jokes to each other, and talk about things out of lesson. On the other hand, students' being in the same class with different backgrounds is itself a mixture as no two students are alike. Each individual has his/her own traits, especially when it comes to teaching where differences are to lessened or at least blurred in order to put emphasis on unity and reach every person in the class. Thus, differences are to be reflected as variants of values.

i.   **Have Fun!**

While trying on heavy burdens of teaching and learning processes both teachers and students may spare some time for fun, more importantly the lesson shouldn`t be given in a very serious, mundane way as it would cause boredom. There can be little breaks of entertainment and lesson process should be provided together with fun, in other words, students should learn through fun activities.

j.   **Be Consistent**

Among above mentioned techniques the most inclusive one that also covers the other techniques in a way is being consistent in whatever discipline, rules, or guidelines are being followed. If students are well aware of the fact that their teachers are following some principles persistently, they will eventually start to indicate positive behavior no matter what obstacles they face during the process of educational activities. Deliberate establishment of the procedures and routines Lewis, Powers, Kelk, & Newcomer, (2002) (like quizzes and exams) within the first few weeks of school would stabilize expectations as well when teachers adhere to a small set of well-defined expectations (e.g., "Be respectful; be responsible; be a problem solver") which would also provide reinforcement protocols when expectations are met as well as rapid application of stated consequences when expectations are not met (Roskos, et. al, 2012).

4.   SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY SKILLS AND SECURE ATTACHMENT

Study conducted through a questionnaire by Aslan, Mehmet (2014) indicates that students from different regions of Albania that have to live in an educational institution, not only for school time but also for after school times to perform extracurricular activities as some students in Albania have to live in dormitories, experience different problems and face many factors that shape their identities and help them develop different characteristic traits. The study is vital in understanding the correlation between study skills, secure attachment and self-management techniques within class settings as the factors that increase school attachment, like modern facilities, friendly atmosphere; teacher friendly orientations, family support etc. are investigated. The study is quite vital in its field as educational success is correlated with school bonding, thus students` achievements are also investigated and findings are reflected through case studies as well. This pilot study also provide samples for future studies on students` dormitory lives, their interactions with peers and teachers when provided more data from other schools in Albania as to obtain more generalized and comparable data on the issue.

Following two tables indicate the interrelation between study skills, secure attachment and self-management techniques that are obtained from the survey analysis in an Albanian high school which is important in having an idea on the Albanian students` characteristic traits;

4. I don't feel safe in my school.
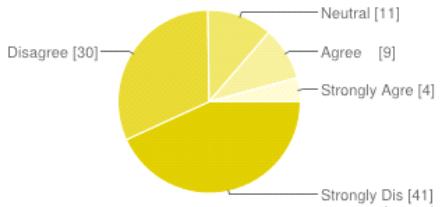
Strongly Disagree	**41**	43%
Disagree	**30**	32%
Neutral	**11**	12%
Agree	**9**	9%
Strongly Agree	**4**	4%

School safety is one of the essential components in relation with students' feelings of bonding with school as in having a secure setting of being sure of any sort of thread that may affect their performances. This vital survey question reflects high scale of safety among students as the question is negatively asked the results indicate negative responses with positive meaning. 43+32=75% of students don`t feel insecure at school. 12% being neutral leaves only 13% of positive responses with negative meaning. However, 13% is also worth to mention as even lower scales of insecurity should be considered seriously.

7. I care if my homework is done correctly.
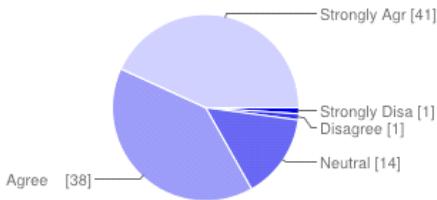
Strongly Disagree	**1**	1%
Disagree	**1**	1%
Neutral	**14**	15%
Agree	**38**	40%
Strongly Agree	**41**	43%

The word `correctly` plays an essential role in understanding students responses as doing homework is considered to be an essential element in learning, but having it done correctly is more vital in measuring students interest in giving importance to do the homework with its requirements as well as having an idea on students critical thinking in terms of study skills. 43+40% of the students agree that doing the homework correctly is important, on the other hand 17% being out of positive responses raises a warning in reconsidering students` perception.

5.   CONCLUSION

The search for unknown throughout history brought us to the interrelation between school, teacher, and students; as it has always been a need for human beings to quench their thirst for learning more and more. However, environmental issues, different talents, variety of the goals, methodologies used in teaching or learning, and most importantly technology are

some of the factors that determine the level of teaching and learning on each individual. Thus providing sustainable, maintainable principles and following them in order to achieve success is quite vital on both teacher and student side.

The study also suggests that there is a correlation between study skills, secure attachment as to obtain efficient self-management techniques. Principles may vary from instructor to instructor, but consistency and simplicity of the principles have great impact in realizing expected behavior by students as to reach satisfactory results in terms of learning and character development.

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Entrepreneurship Skills Acquisition and the Benefits amongst the Undergraduate Students in Nigeria

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Abstract

There is this colonial mentality among the first generation graduates in Nigeria where there has been a craze for white collar office work alone. In recent times, the Nigeria graduates have faced a lot of frustrations from lack of achieving the white collar job so to speak. This paper is advocating the adoption of re-positioning the economic development and entrepreneurial drive for job creation, wealth creation and global competitiveness of Nigeria youths and graduates. The basic truce of this paper is to enhance a match between theory and practice as facilitated by research and development centers in the Nigerian universities to serve as a technology laboratory and incubate entrepreneurship skills. The entrepreneurship education as a compulsory course in some Nigerian university system is actually viewed as a means to empower the youths through entrepreneurship education. The paper critically looked at the role of entrepreneurship education. The purpose is to equip the individual and create the mindset to undertake the risk of venturing into applying the knowledge and skills gotten from school. Other issues like the provision of individuals with enough training to enable creativity and innovation relevant to skill acquisition to encourage self-employment and self-reliant were x-rayed. Some techniques like industrial training exercise, workshop and seminar, excursion as a vehicle in the youth empowerment and eradication of poverty and extreme hardship were mentioned. Challenges like inadequate funding, lack of training personnel and men availability of equipment were identified as issues facing entrepreneurship education. Recommendations like entrepreneurial base curriculum at all levels of education, provision of enabling environment for entrepreneurial development required for economic advancement and youth empowerment should be the key focus in Nigeria for youths and graduates from various tertiary schools as applicable.

Keywords: Skill acquisition, poverty eradication, youth empowerment, entrepreneurship education and graduate job challenges.

Introduction

It is common knowledge that about 80% of graduates in most Nigerian universities find it hard to get employment every year. This is largely due to the curricula of the universities and other tertiary schools with emphasis on training for white-collar jobs. Nigeria has an estimated population of 170 million people (NBS, 2004 and Ojo, Abayomi & Odozi, 2014). This population is endowed with abundant human and natural resources and a favourable geographical location in the world map. The current global financial crisis has impacted negatively on the macro and micro levels of the Nigerian economy. In the present, this situation has posed serious challenges and threats to government and a great number of the citizens. Nigeria like other developing countries is faced with a number of problems ranging from youth and graduate unemployment, high level of poverty, insurgency, conflict and diseases, insincerity, over dependency on foreign made goods, low economic growth and development, lack of capacity and required skills to move the economy forward and urbanization. Unemployment has become a major problem bedeviling the lives of youths and graduates causing frustration, depression, dejection and dependency on family members and friends. The high level of unemployment among this population in Nigeria has contributed to the high rate of insecurity, violence in elections and poverty (Ajufo, 2003 & Simkovic 2012). The National Population Commission (2013), Ojo, Abayomi & Odozi (2014) and Awogbenle and Iwamadi (2010) are of the view that sixty four (64) million of the Nigeria youths are unemployed while one million six hundred thousand (1.6million) are underemployed bringing the total of youths population to eighty (80) million representing youth population. When this

percentage is deducted from the total population of Nigeria then you would agree with me that repositioning entrepreneurship education in our schools would salvage this gap as it were against the white collar job ambitions,.

One of the possible causes for this lack is that the education in Nigeria addresses only output end of capacity development solving problem. In addressing the input and therefore, a complimentary approach is needed. In developed economies or industrialized economies for instance, the education system emphasizes the trail of inquiry-discovery application in teaching and students to perceive problems (including societal problems) as challenges and opportunities that can be turned into goods and services of commercial value (Adejimola & Olufumilayo, 2009, Giwa 2000, and Adeyemi 2006). One of the approaches to achieve the contending in Nigeria is teaching and research at entrepreneurship and innovation centres by universities and other tertiary institutions and the promotion of universities-private sector collaboration. This should involve developing the capacity of staff and students in entrepreneurship and innovation, engaging in outreach activities with small and medium enterprises through such interventions as business incubators. Training entrepreneurs and conducting research and consultancies are inevitable as it pertains to entrepreneurial, industrial and economic growth in Nigeria.

The Concept of Entrepreneurship Education

The entrepreneurship education refers to many things to variation of people as applicable to their values and observations of what it means to them. Nwabuama (2004) sees entrepreneurship education as the identification of the general characteristics of entrepreneurs and how potential entrepreneurs can be trained in management techniques needed for effective performance of persons for long time service of an organization after the acquisition of occupational skills. For Ebele (2008), entrepreneurship education is the teaching of knowledge and a skill that enables the students to plan, start and run their own business. In the view of Olawolu and Kaegon (2012), entrepreneurship education prepares youths to be responsible and entering individuals who become entrepreneurial thinkers by exposing them to real life learning experiences where they will be required to think, take risks, manage circumstances and incidentally learn from the outcome. Okereke and Okorafor (2011) assert that entrepreneurship education is a potent and viable tool for self-empowerment, job and wealth creation. Entrepreneurship education entrails teaching students, learners and would-be business men, equipping the trainees with skills needed for teaching responsibility and developing initiatives of prospective trainees (Ezeani, 2012). Entrepreneurship education entails philosophy of self reliance such as creating a new cultural and productive environment promoting new sets of attitudes and culture for the attainment of future challenges (Ogundele, Akingbade and Akinlabi, 2012).

Entrepreneurship education is the type of education which has the ability to impact on the growth and development of an enterprise through technical and vocational training. Actually entrepreneurship education has its peculiar learning and teaching approaches. Solomon (2007), highlighted entrepreneurship education teaching approaches to include business then writing, lecture by professionals, case studies, chose programme supervision and experimental learning, visit of experts on site. Above all the approaches of teaching and learning entrepreneurship education mentioned above, the experimental teaching which involves pragmatic approach seem to be the best base on the studies of (Solomon and Tarabisky 1999). Young people can build confidence in their abilities to become entrepreneurs and be empowered in their future as a result of varieties of entrepreneurial activities provided through education.

The Purpose of Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship education as posited by Paul (2005) and Nwalado (2012) structured the following as the main purpose of Entrepreneurship education:

- Provide the young graduates adequate training that will enable them to be creative and innovative in identifying great business opportunities.
- To offer functional education to the youths to enable them to be well empowered and self-reliant people in their own right.
- To serve as catalyst for economic growth and development.
- To offer tertiary institution graduates with adequate training in risk management to make learning outcome feasible.
- To reduce the high rate of poverty and insecurity and violence.

- To create job and employment opportunities for its citizenry.
- To reduce the rural-urban migration
- To provide the young graduates with enough training skills and support that will enable them to establish a career in small and medium size business.
- To incubate the spirit of perseverance in the youths and adults which will enable them to persist in any business venture they embark on.
- To create a smooth transition from tradition to modern industrial economy.

The Concept of Youth Empowerment

The term youth is the time of life when the individual is young especially the period between childhood and maturity of the early period of existence, growth or development. The word youth, adolescent, teenage and young persons are usually used interchangeably. A youth generally refers to a time of life that is neither childhood nor adulthood but rather somewhere in between. Youth is an alternative word to the scientifically oriented adolescent and common terms of teen or teenage. Jega (2012) define youth as a special group of people with strong stamina and passion for realizing some goals and purpose. Different countries define the word youth relating to their objectives, conditions and realities existing on ground based on history, contemporary socio-economic and political issues as need to be addressed. For this, different parameters and variables are used in defining their youths in the country. In Nigeria the National Youth Development Policy refers to all young persons of age 18 – 33 years as youths. This category is present in most cultures, the most volatile and yet the most vulnerable segment of the population, socio-economically, emotionally and in other aspects. The youths share certain characteristics that distinguish them from other generation. These characteristics include: impatience for change, zealousness, radicalism, rebellions, curiosity, hard work, ego and ambition. The youths are the engine and actualize of national development if their mindsets are channeled in the right direction.

Springing from the need to enable young people to have a say in decisions which affect them and to have heard voices; This give rise to young people who have economic, social and cultural advancement of their countries and to gain self-fulfillment. Young people are empowered when they acknowledge that they have or can create choices in life, are aware of implications of these choices, make an informed decision freely, take action based on that decision and accept responsibility for the consequences of that action.Youths empowerment is an attitudinal, structure and cultural process whereby young people gain the ability, authority and agency to make decisions and implement change in their own lives and the lives of other people including youths and adults (Ezeani, 2012). Youth empowerment means creating and supporting the enabling conditions under which young people can act on their own behalf, on their own terms, rather than at the direction of others. These enabling conditions includes economics and social base, political will, adequate resource allocation and supportive legal and administrative frameworks, a stable environment of equality, peace and democracy and access to knowledge, information and skills and a positive value system.

Challenges Facing Entrepreneurship Education and Youth Empowerment in Nigeria

Entrepreneurship education has received a boost as a source of job creation, empowerment for the unemployed and the underemployed in a globalized economy worldwide. For Nigeria, the following reasons hinder Entrepreneurship education:

- Poor entrepreneurial culture,
- Lack of fund.
- Poor knowledge based economy and low spirit of competition.
- Lack of entrepreneurial teachers, materials and equipment.
- Non-inclusion of entrepreneurship practical programme in the school curricula.
- Poor societal attitude to technical and vocational education development.
- Inadequate facilities and modern equipment for teaching and learning.
- Insensitivity of government to enterprise creation and expansion strategy.
- Poor plan and execution of processes of action.
- Isolated or pockets of ineffective programmes and management in competencies.
- Inadequate parental care.
- Breakdown of family values and indiscipline.

-    - Political manipulation of youth organizations.

Despite the difficult situation and the dire need for change, the government has done little to reduce the misery and frustration of its citizenry, fostering hopelessness in the majority of young people who have resorted to any means including crime to succeed in life. The youth are expected not to involve in crime but to channel their energy towards the development of our dear country Nigeria.

Entrepreneurship Skills Creation for Undergraduate Studies

The wheel of development of any country lies on the shoulder of how productive and creative the youths are. Parents, teachers and government have the obligation to ensure that the youths are empowered. There is apparent economic depression in the midst of our so-called oil boom in Nigeria. The problem with Nigerian educational programmes is the too much emphasis on the value on certificate rather than the skills required in the career. In other words, the individual struggle hard through any means to attain the golden fleece which is the certificate rather than the knowledge and skills which should make them self-reliant. Hence, it is hope and rightly too, that in the first place government should encourage a diversification of the economy through adequate support for private establishment and practical acquisition of skills in higher institutions. For this, education should be refined with a view to create and enhance the supply and entrepreneurship in the youth initiatives and activities.

Apart from the entrepreneurship curriculum, there are other specific activities which can be carried out with a view to create an entrepreneurship skills creation in the Nigerian tertiary schools. Some of them as (Okojie 2008, Osibanjo, 2006 and Ememe 2011), highlighted:

- Establishment of entrepreneurship development centres.
- Establishment of small and medium scale establishment resources centres.
- Establishment of some clubs in the tertiary schools.
- Organize business plan competitions
- Introduce networking events through workshops, seminars, symposia, lectures and stakeholders where cross fertilization of ideas could occur.
- Identify entrepreneurship business opportunities.
- There should be role model interaction and mentoring to deliver motivated discussions in form of key notes or lectures.
- Industrial visits and excursion for on site field trip like students of mass communication could visit media houses, medical students could visit pharmaceutical company and education students could visit modern schools with facilities to mention but a few.
- Make the students master at least one vocation that can guarantee self-reliance.
- Inculcate in the students the knowledge of the modern information communication and technology that will enable them to interact effectively with their immediate and distant environment.
- To fashion out modalities for setting up a career/entrepreneurship centre where students can be counselled and guided on the right career to follow after their graduation.
- There should be a school based enterprise where students identify potential business plan, create and operate small business by using the school as a mini incubator.
- There should be some form of innovative for students who have done their practical work well during site supervision. This will motivate them to establish businesses after school graduation.

Conclusion

Entrepreneurship education has been clearly observed here as a vehicle to ride off the endemic problem of poverty, hunger and youth empowerment. When the youths are provided with the right raining in practice, they explore opportunities in their immediate environment instead of chasing shadows in the cities. The development of Entrepreneurship education will go a long way in creating employment, give young people the opportunity to develop their enterprising skills, empowering the young to be job creators and not job seekers through the provision of necessary skills and knowledge to raise their output, income and wealth. Entrepreneurship education would also contribute to improve the image and highlight the role of

entrepreneurs in the society. The current industrial decay and the subsequent unemployment crisis among the Nigerian graduates have been traced to the theory-oriented university programmes and certificate frenzy compiled with the celerial mentality of golden fleece.

The economic situation of Nigeria needs re-engineering in order to strategically reposition Nigeria as the true leader of Africa. I strongly recommend curriculum review, sensitization, advocacy and mobilization of support for Entrepreneurship education, programme focus and funding together with the political will and stability of the government in order to achieve the goals and the policy thrusts of the Federal Government of Nigeria.

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The Adaptation to the Community System : Problems *in Fieri* in Receiving the E.U. Directives and Regulations and Apparent Problems about Limitation of Sovereigny - the Albania's Case

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Abstract

All european countries that entered in European Union had problems about juridical relationships, and expecially in order to adaptation at european normative system. Albania formally obtained the status of candidate one year ago. For this reason in a few years the Country will be a real member of E.U. : so, it is compulsory to think about legal solutions to solve probable legal conflicts, and to harmonize the albanian legislation at european law's system.

Keywords: Community system, European Union, Albania, directives, regulations, sostitutive power, supporting, proportionality

Introduction

The Republic of Albania officially obtained the status of "candidate" to entry in the E.U.: just a year ago, on the 27th june of the last year 2014, in fact, the E.U. - after a troubled iter - formally accepted the candidacy of the Country, from Tirana governement. This appens after five years since the date of the spent time, after becoming affective of the agreement of stabilization and association that appened on the 1st April 2009, with which Albania had ratified the engagement already taken during 2006.

With the decisive entry of the 'Eagle Country' among the Community Countries that, as we wish can be soon , it is easy foresee as inevitable a series of law's problems to harmonize and fit the only subjects and laws already controlled by the inside legislation of Albania with the so called community derived right: this will happen after the sostitutive power of the Union so happened before in the other States taking part in the Union, and in Albania will be placed the judicial problem, relating to the laws of E.U. inside the judicial Albania system.

In this way it will be useful to but above-mentioned questions to solve easily and promptly the eventual contrast (of the future and very probabile) in controlled subjects either from the inside system or community one.

By the way we have to observe preliminarily that Albania Republic began a process of harmoniring for a long time with a European legislation: in fact there have been published in the last decade, a series of important law reforms according to Europe.

For expository clarity and consideration said above, it seens necessary to speak about c.d. general principles that regulate the relationships between the right of E.U. and the right of the state – members of E.U.

Actually the relationship between the E.U. and the operative right in the state members, that is the relationship between the laws of E.U. , on one hand (either those in treatises or those issued by the E.U.) and from the other hand, the single judicial problems of the States that have joined the Union, provoked and provokes big discussions and conflicting positions either in the academic doctrine or in the jurisprudence.

Actually in the international right the so-called dualistic approach (or better the pluralistic one) is on the general principle of the clear separation of the inside the national law system, in comparison with the international one: so you can't determine any form of hierarchy between the inside laws of the single state and the international ones.

Therefore it is useful to observe the system, they, in reality differ either for the people (having the inside right character interpersonal, and the right international character inter-state) or regarding, obviously, the same sources.

It is, so, necessary first of all to explain (clarify) the hierarchical relationships that are between these judicial systems (that are, under all the ways, real different systems among them).

In particular, it is useful to define (determine) the existing relationships between the national system of the single state-member on the supranational one of the E.U. because it is clear in the right that is issued by the E.U. , it belongs to the second typology.

It is konwn that with the joining to the institutional tratises of the E.U. , the joined countries accept "ipsofacts" a series of limitations of their own sovereignty (in determined fields): with the consequent transfer of the respective powers that regulate (control) the same subjects for the community organistions (bodies).

There are lonely apparent problems in limitation of sovereigny.

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Guizzi Vincenzo, Diritto dell'Unione Europea – Quarta edizione, E.S.I., Napoli 2015- p.14 and ss.

In fact, as I said, overcome the problem so that to confer with the European laws, there is evidently the judicial real question of the relationship between the right that is effective in the E.U. and the so called "inside" right (or that is effective in the single state-member) also by the light of the different constituional system and of possible conflicts in the subjects controlled by the different system: such a question is not referable to the usual relationship between international right and the inside right; even if it doesn't mean that there is a pratical problem of adaptation of the Union right to the inside right of the state-member.

However it is necessary to highlight since the beginning as this mechanism must happen on various and different suppositions: in fact, while the relationship between the internation system and the inside system is resolved with a coordination relationship between two judicial system reciprocally indifferent that between the judicial Union system and the state-member system is a relationship of integration, as they are not in a mutual and equal relation, because the Union system aims to combine in the inside system.

This tight mutual relation is strengthened also by the duty, for the state-members, according to what is confirmed by the article 4 T.U.E. , to adopt "all the measures of general or particular character fit (suitable) to ensure the execution of the duties deriving from the treatises or consequent to the acts of the Union institution. They refrain from any measure that risks to danger the achievement of the Union aims (c.d duty of mutual collaboration.

The stated principle by the above art. 4 T.U.E rises from the conscionsness the Union system, is not closed and self, sufficient system, but it needs, because it completely realitas, of the integration of the state-member system.

The tight exesting integration between the European normative system and that is in various state-members implies a coordination and a harmonitation that not always are realized in the practice in fact there have often happened phenomenons among the different arrangements contrast dictated by the different systems.

The solution of such conflicts, obviously, it is important in those ipothesis in which the Union right establishes rights and duties for sigle citizens with an immediate efficacy: one of the elements that charaterizes the relation between the Union right and the inside right is, in fact, the community of the people because the consignees of the European and national disposition coincide.

In these ipothesis the risen questions from a possible contrast are the following: 1) to establish in the first moment disposition of the Union right must be considered with direct efficacy;

2) to establish wich disposition must prevail in the conflictual situations.

Both the questions have been faced more than once by the justice of European Union, that, through a contrast judicial interpretation , has confirmed two judicial principles of great importance.

Beside, we must say that exist some general principles that regulate the subjects founded on the so-called principle of "supporting" and proportionelity.

 To harmonize the process of European law integration the state-members were obliged to limit part of the mutual "sovereignity" giving the E.U. institutions the power to adopt binding decisions for all the States and so recognizing the direct applicability of the E.U. right inside the same state-members.

With the enlarging of the intervention sectors of the Union in fact we felt the necessity to define the limits of the national and European skills.

So we have to trust in two regulating principles said above that is "supporting'' and ''proportionality".

They are confirmed by the article 5 of the T.U.E. and also by protocollo 2 (on the application of the supporting and proportionality principles) attached to the text of Lisbona.

According to the supporting principle, foreseen by the art. 5 to par. 5 of T.U.E. , the Union intervenes in those sector that aren't of its skills only when its action is considered more effective than the national one. Such intervention must be graded for the reaching aim and not to go beyond that is tightly necessary (the proportionality principle). [2]

The supporting principle foreseen, instead, the decisions must be taken for the citizens, leaving the power belonging to a superior level interests only of some subjects that can't be treated to an inferior level (local authorities).

The above principle must be put beside the poportionality principle (art. 5 T.U.E.) : it foresees that the contest and the form of the Union action must be limited to what is necessary to reach the aims of the tratises.

The supernational character of the E.U. implies the possibility to reach better results and will phisiologically push to enlarge the exercised skills in common; even if there is the opposition some State-members that are afraid to see ''further limited'' their own powers.

From here: the necessity to research new forms of different integration, expecially for future members like Albanian Republic, that can enlarge actionfield of the European Union, proteeting the sovereignity of the dissenting states, as well as the prediction of new law tools, that can permit to those last ones not to take part in the forms of establishing cooperation (for example it's possible apply to the so called like "derogation"). [3]

Endnotes

[2] Strozzi Girolamo, Diritto dell' Unione Europea, Ediz. Giappichelli, Torino 2015 – p. 26 and ss.

[3] Martinelli Francesco, Compendio di diritto dell' Unione Europea, Simone Editore, Napoli 2012 – p. 11 and 12

Interpersonal Communication of School Students in Physical Experimental Activity: the Aspect of Real and Digital Labs

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Abstract

The article deals with Lithuanian secondary school students' attitudes towards interpersonal communication in real (with traditional laboratory instruments) and digital physics laboratory work (labs). Performing laboratory work in physics, students work in groups where they can communicate, exchange technical information, and provide assistance to each other. Interpersonal communication between students depends of the forms of laboratory work: real or digital. In comparison to digital laboratory work, students can communicate with each other more doing real laboratory work. This has led to a scientific problem, which is formulated as a question: What is the attitude of school students to the real and digital physics labs and their role in interpersonal communication? The aim of the research is to disclose the role of real and digital physics labs in the secondary school students' interpersonal communication. Real and digital laboratory work in physics was carried out in accordance with the second stage of inquiry based learning, namely structured inquiry. This method encouraged students to communicate and collaboratively search for an unknown result of a lab. The study was based on interpersonal communication model on the three levels of communication: I-It; I-You; I-Thou. The interpersonal communication of students was assessed in the following aspects: interpersonal distance, interpersonal trust, and interpersonal communication in terms of expectations and friendship. The study based on ANOVA data block revealed the attitude of the school students towards the real and digital physics labs, their role in the nature of interpersonal communication (interpersonal distance, interpersonal trust, interpersonal expectations).

Keywords: interpersonal communication, real physical labs, digital physical labs.

Introduction

Educational practice is based on subject-specific communication, yet it is impossible without interpersonal communication. J. Wood (2013) provides a definition of interpersonal communication, which reveals the significance of interpersonal communication in the process of learning. The meaning of the word *interpersonal* is derived from the prefix *inter* (or between) and the word *person*. The best way to define interpersonal communication is by focusing on what happens between people, not where they are or how many are present. Interpersonal communication is a selective, systemic, individual, processual transaction that allows people to reflect and build personal knowledge of one another and create shared meanings (Wood, 2013). Such an approach to interpersonal communication is related to constructivist theory of learning, which maintains that personal knowledge is not complete and invariable or transferrable. Knowledge is partly personalized (subjective), as the meaning is constructed by a person referring to own experience. Hence, it is evident that interpersonal communication in a comprehensive school is determined by the learning environment and the content of school subjects. The laboratory is a key site for science education. It is here that discipline knowledge and generic competences are fused and honed, in the very act of 'doing science' (Hintona, Yeomanc, Carvalhob et al., 2014). The classroom laboratory is the area were school students learn science by 'doing science'. The laboratory facilitates the application of theoretical concepts and key principles in a discipline. Laboratories create opportunities for school students to apply knowledge in 'real world' and experimental contexts and to engage in practices similar to those of experts (deHaan, 2005). The classroom laboratory provides collaboration and encourages the students to work in teams on common outcomes. "Activity – what students actually do - is shaped by (1) the tasks they are asked to tackle, (2) the physical setting, and (3) the social organization of their work (e.g. how tasks are distributed across members of a team). While tasks, setting and social arrangements can be designed in advance, learner activity cannot" (Hintona, Yeomanc, Carvalhob et al., 2014).

Interpersonal communication in the classroom laboratory can be supported by different levels of inquiry-based learning. H. Banchi & R. Bell (2008) identify four levels of inquiry-based learning: confirmation inquiry, structured inquiry, guided inquiry and open enquiry. The lowest level of inquiry (confirmative inquiry) corresponds to activities where learners know the possible outcomes of a project, and where a detailed description of activities and problems is provided. The second level

of inquiry (structured inquiry) is reached in projects when learners are provided with a problem and the method for its solution. The third level (coordinated inquiry) is characterized by the fact that learners know the problem but have to find out how to solve it by themselves. The highest level (open inquiry) is reached when learners identify a problem, methods for its solution, and explanations for the curricular phenomena themselves. In these labs, students generate scientific evidence and explanations while designing and conducting their own experimental investigations (Etkina, Karelina, Ruibal-Villasenor et al., 2010). Low interpersonal communication is acquired by confirmation inquiry, a higher interpersonal communication is gained by structured inquiry and guided inquiry, whereas the highest interpersonal communication is obtained by open enquiry. The article deals with the application of the structured inquiry in Physics labs for the interpersonal communication.

The physics labs can be real or digital. There are various ways of defining digital labs. They can be defined as a computer program that allows a student to run simulated experiments via the web or as a stand-alone application. A digital lab could be a set of simulations put together (Examples are applets, flash base demos, animations) (Bajpai, 2013). Scientific literature reveals many features of digital labs: the tools are less time-consuming, more flexible, clean, rapid and safe; moreover, they open up for types of experimentation that otherwise might not be possible for students to engage in (Dalgarno & Lee, 2010; Petersson, Andersson & Säljö, 2013).

There is a discussion about the role of real and digital labs in education. It is argued that there is no simple answer to the dilemma which laboratory is best for students. All types of laboratories offer certain advantages. The balanced mixture of real, virtual and remote labs should be offered for students (Nedic, Machotka & Nafalski, 2003), both forms of activity have unique properties that are needed to promote deeper conceptual understanding (Jaakkola & Nurmi, 2008; Winn et al., 2006). However, there is a lack of discussion how real and digital labs determine interpersonal communication of school students.

The scientific problem is formulated as a question: what experimental activity promotes interpersonal communication among the learners of the new generation in a lesson of physics? The research problem highlights the **object of the research:** interpersonal communication of basic school students. It also determines **the aim of the research:** to explore how physical experimental activity based on structured investigation determines learners' interpersonal communication.

Objectives of the research:

1. To explore the effect of real and digital physics labs on learners' interpersonal communication.

2. To reveal the role of real and digital labs in the interpersonal interaction of learners according to the levels of communication (I–It, I–You; I–Thou).

Theoretical background

The phenomenon of inquiry-based learning is impacted by technologies. Learning environment can facilitate students' involvement in experimental design, data collection, data analysis and discussion inside and outside classroom. The physics experimental activity is a constructive and cooperative learning process. At this activity school students discuss, search for, integrate auxiliary information, reflect experiments, and share the meaning either in writing or in speaking. The positive interdependence, promotive interaction, individual accountability, social skills, group processing prove that learners work cooperatively (Lo, 2013). All these activities are related to communication. Interpersonal communication among school students depends on the forms of laboratory work: real or digital. Contrary to digital laboratory work, students can communicate with each other more by doing real laboratory work.

On the other hand, the phenomenon of inquiry-based learning is impacted not only by technologies but also by changing generations. According to the sociological classification, persons born in 1977-1994 belong to Generation Y, whereas the ones born in 1995-2012 belong to Generation Z (McCrindle & Wolfinger, 2010). Currently, learners of Generation Z attend comprehensive school. The relationship of Generation Z with technologies has been precisely defined by A. Cross-Bystrom (2010): 'Generation Z *is* technology'. The statement presupposes a very close relationship with technologies since the generation itself is equalled to technologies. Learners of this generation have lived in the world closely intertwined with technologies since early childhood (Cross-Bystrom, 2010). Californian psychologist L. D. Rosen (2012) raises a question

about what teachers know about young people who spend entire hours by the computer in different social networks. L. D. Rosen's question can be restated as follows: what do teachers know about the interpersonal communication of learners of Generation Z studying natural sciences and how is it affected by real and digital labs? Is the communication between school students at physics labs interpersonal? "Much of our communication is not really personal. Sometimes we don't acknowledge others as people at all and treat them as objects <…> In other instances, we do acknowledge people, yet we interact with them in terms of their social roles rather than personally". (Wood, 2013; p.18).

Communication exists like a continuum from impersonal to interpersonal communication (Wood, 2013). Philosopher Marin Buber (1970) distinguishes three levels of communication in this continuum: I–It, I–You; I–Thou. In the I–It level we treat others very impersonally, we do not acknowledge the humanity of other people and treat them as objects. At the second communication level (I–You) people acknowledge one another as more than objects, they recognize others as individuals within those roles, but they do not fully engage each other. At the level I–You the interaction is guided by the social roles of people (classmates, members of a team). "In the workplace, most of us have many I–You relationships" (Wood, 2013, p.19). The highest form of human dialogue is I–Thou communication. We open ourselves fully and accept others totally at the third level. According to M. Buber (1970), people became fully human in I–Thou relationship. Hence, it is topical to investigate what level of communication school students of Generation Z reach while performing physics laboratory work; and how interpersonal communication (according communication levels) influences real and digital labs by the following aspects: interpersonal distance, interpersonal trust, and interpersonal communication in terms of expectations and friendship.

Methodology

The research methodology is based on constructivist theory of education, which acknowledges structured inquiry as an efficient educational technology promoting interpersonal communication, a positive attitude towards the subjects of natural sciences and helping to apply the acquired knowledge in different situations, developing higher-level thinking abilities as well as promoting active learning processes that are based on knowledge and experience. Moreover, realist education philosophy stating that the reality of natural sciences is objective and cognisable is considered. The constructivist theory of learning tells that learning is an active process based on individual personal experiences and the knowledge is the personal understanding of the reality through personal experience (Igwebuike & Oriaifo, 2012; Ongowo, Indoshi & Ayere, 2014).

The instrument of quantitative research

Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (IMI) was used intended to assess participants' subjective experience related to target activity in laboratory experiments (Ryan, 1982). There are seven subscales in this instrument: the subscale of participants' interest/enjoyment, perceived competency, effort, value/usefulness, felt pressure and tension, perceived choice (or autonomy of activity) and relatedness. The seventh subscale (*interpersonal interactions*) of IMI assesses the interpersonal communication of learners in experimental activity. This subscale describes thoughts and feelings of learners which they may have had regarding another person who participated in the experiment (*1. I felt really distant to this person; 2. I really doubt that this person and I would ever be friends; 3. I felt like I could really trust this person; 4. I'd like a chance to interact with this person more often; 5. I'd really prefer not to interact with this person in the future; 6. I don't feel like I could really trust this person; 7. It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot; 8. I feel close to this person*). The results of seventh subscale in our research are represented by the interval scale, which ranges from 1 to 100 points.

Our study is based on interpersonal communication model in terms of the three levels of communication: I-It; I-You; I-Thou. The different levels of interpersonal communication of school students are assessed in the following aspects: interpersonal distance (level I-It), interpersonal communication in terms of expectations and friendship (level I-You) and interpersonal trust (level I-Thou) (Table 1). The statements about interpersonal communication from IMI subscale are related with the levels of communication (Buber, 1970) (Table 1).

Table 1. The levels of communication (by Buber) and the statements about interpersonal communication (by IMI)

Level of communication		The number of statement in IMI	The statement about interpersonal communication of seventh subscale by IMI
I-It	Interpersonal distance	1	I felt really distant to this person
		6	I don't feel like I could really trust this person
I-You	Interpersonal communication in terms of expectations and friendship	7	It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot
		4	I'd like a chance to interact with this person more often
I-Thou	Interpersonal trust	8	I feel close to this person
		3	I felt like I could really trust this person

The sample and sampling of quantitative research. The research sample is reliable and representative (probability cluster sample). The sample includes eighth-form learners of Lithuania. The research clusters are the largest cities of Lithuania. Classes have been selected on the basis of probability cluster sample and all learners of a selected class have been tested.

The research sample is reliable as it involves 385 school students. The total population was 25000 eighth-form school students (EMIS – Education Management Information System). The confidence interval being 5%, confidence level is 95%. Hence, the research sample should have included 379 respondents. Therefore, the probability (confidence level) is 95%, so the obtained data can shift only by 5% from the population parameters (confidence interval).

Method of research

The school students accomplished a Physics lab using real laboratory and digital laboratory software Xplorer GLX. It is a tool of storage, presentation and analysis of the data of experimental measurements that operates with PASPORT sensors.

The school students were working in groups: on average three persons per group. In terms of inquiry-based levels, the lab conformed to the second level (structured inquiry). Before the accomplishment of the lab, the school students were introduced to the aim and procedure of the work, but they were not familiar with the result. After the accomplishment of three real labs and after the accomplishment three digital labs, the learners filled in the IMI questionnaire that was meant for interpersonal communication. Each statement in IMI questionnaire about interpersonal communication was assessed by each student. We have done the analysis only of seventh subscale of IMI in this article.

Results

Assessment of interpersonal communication following the IMI subscale of interpersonal communication: real and digital labs

The school students assessed interpersonal communication in terms of the IMI subscale *interpersonal interactions* after the accomplishment of two cycles of laboratory work in physics. The first cycle of physics labs consisted of three labs that were accomplished by common laboratory devices (*Real labs).* The second cycle of laboratory work comprised three labs conducted using digital laboratory devices (*Digitals labs).* Students' attitude towards interpersonal communication while conducting real and digital labs is presented in square diagrammes *box plot* (Pict. 1).
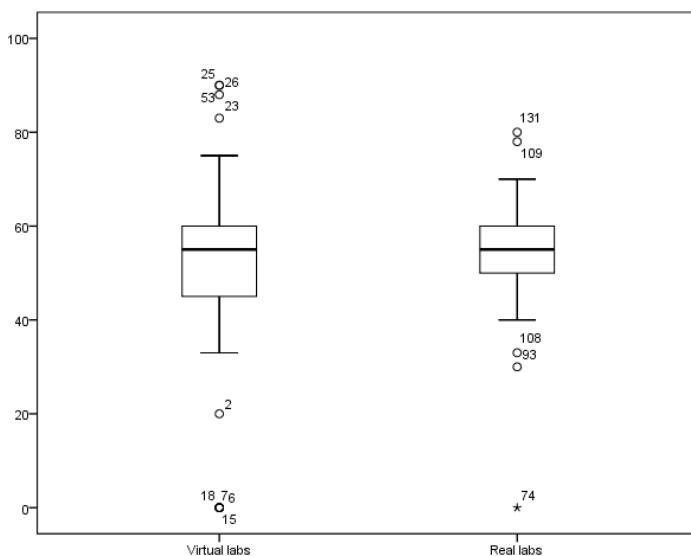
Pict. 1. Assessment of learners' interpersonal communication in cases of real and virtual labs

The box plot (Pict. 1) reveals common tendencies of the distribution of the meanings of the quantitative variable: spread, and maximal and minimal meanings. The upper bound of the square diagramme conforms to the third quartile (Q_3), whereas the lower bound conforms to the first quartile (Q_1). The difference between the upper (Q_3) and lower (Q_1) quartile defines the spread of the data and is referred to as Interquartile Range (IQR), which covers 50% of the total data. The research data showed that IQR of interpersonal interaction differed in virtual and real laboratory work. In the case of real laboratory work, IQR = 10,50, as Q_3 = 60,00, Q_1 = 49,50. Hence, 50% of research participants assessed interpersonal communication while accomplishing real labs from 49,50 to 60,00 points. In the case of virtual labs, IQR = 15,00, as Q_3 = 60,00, Q_1 = 45,00 (Pict. 1). The bigger IQR of virtual labs means that the spread of the data on interpersonal communication assessment was bigger (Pict. 1).

The research data demonstrate (Pict. 1) that the median (quartile Q_2) of interpersonal communication coincides in the cases of real and virtual labs (M_{dr}[1] = M_{dd}[2] = 55,00). The median divides the rank order by half (all the meanings are arranged in the increasing order). Hence, the median presupposes the variable meaning, below which appear half of all the meanings, and another half appear above it. Despite the fact that the medians of the students' assessment of interpersonal communication in the cases of real and virtual labs coincided, their means were different (Table 2). t test for dependent samples was applied to assess the difference. It showed that the different in students' assessment of interpersonal communication in the cases of real and virtual labs was not statistically significant (t = 0,723; df = 65; p = 0,472).

Table 2. Assessment of learners' interpersonal communication in cases of real and digital labs

	Digital labs	Real labs
Mean	52,00	54,74
Median	55,00	55,00
Std. Deviation	19,632	11,283
Skewness	-1,064	-1,715

[1] The median of real lab (r).
[2] The median of digital lab (d).

The assessment of students' interpersonal communication in the cases of real and virtual labs has deviances that are set further from the median of the distribution in one or another direction (Pict. 1). They are called abnormal or atypical meanings. Four abnormal meanings were found (marked °), that fell into the yellow card zone (outlier) in the cases of real labs. In the case of real labs, one atypical meaning was found that fell into the red card zone (extreme) (Pict. 1). Five abnormal meanings (the yellow card zone) were found in the cases of digital labs. These deviances had effect on the skewness of the distribution. The research data show that the distributions of the assessment of school students' interpersonal communication was marked by left skewness A_s <0. In the case of digital labs, the left negative skewness (A_s = -1.064) was weaker than the negative skewness of the real labs (A_s = -1.715). Consequently, the statements defining the students' assessment of interpersonal communication received higher evaluation in the case of real labs. As it was states before, the differences in the assessment of students' interpersonal communication was not confirmed by t test results (t = 0,723; df = 65; p = 0,472).

Assessment of interpersonal communication in terms of communication levels: real labs

The research involved the study of the role of real labs in students' interpersonal communication in terms of the levels of communication: level I-It (interpersonal distance), level I-You (interpersonal communication in terms of expectations and friendship) and level I-Thou (interpersonal trust) (Table 1). Pursuing to compare the statements defining interpersonal communication in terms of different levels, variance analysis of blocked data (*Repeated Measures)* ANOVA was used. The results of the four criteria of ANOVA blocked data coincided. Hence, assumed sphericity was attained; therefore the assessment of interpersonal communication was analysed according to the criterion of sphericity. It confirmed the statistical significance (p = 0,000) of the differences in the assessment of interpersonal communication, when the level of significance is α = 0,05.

Applying ANOVA blocked data, the means of the assessment points for interpersonal communication were calculated in terms of different communication levels (Table 3). The mean points of the statements compliant to the I-It level of communication were the lowest: *I felt really distant to this person* ($\overline{x}_{r1}$ = 40,30 $\pm$ 3,46); *I don't feel like I could really trust this person* ($\overline{x}_{r4}$ = 43,33 $\pm$ 3,41); whereas the mean points of statements compliant with the I-You and I-Thou level were the highest: *It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot* ($\overline{x}_{r5}$ = 69,39 $\pm$ 3,67); *I felt like I could really trust this person* ($\overline{x}_{r2}$ = 72,42 $\pm$ 3,63).

Table 3. Levels of interpersonal communication and the compliant mean points of the assessment statements: real labs

Level, factor[1]	Statement about interpersonal communication	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
I-It (1)	I felt really distant to this person	40,303	3,468	33,377	47,229
I-It (4)	I don't feel like I could really trust this person	43,333	3,416	36,511	50,156
I-You (3)	I'd like a chance to interact with this person more often	67,273	3,472	60,339	74,206
I-You (5)	It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot	69,394	3,670	62,065	76,723
I-Thou (2)	I felt like I could really trust this person	72,424	3,633	65,169	79,679
I-Thou (6)	I feel close to this person	65,758	3,784	58,201	73,314

The difference in the mean points of the statements evaluating interpersonal communication can be explained by the different character of the content of statements. The statement about interpersonal communication at first level I-It have a negative character: *I felt really distant to this person, I don't feel like I could really trust this person.* The statements about interpersonal communication at second and third level have a positive character: *I'd like a chance to interact with this person more often; It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot, I felt like I could really trust this*

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[1] The same numbering of factors was applied as in the case of ANOVA blocked data (Table 4).

person, I feel close to this person. The mean of statements having negative character was about 20% lower than the positive ones. Consequently, it is assumed that interpersonal communication that occurs in the case of real labs has positive character.

ANOVA blocked data allows to compare the assessment of different statements about interpersonal communication among themselves; Bonferoni criterion was used to define the statistical significance of the differences of assessment (Table 4). Bonferoni criterion showed that the assessment of the statements about interpersonal communication that complied to the I-It level (*I felt really distant to this person, I don't feel like I could really trust this person*) statistically significantly differed from the other levels of the assessment of the statements about interpersonal communication. The difference between the first (*I felt really distant to this person*) and the fourth (*I don't feel like I could really trust this person*) factors of I-It level was statistically insignificant.

Table 4. Results of ANOVA Bonferoni data block test. Pairwise Comparisons of interpersonal communication factors in real labs

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.ª	95% Confidence Interval for Differenceª	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 (I-It, distance)	2 (I-Thou, trust)	-32,121*	5,919	,000	-43,942	-20,300
	3 (I-You, intent interact)	-26,970*	5,505	,000	-37,963	-15,976
	4 (I-It, distrust)	-3,030	3,987	,450	-10,993	4,932
	5 (I-You, intent be friends)	-29,091*	5,327	,000	-39,730	-18,452
	6 (I-Thou, closeness)	-25,455*	5,992	,000	-37,422	-13,487

Based on estimated marginal means.

*.The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

ª. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

The results of ANOVA blocked data (Table 4) demonstrated that statistically significant differences were found between the statements of negative character (factor 1 and factor 4) and among all the statements of positive character (factor 2, factor 3, factor 5, factor 6) about interpersonal communication (p = 0,000). Statistically significant differences between negative statements about interpersonal communication were not defined (p = 0,450).

Assessment of interpersonal communication in terms of communication levels: digital labs

The digital and real labs were conducted following the structure inquiry methodology. In case of structured inquiry, students do not know the answer in advance, but are rather encouraged to search for it, which stimulates their interpersonal communication. Digital labs were conducted using digital laboratory software Xplorer GLX that generates final results of the work, draws data tables and drawings. In other words, the search for results is accomplished by computer software. Consequently, the duration of a lab is shortened as well as the time of interpersonal communication in the real setting. The role of digital labs in students' interpersonal communication was explored using structured inquiry according to communication levels: level I-It (interpersonal distance), level I-You (interpersonal communication in terms of expectations and friendship) and level I-Thou (interpersonal trust) (Table 5).

Table 5. Levels of interpersonal communication and the compliant mean points of the assessment statements: digital labs

Level, factor	Statement about interpersonal communication	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
I-It (1)	I felt really distant to this person	36,364	3,051	30,271	42,456
I-It (4)	I don't feel like I could really trust this person	42,424	3,728	34,980	49,869
I-You (3)	I'd like a chance to interact with this person	64,545	3,977	56,604	72,487

	more often				
I-You (5)	It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot	63,939	4,056	55,839	72,040
I-Thou (2)	I felt like I could really trust this person	68,485	4,029	60,438	76,532
I-Thou (6)	I feel close to this person	62,727	4,048	54,642	70,812

The research data showed that the lowest mean of points was among the statements compliant to the I-It level of communication: *I felt really distant to this person* ($\overline{x}_{d1}$ = 36,36 $\pm$ 3,05), *I don't feel like I could really trust this person* ($\overline{x}_{d4}$ = 42,42 $\pm$ 3,72). The highest mean of points was attributed to the statements compliant with the I-You and I-Thou level of communication *I'd like a chance to interact with this person more often* ($\overline{x}_{d3}$ = 64,54 $\pm$ 3,97), *I felt like I could really trust this person* ($\overline{x}_{d2}$ = 68,48 $\pm$ 4,02). Comparing the assessment of the statements defining interpersonal communication according to the levels of communication in the cases of real (Table 3) and digital labs (Table 5), the same tendencies were observed. The lowest mean points are noted for the statements compliant with the I-It level of communication, and the highest mean points are observed for the statements compliant with the I-You and I-Thou levels of communication.

The results of ANOVA blocked data of digital labs (Table 6) showed that statistically significant differences were found between the statements compliant to the I-It communication level (factor 1 and factor 4) and among all the statements of I-You and I-Thou levels of communication (factor 2, factor 3, factor 5, factor 6) (p = 0,000). Statistically significant differences between the statements compliant to the I-It level were not defined (p = 0,450). The same regularities were observed in the case of real labs (Table 4).

Table 6. Results of ANOVA Bonferoni data block test. Pairwise Comparisons of interpersonal communication factors in digital labs

(I) factor1	(J) factor1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.ª	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1 (I-It, distance)	2 (I-Thou, trust)	-32,121*	4,787	,000	-41,681	-22,561
	3 (I-You, intent interact)	-28,182*	4,750	,000	-37,668	-18,696
	4 (I-It, distrust)	-6,061*	2,960	,045	-11,971	-,150
	5 (I-You, intent be friends)	-27,576*	4,746	,000	-37,053	-18,098
	6 (I-Thou, closeness)	-26,364*	5,039	,000	-36,427	-16,300

Based on estimated marginal means.

*. The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

ª. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

The assessment of statements defining interpersonal communication was compared according to the levels of communication (I-It, I-You, I-Thou) conducting real and virtual labs. The statistical comparison of results was carried out employing *t test* criterion for two dependent samples (Table 7). The results of t test showed that a statistically significant difference was determined in only one case of comparison evaluating the statement about interpersonal communication *It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot* (p = 0,030). This statistically significant difference occurred due to fact that the statement *It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot* was assessed with higher points in the case of real labs (Table 3) than of digital labs (Table 5).

Table 7. Comparison of students' statements about interpersonal communication: t test results at real and virtual labs

Level	Statement about interpersonal communication	t	df	Sig. (2-

				tailed)
I-It	I felt really distant to this person	,822	65	,414
I-It	I don't feel like I could really trust this person	,195	65	,846
I-You	I'd like a chance to interact with this person more often	,504	65	,616
I-You	It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot	,992	65	,030
I-Thou	I felt like I could really trust this person	,723	65	,472
I-Thou	I feel close to this person	,560	65	,578

When accomplishing real labs in groups according to the methodology of structures inquiry, assumptions for friendship *It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot* are formed (Table 7). It is assumed that real labs provide school students with better possibilities to communicate, as well as know people working in the group better. Therefore, their assumptions for friendship in the future are more expressed.

Discussion

The conducted analysis of the communication of eighth-form school students in terms of the performance of physics labs in the real and digital environment has confirmed the assumption of Z. Nedic, J. Machotka & A. Nafalski, 2003 that there is no simple answer to the dilemma which laboratory is the best for school students. The results of our research show that assessment of eighth-form school students' interpersonal communication in accordance with IMI social relatedness subscale in real and digital environment is not statistically significant (t = 0,723; df = 65; p = 0,472).

The research involved the analysis of the results of Physics labs that are attributed to structured inquiry in terms of the Inquiry Theory (Banchi & Bell, 2008). A. Loukomies et al. (2013) maintain that, in terms of inquiry strategy, it is important to employ not only learners' prior knowledge but also the basic psychological needs (for autonomy, competency and social relatedness) they want to fulfil. While accomplishing structured inquiry labs, the learners can fulfil a need for social relatedness. They can communicate in groups to search for an unknown outcome of the lab and discuss ideas with peers. The inquiry learners need to design experiments, decide upon appropriate data to collect, as well as to tabulate their findings (Wolf & Fraser, 2008). Stephen J. Wolf & Barry J. Fraser (2008) analysed how eighth-form learners explored activity of static electricity and determined that learners in the inquiry classes worked more closely and offered advice and suggestions. According to the sociological characteristics (McCrindle, Wolfinger, 2010) of generations, the research participants in S. J. Wolf & B. J. Fraser's (2008) study belonged to Generation Y. Hence, social interaction was important for learners of Generation Y while accomplishing real labs in static electricity. The results of our research show that structured inquiry allows social interaction and plays an important role in communication at physics experimental activity of Generation Z learners.

Structured inquiry is a shift in from traditionally structured, often described as "cookbook" experiences to authentic research-based experiences (Brownell, Kloser, Fukami, and Shavelson, 2013). The reform movement in science education has led "old-style labs" (or cookbook labs) to be an inquiry process (Lo, 2013). We agree with A. Loukomies et al. (2013) that well designed activity (at our case structured inquiry activity) encompasses support for new generation learners' basic psychological needs and especially for support for social relatedness. The structured inquiry digital labs ensure the feeling of trust and the expectations of friendship of eighth-form school students: *It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot* ($\overline{x}_{d4}$ = 63,93 ± 4,05); *I felt like I could really trust this person* ($\overline{x}_{d2}$ = 68,48 ± 4,02). Evidence of positive interdependence, promotive interaction, individual accountability, social skills is characterized by virtual communication on physics experiments (Lo, 2013). The real physics labs based on the structured inquiry activity also allow the feeling of trust and the expectations of friendship of school students: *It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot* ($\overline{x}_{r5}$ = 69,39 ± 3,67); *I felt like I could really trust this person* ($\overline{x}_{r2}$ = 72,42 ± 3,63). It means that real labs are important for fostering the communication of new generation school students.

"Teachers and students often have I-You relationships. In the workplace, must of us have many I-You relationships" (Wood, 2013; p.19). The results of our research show that the digital and real physics labs allow to reach a high level of communication: not only the second level (I-You) of communication but the highest – third – level of communication (I-Thou). It means that eighth-form school students interact at physics labs not only according to their social roles but also

personally. On the other hand, interpersonal communication activity at physics labs can remain at the thirst level of communication (I-It). The results of our research show that a big part of school students feel really distant to people of lab groups (real labs $\bar{x}_{r1}$ = 40,30 $\pm$ 3,46; digital labs $\bar{x}_{d1}$ = 36,36 $\pm$ 3,05); and do not trust people from lab groups (real labs $\bar{x}_{r4}$ = 43,33 $\pm$ 3,41; digital labs $\bar{x}_{d4}$ = 42,42 $\pm$ 3,72).

Conclusion

Physics labs based on structured inquiry provide conditions for the interpersonal communication of the students of different levels in a lab group: interpersonal distance and distrust (level I-It); expectations of friendship and interpersonal interaction (level I-You); interpersonal trust and closeness (level I-Thou). Both real and virtual labs based on structured inquiry, enable a student to achieve the (I-You) and the third (I-Thou) levels of communication. However, in both cases – real and digital labs – communication of the lowest level (I-It) is also manifested. It is (I-It) statistically significantly weaker than communication of the second (I-You) and the third (I-Thou) levels.

Digital labs shorten the time of real communication of students, as digital labs are accomplished using Digital laboratory software Xplorer GLX, which conducts tabulation, provides the data and draws graphical representation of the data. Therefore, the time of learners' experimental activity in the virtual environment id prolonged. It determines their attitude towards interpersonal communication. It appeared that a statistically significantly smaller number of eighth-form students stated that *It is likely that this person and I could become friends if we interacted a lot* after digital labs. Hence, accomplishing digital labs in groups according the methodology of structured inquiry develops weaker expectation for friendship in the future.

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Instruments for Measuring the Influence of Visual Persuasion: Validity and Reliability Tests

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Abstract

In User Experience (UX) research, the instruments are often measured by means of rating scales such as Likert scale and semantic differential scale. The validity of the findings and conclusions rely heavily on the instruments used in the questionnaires. This paper provides the assessment of the validity and reliability of a new set of measures to evaluate the influence of visual persuasion on web users. The instruments will be used to assess web users' perceptions of credibility, engagement, informativeness, satisfaction, social influences, usability, and visual aesthetic. Firstly, 85 items are pilot tested by expert and novice users in an offline and online settings. Secondly, the exploratory factor analysis is carried out in which 44 items representing 12 latent variables are reduced to 39 items with some of the latent variables are combined into one. The results show: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) of 0.901, significant Bartlett's test, communalities range between 0.470 - 0.829, nine factors (also known as the latent variables) emerged with eigenvalues greater than 1, explaining more than 60% of the total variance, factor loadings of 0.466 and above, factors correlations of less than 0.7, and Cronbach's alphas are well above the limit of 0.70. Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis is carried out on the first-order and second-order latent variables using the PLS-SEM. The instruments exceed the minimum requirement of the assessments for the convergent validity, discriminant validity, reliability and collinearity. The findings suggest that the proposed 39 items are valid and reliable for measuring the persuasiveness of visual persuasion.

Keywords: reliability test, validity test; visual persuasion measures, PLS-SEM

1.0 Introduction

A number of researchers proposed that visual design on an interface have certain impact on users' motivation to stay longer on a website which consequently improves user experience (e.g Hao, Tang, Yu, Li, & Law, 2015; Chu, Deng, & Chuang, 2014; Cyr, 2013; Horvath, 2011; Winn & Beck, 2002). User Experience (UX) is defined by three main characteristics; 1) involves a user, 2) the user is interacting with a product, system, or anything with a User Interface (UI), and 3) the user's experience is of interest, and observable or measurable (Albert & Tullis, 2013). A research on UX can be considered if behaviour or potential behaviour is expected to take place. Previous studies investigating UX have assessed variety of

factors e.g. performance, usability, and satisfaction; which also includes specific factors e.g. credibility, engagement and visual aesthetic (Albert & Tullis, 2013).

This research examines the association between user's perception of web design characteristics and behavioural intention of persuasive visual design. The research extends the model of first impression formation toward tourism destination websites by Kim & Fesenmaier (2008). In the model, informativeness and usability are labelled as the hygiene (essential) factors, and persuasive features namely credibility, inspiration (visual appeal/aesthetic), involvement (or engagement), and reciprocity represent the motivating factors. The result of this study shows that only inspiration, usability, and credibility are significant in first impression formation. It is inspected that the cause of declining factors are resulted from their research design as they used an animated clip of webpage screenshots, and the participants of the study merely viewed the clips instead of browsing the identical webpage. Moreover, Kim & Fesenmaier (2008) work is specific for instant first impression formation with the display time span for the webpage was set to 7 seconds each. This research takes a different research design approach in which an actual web environment setting is used for the experiment. Furthermore, instead of using existing tourism websites, the web samples are personally developed to enable A/B testing method (see section 2.0 Research Design and Method). As such, investigation is more specific towards pointing out which visual persuasion has positive influence on users; thus reducing the potential of persuasion clutter. Besides, in this research, first impression is defined as the event when a user first encounters a new website, and forms a mental image of that website. Users are free to browse the website as long as they like to encourage actual surfing behaviour. In this research, users generally take about 2 minutes surfing the website (data is taken from Google Analytic).

The research conceptual model includes the web design characteristic's dimensions i.e. credibility, engagement, informativeness, satisfaction, usability, and visual aesthetic. The new model includes the social influence principles by Cialdini (2007) as an additional value to the motivating factors in the model. In the model, social influence is defined as a second-order variable; a latent variable whose indicators are themselves latent variables. The indicators of social influence are authority, commitment, liking, reciprocity, scarcity, and social proof (Cialdini, 2007). This research adapts existing measures from the web design evaluation metrics, and develops new measures for assessing the social influence specific. This is due to the fact that the existing measures of UX are suitable for a comprehensive evaluation of a UI. However, this research specifically measures users' perception of visual persuasion; focusing on the impact of certain visual (pictorial cues or textual messages) on users' motivation and behavioural intention. Moreover, users' perception is recorded based on the users' first impression of the visual design. As such, users may observe differently compared to the common web assessment.

The paper aims to evaluate the reliability and validity of the instruments used in the research by conducting the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). EFA explores and examines the inter-correlations that exist between a pool of items and in doing so, reduces the items into smaller groups, also known as the dimensions or factors (Hooper, 2012). On the other hand, CFA verifies the factor structure of a set of variables. The measures are tested during an online experimental design where participants are required to evaluate a tourism website.

2.0 Research Design and Method

2.1 Participants
Facebook users of the age 18 or older participate in the web survey. Participants are recruited through an advertisement on Facebook. Participants are also encouraged to invite their Facebook friends to participate in the research. Thus, the survey is non-representative, and relies heavily on volunteers who hear about it through Facebook's News Feed.

2.2 Procedures
Once the users click on the URL to participate in the survey, they are taken to the survey website. Participants read the information and participating conditions, and give their consent. They need to fill up the demographic section first before being taken to the next page to evaluate the website. The survey employs an A/B test method, a common type of live-site study in which the researchers manipulate elements of the page that are presented to the users (Albert & Tullis, 2013). This method involves an online experiment in which the participants are required to evaluate a website, which is randomly assigned. In this experiment, the non-persuasive website represents the control design and the persuasive website represents the treatment design. The A/B test helps to identify which web sample increases favourable users' perception

of the website and gives significant insight into which visual elements 'work' and which 'do not work' on the website (Albert & Tullis, 2013). After browsing the website, the participants return to the survey to answer the questionnaire.

2.3 Instruments

Initially 61 items of 12 latent/independent variables and 4 items of 1 observed/dependent variable go through a pilot test by 2 field experts, 5 novice users, and 3 postgraduate students. The objectives of the test are to check the content and to identify suitable items that are specific for evaluating visual interface. As a result, instruments related to measuring visual design are short listed and 20 new items are included. Then the instruments are checked and approved by Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval 2013/155). Another pilot test on the actual online environment is carried out to identify any problems with the questionnaire in terms of their clarity and to investigate the ability of potential respondent to understand the items. At the same time, any functionality issues and possible errors or bugs with the web samples can be identified. 30 individuals are invited via Facebook, but only 10 participants responded. Repeated measures approach is used in the pilot test and users evaluated both websites, in which the order is randomly assigned. Thus, the time period needed to complete the questionnaire is estimated. Each website is evaluated with the same set of questionnaire. Although each website design is different in terms of the visual design used, it is estimated that participants will be able to understand the items if they have more than one year of Internet and web experience. This is due to the reason that the social influence principles were long applied in the online marketing's websites. Comments or suggestions from the respondents are also recorded.

Modifications are made based on the feedback received from the pilot test. Several questions are deleted, or included some examples. To shorten the time needed for the survey completion, the random assignment approach is used instead of repeated measures. Thus, each participant evaluates only one website; adopting the method used by Tang (2009). In the end, 48 items remain in the list. UX is assessed by 24 items adapted from various authors. Another 6 latent variables representing the principles of social influence are measured using 2 adapted items and 18 newly developed items. The 44 psychometric items representing 12 latent variables are administered for the reliability and validity test with EFA. Another four indicators of 1 observed variable are validated with CFA as the items are well established through previous studies and no longer need to be explored.

3.0 Validity and Reliability Tests

While the data collection stage is still ongoing, some completed responses are retrieved from the online database server to test the validity of the instruments using EFA. This due to the fact that even though most instruments used in the study are adapted from previous work and have been tested, however as the items are used in a new meaning in this research, and that some of the items are revised, the items are re-examined to ensure the quality of the findings and conclusion of this research. Cronbach's alpha is used to measure if the items reliably measure the same latent variable.

Data is cleaned before conducting further analysis. Standard deviation is calculated using the function tools available in excel. Cases with standard deviation of below 0.7 which represent unengaged responses on a seven-point scale are eliminated (Gaskin, 2012a). In this research, unengaged responses refers to suspicious response pattern such as when respondent marks the same response for several group of items e.g. 55555 44444 6666. Then the data is imported into the IBM SPSS 19 software. Following the suggestion in Sekaran & Bougie (2010), incomplete responses with missing data of more than 25% are deleted. Negative items are reverse-coded and missing data is replaced with the median of nearby points. The median of nearby points method is used for data replacement because the data of the surveyis in the form of discrete number. In this case, the mean is irrelevant to be used as replacement value as the mean may be a decimal number. Finally, cases with high risk outliers are identified and removed. In the end, a total of 212 usable cases are identified which consisted of 84 responses in the non-persuasive sample, and 128 responses in the persuasive sample. Sample size exceeds the minimum of 100 participants and minimum ratio of 5 participants per item (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009). Normality check using Shapiro-Wilk statistics shows that the data distribution for each item is not normally distributed.

3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Initially, the factorability of the 44 items is examined. The criteria for the factorability of a correlation recommended in Hooper (2012) is used (please refer Table 1). Firstly, all of the 44 items correlate at more than 0.3 with at least one other item,

suggesting reasonable factorability. Secondly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of overall sampling adequacy is equal to 0.905, well above the recommended value of 0.5, and Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant with the p value of < 0.05 (Hair et al., 2009). The communality for each item is set to be above 0.4 (Leimeister, 2010) to confirm that each item shares some common variance with other items. First round of the analysis meets the minimum requirement of items correlation, KMO, and Bartlett's test of sphericity. However, four items show communalities below 0.4. Thus, the four items are deleted one by one, and the factor analysis is repeated each time. With 40 items remaining in the list, the new factor analysis shows stronger results with KMO of 0.906 and communalities range between 0.470 - 0.830.

The next decision relates to the number of factors to be retained. As the data distribution is significantly not normal, Principle Axis Factoring (PAF) is preferred as the extraction method. PAF is recommended by Costello & Osborne (2005) to bring the best results for non-normal data. To determine the number of factors, two methods are considered; 1) eigen one rule or Kaiser-Guttman, and 2) scree plot graph of the eigenvalues. A predetermine level of cumulative variance is set to a minimum of 60% representing the satisfactory percentage of variance criterion in social sciences (Hair et al., 2009). It is known that orthogonal rotations produced factors that are uncorrelated and resulted in a loss of valuable information if the factors are actually correlated (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Thus, an oblique rotation is preferred for the rotation method as in the social sciences some correlation among factors is expected (Kock, 2015b). Contrarily, In IBM SPSS 19, direct oblimin and promax are the available oblique rotation. In this research, promax rotation with the default Kappa (4) is used.

Nine factors emerge with eigenvalues greater than 1, explaining 66.943% of the total variance. The result shows that 66.943% of the common variance shared by the 40 items can be accounted for by nine factors. The scree plot graph also shows that the last significant break point in the graph shape above the 10th point. This also means that only 9 factors should be extracted as only factors above and excluding the break point should be retained (Hooper, 2012). When using oblique rotation, the pattern matrix is examined for factor/item loadings and the factor correlation matrix shows the correlation among factors. Small coefficients below 0.4 were suppressed so that results will be easier to interpret. An item with loading less than 0.4 (in the case of sample size, N = 212) on all factors indicates that the item is insignificant and should be deleted (Hair et al., 2009; Hooper, 2012). An observation is also made to inspect any sign of cross-loading in which an item with coefficients greater than 0.4 on more than one factor.

Convergent validity is evident with the factor loadings of 0.57 and above on each factor. Convergent validity means that the items within a single factor are highly correlated (Gaskin, 2012b). Two primary methods are used to determine discriminant validity, which is the extent to which factors are distinct and uncorrelated. The first method is to examine the pattern matrix. The rule was that the items should be related more strongly to their own factor than to another factor. If "cross-loadings" exist (items load on multiple factors), the cross-loadings should differ by more than 0.2 (Gaskin, 2012b). The pattern matrix shows that there is no significant discriminant validity issue as the result is free from significant cross-loadings. Secondly, the factor correlation matrix is examined. The factor correlation matrix shows no present of correlation greater than 0.7, which implied that each factor assesses a unique variable. It is noted that one credibility item does not load properly with the rest of the credibility instruments. Instead, the item loads on the visual aesthetic and engagement dimensions. This indicates a face validity issue in which the items that are not theoretically similar in nature, load together on the same factor (Gaskin, 2012b). Thus, the item is deleted from the list.

The factor labels are revised as several items of six proposed latent variables load on the same factors. The engagement and visual aesthetic items load significantly together. This may be due to the fact that the users' perception are made instantly based on their short impression of the visual design of the website, thus, neglecting the website interactivity. This new factor is labelled as 'visual engagement'. The items representing reciprocity and commitment also load together, and labelled as 'gratitude' (being thankful). In theory, reciprocity and commitment are about personal feelings of (1) being thankful and (2) being committed. This justified the reason of the items sharing the similar variance. Three items of authority, one item of social proof, and two items of liking significantly load together on another factor. The items of the new factor are all related to human figures, thus the factor is labelled as 'human persona'. Another two items of social proof are grouped separately and labelled as 'wisdom of crowds' as the items are related to testimonials or ratings from a large group of people. The 'visual engagement' factor is re-analysed with a separate EFA and the result shows that only one factor can be extracted. The factorability of the social influence related factors i.e. gratitude, human persona, wisdom of crowds, and scarcity is also repeated and the result produces the same set of factors as mentioned above. This indicates that the new factors are stable.

The wisdom of crowds and the satisfaction factors are represented by two items each, which is lower than the general requirement of 3 items per factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005). However, Hayduk & Littvay (2012) recommend the use of

the few best items. They argue that one or two items are sufficient for latent variable to be included in a structural equation model. Furthermore, this research is the extension of an existing structural theory and the proposed model will be further analysed using the Partial Least Squares - Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). PLS-SEM allows for fewer items (1 or 2) per factor. Thus, the two factors are retained in the research model.

In particular, nine dimensional factor structures for assessing visual persuasion are discovered. Factor analysis is repeated with 39 items. The result shows slightly lower KMO (0.901), yet communalities index is quite similar with the new range between 0.470 - 0.829. As any KMO of above 0.9 is marvellous, 39 items are finalised as the instruments to be further examined with CFA. Internal consistency for each factor is examined using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas are moderate and well above the lower limit of 0.70 and none of the item shows increases in alpha if the item is deleted. Corrected item-total correlations are well above 0.5, and all inter item correlations exceed 0.3; meeting the minimum requirement in Joseph F Hair et al. (2009). Table 1 shows the EFA's assessment criteria and Table 2 shows the result of EFA and Cronbach's alpha. The finalised instruments of this research are shown in Table 3.

3.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

When a satisfactory number of responses required by the research are achieved, the raw data are downloaded from the Survey Monkey server in Microsoft Excel format. Complying with the ethic's consideration, data from the web server is deleted once it is secured in a password-protected computer. Data cleaning is carried out, resulted to 290 usable cases in which 181 responses are from the persuasive sample group. The 39 items retrieved from the EFA section, and four items of an observed variable that represent the behavioural intention dimension, are re-examined with CFA. The behavioural intention dimension includes three items that measure the intention to use, to purchase, and to recommend, and one item to measure the attitude towards the destination. In this section, the factors obtained from EFA are referred as the latent variables, whereas the term indicator is used to refer to the survey item.

CFA is conducted in conjunction with PLS-SEM analysis using the software called WarpPLS version 5.0. WarpPLS software provides the users with features of which are not available from other SEM software (Kock, 2015b). The software is the first to explicitly identify nonlinear functions connecting pairs of latent variables in SEM models and calculate multivariate coefficients of association accordingly. It is also the first software to provide classic PLS algorithms together with factor-based PLS algorithms for SEM (Kock, 2014). Factor-based PLS algorithms generated estimates of both true composites and factors, fully accounting for measurement error. Original PLS design based its model estimation only on the composites; the linear combinations of indicators (Kock, 2014). Composite based do not take measurement error into consideration. With composite based the path coefficient tends to be weaker, thus leads to biased model parameter estimates particularly on the path coefficients and loadings (Kock, 2015a). On the other hand, factor-based incorporates measurement errors. Factor scores also accounted nonlinearity and estimate best-fitting nonlinear functions which lead to stable and reliable path coefficients. Moreover, factor-based PLS algorithms combine the precision of covariance-based SEM algorithms under common factor model assumptions with the nonparametric characteristics of classic PLS algorithms (Kock, 2014). These advantages enable the data from this research to be analysed as the data distribution is not normal, whereas normality is a major requirement for CB-SEM software.

There are five main steps to be taken to analyse data with the software (Kock, 2010). Firstly, a project file is created. Then, the raw data is imported into the software. Data imported into WarpPLS automatically go through data pre-processing. The software checks and corrects missing values, zero variance problem, identical columns (also known as the indicators) names, and rank problems. The data are also standardised in step three. Standardised data columns have means that equal zero and standard deviations that equal one (Kock, 2010). As the pre-process are automatically carried out, it is crucial to correct missing values prior to importing the data into WarpPLS so that the percentage of corrected missing values do not exceed 25% as recommended by Sekaran & Bougie (2010). The data used in this research do not appear to have the respective above mentioned problem.

In step four, five reflective latent variables, one formative latent variable, and one observed variables are defined in the SEM model. All the variables namely informativeness, usability, credibility, satisfaction, visual engagement, and behavioural intention are assigned with four, three, three, two, eight, and four indicators, respectively. The indicators of reflective latent variables are expected to be highly correlated with the latent variable score. The social influence latent variable is defined as the formative latent variable. In the model, social influence is a second-order latent variable in which the indicators are

made of other latent variables; i.e. gratitude, human persona, wisdom of crowds, and scarcity. Thus the indicators of social influence variable are expected to measure certain attribute of social influence, but they are not expected to be correlated among themselves. A direct link connects each latent variable to the observed variable. In this software, the variables are called as the outer model whereas the model links are referred as the inner model. WarpPLS estimates collinearity, measurement error and composite weights before the SEM analysis is executed in step five. If any of the above mentioned assessments appears to be too high, users are warned about possible unreliability of the results. In the current research, none of the issues arise. Based on the analysis with WarpPLS, the validity and reliability of the measurement scales are assessed in two stages: 1) evaluation of first-order latent constructs, and 2) evaluation of second-order latent constructs.

3.2.1 First-order latent variables' evaluation

Several criteria are being considered during the assessments as shown in Table 4. For reflective constructs, the combined loadings and cross-loadings provided by WarpPLS software are used to describe the convergent validity of the measurement scales. Convergent validity can be obtained if the instruments are understood by the respondents in the same way as they are intended by the researchers (Kock, 2015b). In this respect, two criteria are assessed: 1) the p values associated with the loadings must be equal to or lower than 0.05 (Kock, 2015b), 2) the loadings must be equal to or greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2009). As shown in Table 5, the p values for all indicators are lower than 0.05, and the loadings for the indicators of each latent variable are well above 0.5. No significant cross-loading is found, indicating acceptable convergent validity.

Following the recommendation in Kock (2015b), measurement reliability is assessed with Cronbach's alpha coefficient, and Dillon–Goldstein rho coefficient (DG's rho), also known as the composite reliability coefficient (Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, & Lauro, 2005). The average variances extracted (AVEs), and the square-root of AVEs are used to assess discriminant validity, and full collinearity variance inflation factors (VIFs) is used to assess the overall collinearity. Based on Table 6, all the first-order latent variables exceed all the minimum requirement of reliability, collinearity, and part of discriminant validity with the Cronbach's alpha and DG's rho coefficients of above 0.7, VIFs of less than 3.3, and AVEs of above 0.5, respectively. However, the square root of AVEs for gratitude is slightly lower than the correlation of the variable with the behavioural intent variable. For each latent variable, the square root of the average variance extracted should be higher than any of the correlations involving that latent variable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In the actual research model, gratitude serves as an indicator to the social influence variable; a formative second-order latent variable. It is noted that formative latent variable is the most likely to lead to discriminant validity problems (Kock, 2015b). As a second-order variable's indicator, gratitude is not expected to directly correlate with the intent variable. Therefore, the variable is retained as the second-order variable will be evaluated separately on the next section.

3.2.2 Second-order latent variable's evaluation

The social influence variable is a formative second-order latent variable. The evaluation of second-order latent variable is conducted based on the approach used by Schmiedel, vom Brocke, & Recker (2014). Three criteria are assessed: 1) p values and variance inflation factors (VIF) associated with indicator weights, 2) adequacy coefficient (R^2_a), and 3) conceptual redundancy. The p values of indicator weights are the indication that the formative latent variable measurement items are properly constructed. In this research, all p values meet the desirable requirement for formative indicators of lower than 0.05 (Kock, 2011). The strength of the relationship between the first-order and the second-order variables are assessed with the adequacy coefficient (R^2_a). R^2_a is calculated by summing the squared correlations (R^2) between the variable and its indicators and dividing by the number of indicators (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011). In this case, the value of R^2_a for social influence is 0.553 which is greater than the cut off value of 0.50. This indicated that on average, a majority of the variance in the indicators is shared with the construct. In formative latent variables, indicators are expected to measure different facets of the same construct, which means that they should not be redundant. VIF are used for redundancy assessment. VIFs below 2.5 are desirable for formative indicators (Kock, 2011); which is met by all indicators of the research. The assessment for the second-order latent variables is shown in Table 7.

3.2.3 General assessment

A negative weight-loading sign (WLS) of an indicator suggests the existence of a Simpson's paradox instance (Pearl, 2009; Wagner, 1982) in the outer model. A Simpson's paradox instance indicates a causality problem. It is recommended that all indicators' WLS values be positive, for both formative and reflective latent variables. In this case, all WLS values are equal to one, which is a positive value. The indicator's effect sizes (ES) shows the extent of contribution it had on the R^2 coefficients of the latent variable to which each indicator is associated with. The indicator effects are small, medium, or large with the usual recommended value of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35; respectively (Cohen, 1988). Values below 0.02 suggesting effects that is too weak to be considered relevant, even when the corresponding p values are statistically significant. It is recommended that all indicator effect sizes be equal to or greater than 0.02, for both formative and reflective latent variables (Kock, 2015b). In this case, the indicators had the minimum effect size of 0.094, well above recommended value. Based on the result of the CFA, all measurement scales used in this research are appropriate to be used for further PLS-SEM analyses.

4.0 Conclusion

This paper demonstrates the EFA and CFA to assess the validity and reliability of the research instruments. In particular, nine dimensional factor structures for assessing visual persuasion are discovered. The result shows that participants perceived differently between a general web evaluation and the evaluation specifically based on visual design. This implies that users' perception varies according to evaluation goals. This also means that the social influence principles by Cialdini (2007) can be applied to online persuasion, specifically to online visual persuasion. However, the variation of data shows that the pattern of the data relies heavily on the visual elements used in the study and may be different from the existing theory. For example, even though the instruments representing the authority, liking, and social proof principles are theoretically separated, yet the items that relate to human figures tend to load on one factor, while other textual or symbol cues tend to load on another factor. The findings suggest that the proposed 39 items are valid and reliable for measuring the persuasiveness of visual persuasion.

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Table 1. Instruments assessment's guide for EFA

Criterion	Note	Reference
Inter items correlation	> 0.3 with at least one other item	Hooper (2012), Joseph F Hair et al. (2009)
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)	> 0.5	
Bartlett's test of sphericity	p < 0.05	
Communalities	> 0.4	Leimeister (2010)
Cumulative variance	> 60%	Joseph F Hair et al. (2009)
Factor loading	> 0.4 (sample size > 200)	
Cross-loading	< 0.4	
	significant cross-loadings should differ by more than 0.2	Gaskin (2012b)

Factor correlation matrix	< 0.7	
Cronbach's alpha	> 0.7	Joseph F Hair et al. (2009)
Corrected item-total correlations	> 0.5	

Table 2. Factor Loadings Based On A Principle Axis Factoring With Promax Rotation, and Cronbach's Alpha for 39 Items (N = 212)

Pattern Matrix				Cronbach's Alpha
Proposed Factors	New Factors	Item code	loadings	
Informativeness		Info1	0.672	0.869
		Info2	0.76	
		Info3	0.803	
		Info4	0.748	
Usability		Use1	0.961	0.835
		Use2	0.886	
		Use3	0.736	
Visual Aesthetic	Visual engagement	VisEng1	0.7	0.938
		VisEng2	0.787	
		VisEng3	0.611	
Engagement		VisEng4	0.466	
		VisEng5	0.745	
		VisEng6	0.764	
		VisEng7	0.844	
		VisEng8	0.898	
Credibility		Credib1	0.609	0.715
		Credib2	0.786	
		Credib3	0.695	
Satisfaction		Satisfy1	0.893	0.862
		Satisfy2	0.873	
Reciprocity	Gratitude	Gratit1	0.792	0.897
		Gratit2	0.855	
		Gratit3	0.726	
Commitment		Gratit4	0.712	
		Gratit5	0.608	
		Gratit6	0.649	
		Gratit7	0.638	
Liking	Persona	Person1	0.93	0.889
		Person2	0.722	
Authority		Person3	0.84	
		Person4	0.727	
		Person5	0.75	
		Person6	0.775	
Social Proof	Crowds	Crowd1	0.817	0.928
		Crowd2	0.796	
Scarcity		Scarce1	0.596	0.833
		Scarce2	0.516	
		Scarce3	0.94	
		Scarce4	0.89	

Table 3. Finalised Survey's Instruments

Factors	Label	Web Design Instruments	Adopted/adapted/newly constructed	Note
Informativeness	Info1	The information on this website is sufficient.	WebMAC Business (Small & Arnone, 1998)	
	Info2	The information on this website is useful.	Tang (2009)	

	Info3	The information on this website appears to be relevant and up-to-date.	WebMAC Business (Small & Arnone, 1998)	
	Info4	The travel information on this website appears to be accurate.		
Usability	Use1	This website is easy to use.	USE as in Albert & Tullis (2013)	
	Use2	I quickly familiarise myself with this website.		
	Use3	This website makes it easy to go back and forth between pages.	Tang (2009)	
Visual engagement	VisEng1	This website has an attractive appearance.	WebMAC Business (Small & Arnone, 1998)	
	VisEng2	This website has good use of colour and layout.	WebMAC Professional (Small & Arnone, 2000)	
	VisEng3	The content in this website is well designed.	WebMAC Business (Small & Arnone, 1998)	
	VisEng4	The varieties of visuals (e.g. text, images, animation etc.) help to maintain attention.		
	VisEng5	The visuals included in this website enhance the presentation of the travel information.		
	VisEng6	This website provides opportunities for interactivity.		
	VisEng7	This website stimulates curiosity and exploration	WebMAC Professional (Small & Arnone, 2000)	
	VisEng8	The main page (i.e. the first webpage) of this website is interesting enough to continue browsing further.	WebMAC Business (Small & Arnone, 1998)	
Credibility	Credib1	I think that this website has sufficient expertise in providing travel information and services.	Cugelman, Thelwall, & Dawes (2009)	
	Credib2	I think some of the information in this website seems suspicious (e.g. misleading, fictitious, or made-up information).		Reverse-coded
	Credib3	I need to verify some of the information (e.g. with friends or travel agents) before I can put my trust to this website.	WebMAC Business (Small & Arnone, 1998)	Reverse-coded
Satisfaction	Satisfy1	This website quickly loads all the text and graphics.		
	Satisfy2	In overall, I am satisfied with this website.	USE as in Albert & Tullis (2013)	
Gratitude	Gratit1	I want to give reviews about my past travel experiences on this website.	Newly constructed	
	Gratit2	I want to register as a member of this website.	Kim (2008)	
	Gratit3	I want to receive special offers from this website. So, I will provide my address or contact number if asked by this website.	Kim (2008)	
	Gratit4	I will provide my friends' addresses if asked by this website.	Newly constructed	
	Gratit5	I want to search for travel destinations, flights, and hotels information on this website.		
	Gratit6	I am tempted to click on the result links from my searching activities on this website.		
	Gratit7	I will visit other related websites that are recommended by this website (e.g. via image or web link).		
Persona	Person1	I will like the website more if I see some pictures of other people that share something similar with me on the website (e.g. picture of hikers - if you like adventurous activity).		
	Person2	I will like the website more if I see some pictures		

		of friendly persons on the website.		
	Person3	I will trust the website more if there are some pictures of celebrities on the website.		
	Person4	I will trust the reviews that come from celebrities.		
	Person5	I will trust the information that come from an authoritative person (e.g. flight's staff, chef, representative of local Tourism Ministry etc.).		
	Person6	I will like the website more if I see familiar faces on the website (e.g. friends, or friends of friends).		
Crowds	Crowd1	I will trust the reviews (positive or negative) from other travellers on the website.		
	Crowd2	I will trust the information more if I see other people paid attention to it as well (e.g. number of 'likes' at a Like button).		
Scarcity	Scarce1	I think that price is one of the most important information in a travel website.		
	Scarce2	I think that discount highlight is also important for a travel website.		
	Scarce3	I think that I will act fast to purchase a travel package if I see the 'Limited Offer' or 'Ending Soon' sign on the advertisement.		
	Scarce4	I believe that I will be missing out on some good deals if I fail to act quickly with my purchasing.		

Table 4. First-order assessment's guide for WarpPLS

Assessment	Criterion	Note	Reference
Convergent validity	Individual item standardised loading on parent factor	Min. of 0.50	Hair et al. (2009)
	Loadings with significant p value	< 0.05	Kock (2015)
Reliability	Cronbach's alpha	> 0.70	Hair et al. (2009)
	Composite reliability	> 0.70	
Discriminant validity	Square-root of AVE	More than the correlations of the latent variables	
	Average variance extracted (AVE)	> 0.50	
Collinearity	Variance Inflation Factor (VIF)	< 3.3	Kock (2015)

Table 5. First-Order Latent Variables Loadings, Cross-Loadings, and Cronbach's alpha

	Intent	Usability	Informative	Engage	Satisfy	Credibility	Gratitude	Crowd	Scarce	Persona	P value
Intent1	**0.893**	0.053	-0.018	0.003	0.057	-0.062	0.132	-0.056	0.061	-0.053	<0.001
Intent2	**0.880**	-0.004	0.004	-0.084	-0.097	0.047	0.146	0.073	0.019	-0.005	<0.001
Intent3	**0.917**	-0.012	-0.046	0.085	-0.049	-0.032	-0.025	-0.062	-0.053	0.031	<0.001
Intent4	**0.845**	-0.038	0.065	-0.007	0.094	0.051	-0.264	0.049	-0.027	0.028	<0.001
Use1	0.181	**0.809**	-0.025	0.006	-0.116	-0.213	-0.189	-0.003	0.02	-0.051	<0.001
Use2	-0.064	**0.879**	0.091	0.051	0.015	0.081	0.101	-0.011	-0.092	-0.026	<0.001
Use3	-0.11	**0.825**	-0.072	-0.06	0.098	0.123	0.078	0.015	0.079	0.078	<0.001
Info1	-0.065	0.071	**0.793**	-0.009	0.126	0.046	-0.063	0.028	0.152	0.002	<0.001
Info2	-0.213	0.111	**0.828**	0.117	0.053	-0.039	-0.108	0.158	0.093	0.054	<0.001
Info3	0.068	-0.061	**0.838**	-0.034	-0.132	-0.1	0.067	-0.057	-0.116	0.006	<0.001
Info4	0.21	-0.119	**0.813**	-0.076	-0.041	0.097	0.103	-0.129	-0.124	-0.064	<0.001
VisEng1	0.224	-0.061	0.144	**0.826**	-0.023	0.009	-0.023	0.003	-0.121	-0.148	<0.001
VisEng2	0.013	-0.024	-0.202	**0.798**	0.091	-0.042	0.023	0.076	-0.103	-0.102	<0.001
VisEng3	0.033	0.077	0.084	**0.731**	0.028	-0.008	-0.144	0.045	-0.168	0.141	<0.001
VisEng1	0.27	0.006	0.224	**0.714**	0.086	-0.069	-0.11	-0.215	0.042	0.1	<0.001
VisEng2	-0.26	0.148	0.069	**0.805**	-0.031	0.118	0.008	0.084	0.181	0.001	<0.001
VisEng3	-0.261	0.062	-0.151	**0.767**	-0.024	0.122	0.078	0.091	-0.029	0.092	<0.001
VisEng4	-0.268	-0.115	-0.13	**0.797**	-0.066	-0.114	0.239	0.078	0.131	0.014	<0.001
VisEng5	0.249	-0.077	-0.018	**0.849**	-0.045	-0.02	-0.085	-0.168	0.055	-0.063	<0.001
Satisfy1	0.025	-0.027	0.031	-0.119	**0.898**	-0.029	-0.038	0.032	-0.009	0.069	<0.001
Satisfy2	-0.025	0.027	-0.031	0.119	**0.898**	0.029	0.038	-0.032	0.009	-0.069	<0.001
Credib1	0.016	0.046	0.153	0.217	-0.045	**0.743**	0.088	0.005	0.11	-0.058	<0.001
Credib2	-0.012	0.016	-0.061	-0.082	-0.084	**0.861**	-0.119	-0.049	0.065	0.148	<0.001
Credib3	-0.002	-0.059	-0.074	-0.111	0.13	**0.818**	0.046	0.047	-0.168	-0.103	<0.001
Gratit1	-0.256	-0.123	-0.042	0.072	-0.003	-0.006	**0.712**	0.222	-0.122	-0.002	<0.001
Gratit2	0.162	-0.168	-0.007	0.144	-0.101	-0.033	**0.817**	-0.005	-0.178	0.02	<0.001
Gratit3	0.192	-0.055	-0.001	-0.107	-0.142	0.166	**0.705**	-0.061	-0.162	-0.085	<0.001
Gratit4	0.175	-0.256	-0.2	0.117	0.006	0.185	**0.655**	-0.075	-0.217	-0.038	<0.001
Gratit5	-0.205	0.243	0.087	-0.064	0.125	-0.03	**0.747**	-0.075	0.229	0.093	<0.001
Gratit6	-0.064	0.243	-0.017	0.09	0.063	-0.067	**0.778**	0.009	0.165	-0.034	<0.001
Gratit7	0.005	0.084	0.16	-0.266	0.053	-0.182	**0.720**	-0.018	0.262	0.037	<0.001
Crowd1	-0.013	-0.003	0.023	-0.031	0.049	-0.016	0.055	**0.951**	-0.039	0.05	<0.001
Crowd2	0.013	0.003	-0.023	0.031	-0.049	0.016	-0.055	**0.951**	0.039	-0.05	<0.001
Scarce1	-0.38	0.094	0.182	0.039	0.054	-0.01	0.019	-0.061	**0.782**	0.141	<0.001
Scarce2	-0.138	0.159	0.081	0.03	0.034	0.054	-0.135	-0.102	**0.821**	0.058	<0.001
Scarce3	0.197	-0.165	-0.13	-0.07	-0.002	-0.053	0.099	0.07	**0.755**	-0.126	<0.001
Scarce4	0.365	-0.11	-0.154	-0.004	-0.095	0.005	0.03	0.11	**0.718**	-0.087	<0.001
Person1	-0.075	-0.061	-0.016	0.05	0.129	0.076	-0.066	0.122	0.12	**0.806**	<0.001
Person2	0.094	0.05	-0.003	-0.142	0.027	0.221	-0.082	0.19	0.008	**0.763**	<0.001
Person3	-0.123	0.066	0.017	0.097	-0.025	-0.129	-0.008	-0.323	-0.012	**0.727**	<0.001
Person4	-0.122	0.071	-0.076	0.016	-0.082	-0.159	0.26	-0.256	-0.055	**0.710**	<0.001
Person5	0.003	0.055	-0.074	-0.111	0.057	-0.012	-0.055	0.335	-0.045	**0.711**	<0.001
Person6	0.245	-0.19	0.162	0.097	-0.132	-0.023	-0.035	-0.097	-0.033	**0.668**	<0.001

Table 6. Assessment of First-Order Latent Variables

	Intent	Usability	Informative	Engage	Satisfy	Credibility	Gratitude	Crowd	Scarce	Persona
Cronbach's α	0.907	0.788	0.835	0.912	0.761	0.733	0.857	0.895	0.770	0.826
DG's rho	0.935	0.876	0.890	0.928	0.893	0.850	0.891	0.950	0.853	0.874
Intent	0.884									
Usability	0.323	0.838								
Informative	0.468	0.423	0.818							
Engage	0.716	0.459	0.635	0.787						

Satisfy	0.360	0.265	0.402	0.513	0.898				
Credibility	0.394	0.265	0.279	0.339	0.159	0.809			
Gratitude	0.750	0.434	0.512	0.694	0.328	0.380	0.735		
Crowd	0.392	0.100	0.254	0.325	0.179	0.179	0.309	0.951	
Scarce	0.439	0.293	0.471	0.472	0.227	0.244	0.478	0.160	0.770
Persona	0.417	0.222	0.277	0.382	0.174	0.265	0.404	0.346	0.397	0.732
AVEs	0.782	0.703	0.669	0.619	0.807	0.654	0.540	0.905	0.593	0.536
VIFs	3.007	1.394	1.901	3.269	1.385	1.241	2.832	1.268	1.539	1.400

Table 7. Assessment of Second-Order Variables

	Social Influence	Type	SE	P value	VIF	WLS	ES	R	R^2	R^2_a
*lv_Gratitude	0.480	Formative	0.067	<0.001	1.897	1	0.418	0.871	0.759	
*lv_Persona	0.260	Formative	0.071	<0.001	1.973	1	0.206	0.793	0.629	0.553
*lv_Crowds	0.242	Formative	0.071	<0.001	1.381	1	0.134	0.553	0.306	
*lv_Scarcity	0.268	Formative	0.07	<0.001	1.817	1	0.193	0.72	0.518	

 *latent variable indicators

SE: standard error, VIF: variance inflation factors (), WLS: weight-loading signs, ES: effect size, R: correlation coefficient, R^2: squared correlation coefficient, R^2_a: adequacy coefficient

Development of Social Security in the Czech Republic in the Context of Current International Treaties

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Abstract

The aim of the paper is to evaluate the state-of-play of social security with a focus on pension insurance in the Czech Republic and this due to the potential use of international agreements with individual countries of the European region. The contracts are divided in terms of whether the state is a part of the European Union, or remains outside that integration. The use of international agreements in the field of social security currently appears to be important for a number of reasons such as tourism, openness of the labour market, economic dependence on international trade and various kinds of migration. The issue is covered by interdisciplinary studies, where the knowledge of the humanities and economic fields mingles. Overall, the work provides a comprehensive overview of international agreements in the territory of the Czech Republic, not only in the period of the capitalism, but also captures the recent history, the period from the 1960s up to now, when the Czech Republic used to be a part of the socialist bloc, At that time most important become agreements and contracts with the former USSR.

Keywords: international agreements on social security, documents, papers, pension insurance, economic and social area of a state, benefits/allowances in the international insurance

1. Introduction

Given the fact that the Czech Republic used to be for many years part of other government departments and different political establishments, its social system was affected by that situation. The development of social insurance in our country since the beginning of the last century up to the present is the one of the goals of this article, another partial goal is the establishment of international agreements on social security that affect the Czech Republic.

Today, almost all countries of the European region modernize and reform their social security system, while the largest reform recently took place mainly in the field of pension and retirement systems. The reason for that is the increase in average life expectancy and the growth of the post-productive age group of the population at the expense of people of the working age. Any reform is a process of long-term nature, where the depth of changes varies from country to country and is influenced by social values and system costs. Individual differences result from historical development and the embedment of the individual systems.

Davidová (2013) works with the fact that „Pension schemes are influenced by historical traditions and social factors of the countries concerned, which translates into a great variety of different systems. The most advanced countries then undertake changes of their pension systems very carefully and rather significant changes appear in the new EU countries."

The overall system of social security is defined in developmental studies and treaties such as the Paris and the Rome Treaty. Among basic pillars of social policy also belongs the Treaty of Nice, which made the Union capable of helping new

candidate countries effectively. The level of development as well as the social situation in the European Union is constantly building up and the EU is trying to adapt flexibly to current problems.

2. Social security law in the Czech Republic

Since May 1, 2004 the Czech Republic has been a Member State of the European Union and one of the fundamental principles of the EU social system is a free movement of people which means a right of each EU citizen to move freely. For this reason, the migration in some way increased together with the obligation of Member States to treat migrant citizens of the European Union so as not to limit their ability to work within this area.

A basic purpose of this regulation is to ensure that the migrant employed in multiple states does not lose his entitlement to social benefits because of another citizenship or a permanent residence.

Regulations of the European Community are restricted to the coordination of existing national social systems, without interfering in their deeper nature. Similar procedures and regulations were in the form of multilateral international conventions adopted also within other organizations such as the Council of Europe or in the International Labour Organisation. Provided, that sometimes the provisions are based only on some fundamental coordination principles which are very similar in terms of the content. The regulations of the European Union are characterized by their direct applicability and a priority application compared to other regulations across the entire EU.

The provisions of the European Communities on social security concern all the Member States and at the same time they are binding for each state on its national level. They cover:

- pre-retirement benefits,
- benefits subject to accidents at work and occupational diseases,
- family benefits,
- sickness benefits,
- benefits subject to disability,
- maternity and equivalent paternity benefits,
- inheritance benefits,
- age benefits,
- funeral allowances,
- unemployment benefits.

According to the Department of the European Union and International Cooperation MLSA (2009) it pays that despite some successes in unifying the conditions contained in the various national social security systems their full harmonization has been and still is a question of a distant future. However, their mutual interconnection, and in this case we are talking about coordination, has become a reality, the origins of which date back many decades ago. The initial coordination between the two states on the basis of individual bilateral agreements was soon added and promoted by multilateral coordination among several countries which reached its summit on the European continent within the Framework of the European Union.

Shall a coordination mechanism apply in a given country of the European Union; the regulation represents a crucial issue for decision making. For this reason, the protection stemming from regulations apply to:

- stateless persons and refugees, if they live in EU Member State,
- citizens of a Member State of the European Union (i.e. The EEA and Switzerland),
- family members and surviving dependant of the above persons regardless of their nationality.

3. Development of social security system in the Czech Republic

The economic situation of the given period always had a major influence on the development of the social sector. The first transformation of the state occurred in the 19th century when a care for slum community was transferred to municipalities.

At the beginning of the 20th century, a so called pension's standard improvement for civil servants is introduced. Factory owners had only one goal and that was making employees dependent on the company and driving a wedge between officials and workers.

In the period after the first World War, with newly independent Czechoslovakia, social problems of that time were getting sharper. Many families lost their men as breadwinners, bad hygiene conditions lead to the spread of disease and depending huge unemployment and food shortages. Social policy sought to address that situation by a means of cash benefits for widows, orphans, by adapting working conditions and care for the unemployed. However, due to the economic crisis at the turn of the 1920s and 1930s, the payment of benefits got complicated.

In 1925 Gallas defined the social insurance system as a set of public facilities built on the principle of equivalence (balance) between revenues and expenditures, providing a legal entitlement to certain, mainly cash benefits and preventing an economic catastrophe.

In 1945, the Central Council of Trade Unions established a national pension and health insurance. This law, however, due to the post-war situation in the Czech Republic, came into force and began to implement only in 1948.

Due to the establishment of a new political system, in 1951 there was taken over a Soviet model, under which the Central National Insurance Company was cancelled, and the state took a care for payments. Its funding was realized from taxes. In this period, the most important law was the act on pension insurance of miners.

According to Vrba (1948), the oldest branch of the social insurance is mining insurance policy. Tough and dangerous work of miners demanded special protection against illness, disability, injury and death. Already in the early medieval mining orders we can find notes about brotherhood and fraternal offices.

In the totalitarian regime, the social system followed to a large extent the social system of the former USSR. In 1957 there was a reform of the system of national insurance. This law was based on the fact that the amount of benefit was derived from salary, length of service and a final factor to calculate the amount of benefits represented also the differentiation by occupational category. The law was modernized in the early 1970s, where the original regulation was complemented by support for families with dependent children.

The change of both the economic system and political ideology after 1989 led to a necessary transformation in the social system. From the ideological point of view during the time before 1989 social problems did not exist. After the onset of the capitalist economic system, great changes occurred in society, social certainties, demography as well as the economy.

In 1993 began the process of separating the financing of social insurance policy from the state budget via paying the insurance outside the tax system. However, insurance still remained the revenue of the state budget, which resulted in depletion of reserves for completely different purposes than for which they had been originally created. A separate account emerged only in 1996; however there was no excess on the insurance revenues any more.

Brejcha and Voříšek (1996) stated that by a security principle in retirement security is meant the application of such legal principles defining the scope of the security policy (of the system of benefits), when the substantive conditions of benefit claims and the method of financing, in which the definition of basic legal institutions depend on the mandatory criteria enshrined in law regulation.

In 2008 occurred the main innovation of the Pension Insurance Act of 1995, and this law came into effect in 2010. The amendment to the Act brought about a gradual increase in the retirement age to 65 years, an extension of the insurance period required for the entitlement to retirement pension from 25 to 35 years, the introduction of three-tiered disability and in terms of education there emerged a change when the duration of study obtained after December 31, 2009 will not count as an income replacement insurance period. There was also an increase in penalties for early retirement and the increase in the age limit for permanent entitlement to widow's or widower's pension.

Currently in the Czech Republic there is a share of 1.8 contributors to social insurance per one pensioner, and unless there will be any demographic and social changes by 2050 the number of contributors per pensioner will go down to the level of 1.2. Hence it follows that future generations will face lowering of the replacement rate or providing pension payments at a later age or a growth of the taxation of economically active generations. Owing to a huge redistribution between generations and people with different income levels, there is only a weak link between the amount of contributions paid and the amount

of pension paid. The current pension system is financed from the current yield premiums that people pay from their wages and entrepreneurs from their profits.

The pension system in the current legal regulation of the Czech Republic is financed from the current yield premiums. This notice applies to employees through their wages and entrepreneurs through their profit. Due to changes in the age structure of the population (the increase in the post-productive population at the expense of the productive one), there is only a weak link between the amount of the contributions paid and the amount of the pension paid.

One of the most important parts of social security in the current social policy is the pension scheme. In the Czech Republic it is divided into three basic parts:

- mandatory pension insurance,
- pension scheme with state contribution,
- retirement saving.

Mandatory pension insurance covers all economically active persons. These are so called state pensions and are defined in terms of the benefit and continuously funded. Since January 1, 2013 it is represented by the first pillar of the pension insurance. Against the previous period, there were several changes and the most important is that due to the gradually increasing life expectancy there will continue the increase in the retirement age of men at the current pace which is by about 2 months per year, even after the age of 65. The second factor is that it will accelerate the pace of increase in the retirement age for women with the year of birth in 1956 and later by six months (from the current four months) a year. The complete unification of the retirement age for men and women will take place in the year 2041.

A supplementary pension scheme with state contribution is funded through the contributions from the participants of this scheme and though creating savings via pension funds by December 31, 2012. Since January 1, 2013 it creates the third pillar of the pension insurance and is called an additional pension saving scheme. Via the transformation of this scheme emerged the so called participating funds.

Compared to the previous period, significant changes occurred, specifically that the condition of participation is bounded by at least 18 years of age, new participating funds will differ from pension scheme funds in a way that their participants will not be eligible for an early retirement pension and the law will not guarantee a non-negative evaluation. Money in the pension funds is not insured and in case of death it becomes part of the heritage. There also emerge the so called pre-pensions which qualify for saving the people who are in a period of up to five years before retirement age, the entitlement is drawn from funds in the account in the system of supplementary pension savings and one needs to have at disposal such a sum, which will allow to pay a monthly benefit of at least 30% of the average wage and the minimum saving period is five years.

The retirement saving is the last part of the pension scheme, which was established on January 1, 2013 as the second pillar. The entry into this pillar is voluntary, any natural person aged from 18 to 35 years may join and the participation in the second pillar does not affect the amount of the widow's or widower's pension. In case of death of the participant in the pay-out phase the balance on the retirement saving becomes the subject to inheritance (this is valid for the choice of the old pension for twenty years or orphan's pension for five years). In case of a lifetime pension payment the money is not a subject to inheritance.

Currently, there is a discussion about the abolition of the second pillar either on January 1, 2016 or 2017 on the ground that it is not suitable for most people and creates financial benefits only for wealthier residents of the Czech Republic.

According to Hamalčíková (2014) about 83 000 people that have since January 1, 2013 entered the second pillar will have to decide what to do with the money from the cancelled part. They can have the money sent on their accounts or may have inserted it into the first pillar or the third pillar. They will have to notify the pension companies until September 2016 about their decision of how to treat the money loaded in the second pillar.

The other basic benefits provided by the state social insurance system are:

- a child benefit: this benefit is eligible for dependent child if the decisive family income does not exceed the amount of the determined subsistence income of the family and the contribution is divided depending on the age of a dependent child and a specified period,
- a social allowance: the purpose of this benefit is to help low-income families to cover the costs of covering their needs. The amount of the benefit is variable, with higher family income the supplement decreases. The entitlement for this supplement is bound to a dependent child and the family income limit,
- a housing allowance: the aim of this benefit is to contribute to the cost of housing to families and individuals with low incomes,
- a foster care benefit: the state contributes to the needs associated with caring for a child placed in a foster care. Among the benefits of a foster care is for example foster parent remuneration; a contribution when receiving a child or a contribution to the child's needs,
- a funeral allowance: this benefit is entitled to a person who arranged for the funeral of a dependent child, or the person who was the parent of a dependent child under the condition that the deceased person had on the date of death of a permanent residence in the Czech Republic.

4. International agreements on social insurance in the European area

The basic sense of international agreements is to ensure the rights of people who migrate between two or more contracting States. In the current social security system there are commonly used means of the coordination in the field of social security.

International treaties or agreements can be divided into three categories according to their nature:

- proportional agreements,
- territorial agreements,
- combined agreements.

The rules for determining the competence of the social security legislation serve to ensure the application of the principle of legal regulations of one country. The application of the relevant provisions of international agreements on social security cannot be used in a situation when a person covered by the agreements is insured in both States or vice versa in none of them.

A lex loci laboris principle - is the basic rule for determining the jurisdiction for social security legislation. A person who is employed or self-employed person is a subject to the legislation of the Contracting State in whose territory is gainfully employed, regardless of place of residence (rule of lex loci laboris).

Proportional agreements are based on the principle of equal treatment, a single insurance, an aggregation of the covered periods and the payment of benefits in the other Contracting State. The principle of equal treatment anchored in the agreements stipulates that via the application of the legislation of one Contracting State the citizens of the second Contracting State, to which the relevant agreement refers, are equal in terms of rights to the citizens of the first Contracting State; this equality applies not only for rights but also for obligations.

For assessing the entitlement to pension benefits it pays that each of the Contracting State grants and pays a pension equivalent only to the insurance period itself.

These agreements were concluded by the Czech Republic (Czechoslovakia) with Australia, Bulgaria, France, Chile, Croatia, India, Israel, Japan, the former Yugoslavia (in relation to Macedonia, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Montenegro), Canada, Korea, Cyprus , Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Moldova, Poland, Germany, the Quebec, Austria, Romania, Russia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey and USA.

Territorial agreements are based on the principle of the residence of the insured person (lex loci domicilii principle). It means that the benefit is conferred by the State in which the applicant is on the day of the claim for residency. For instance in case of pensions, the state pays a pension even for a period of the employment (insurance) obtained in the other Contracting State. If there is a change of the residence of the pensioner to the other Contracting State, this State takes over the obligations of the first Contracting State

On a territorial principle only the agreement with the former USSR was established. In terms of the history as well as the substance, this agreement is already outdated and inadequate to common standards on social security coordination. As for the validity, the agreement was in relation to the Russian Federation terminated on December 31, 2008 and in relation to the other successor states of the former Soviet Union (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan) on September 22, 2009. Regarding the Ukraine and Moldova there were negotiated new agreements, which entered into force on April 1, 2003 (Ukraine) and on October 1, 2012 (Moldova). On December 8, 2012 a new, modern type of proportional treaty was signed with the Russian Federation, which entered into force October 1, 2014.

Combined agreements represent the ones concluded with Slovakia and the Ukraine. The territorial element is contained in the provisions relating to the assessment of the insurance periods acquired by a certain date (in the case of the Czech-Slovak agreement upon a termination of the Czechoslovak federation; as for the agreement with the Ukraine on the date of the entry of the agreement into force). These periods of insurance are assessed only by one Contracting State, irrespective of in which Contracting State the periods were completed. As for the terms of the insurance periods after that date, these are already assessed under the principle of proportionality that is by the State on the territory of which they were actually recovered.

Not all bilateral agreements relate to the whole area of social security. Such specific agreements are:

- Intergovernmental Agreement on the Settlement of Pension Claims between Czechoslovakia and Greece of 1985; this agreement addresses pension entitlements of the so-called Greek re-emigrants,
- Agreement with the Netherlands of 2001, which governs only the export of social insurance benefits,
- Governmental agreement between Czechoslovakia and the USA of 1968, which only provides for mutual payment of pensions between the Czech Republic and the USA.

5. Conclusions

The economic, political, and social situation of the given state affected the type, amount and conditions of the eligibility for retirement benefits in the periods examined by the authors. The situation also had an impact on the extent of the benefits provided. Initially workers were compulsorily insured only for sickness benefits and for the events of an accident, then gradually the insurance for the events of sickness, disability and old age were added and finally inheritance pensions have been derived.

We can say that the conditions for the entitlement to a pension have been from their inception until today basically the same, but they are mainly influenced by economic, political and social problems of the state. Each era brought along its own specific problems, which had to be dealt by the state. Also due to the increase in the economic system of the country, we can say that social insurance is so complex that it will never be possible for anyone to establish such conditions that cover all the needs of the country's population to general satisfaction. Although there are a large number of publications, studies and articles dealing with issues of social security, it cannot be said that a universal key has been found solving problems, which are based on the current social situation in the state and the region.

Today we can confirm the fear that the introduction of pension saving in the second pillar does not, in view of the current government, contribute to the effect expected. On the contrary, it is noted that this pillar is inefficient, inconvenient for most people and generates profits only for wealthier citizens. The estimated date of the scheme withdrawal is January 1, 2016 or a year later. The issues of the current retirement saving plans and supplementary pension schemes are in the hands of the Ministry of Finance.

The basic compulsory pension insurance is defined in terms of benefits and is continuously funded. It is a universal one and covers all persons in the economically productive age. The law regulation is uniform for all the insured, there are no special sectorial or occupational schemes. Only from organizational and administrative point of view there are certain derogations for people in special professional groups such as the so called hard power departments (e.g. soldiers, firemen, policemen, customs officers).

Less than one percent of the population gets the old pension, which is deducted from the basic pension scheme.

In case of moving a pensioner when he obtains a new residence, the state has to grant the pension in the amount according to its regulations. At the same time the state of the original residence terminates the payment of the pension. The pension shall be granted under an international agreement for the duration of the employment completed in the original state without compensation from this country, despite the fact that a citizen did not contribute at all to the welfare system of a new residence.

Thus it can be stated that the setting of a fair pension scheme is an issue in many European countries. The efforts to eliminate the negative impact of migration of population from one country to another in the area of social security represent the coordination regulations that affect various international agreements in the sense that they are directly binding and are supranational legislation based Community law and coordinate social security schemes in all Member States.

In conclusion we can say that when determining the eligibility for pension benefits individual states decide, on the basis of bilateral agreements, in a similar way.

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Albanian EU Integration and its Economic Convergence in the Agricultural Sector

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Abstract

Recently, the core of political and economic debate in Albania consists on reflections related to increasing the Albanian competitiveness in international markets. Fiscal pressures, low labor costs in the Albanian market and the attraction of foreign investment during the last years seems to have not yielded the expected results, not only for being more competitive in foreign markets but even for domestic consumption. It is mentioned here domestic consumption because focused on agricultural sector, it can be considered as a strategic sector of the future in Albania, and especially the EU where we aspire to take part, requests from Albania to orient production toward agriculture. This sector although constitutes 22% of GDP and occupies 47% of total employees fulfills only a quarter of domestic consumption (INSTAT, 2013). The impact of this sector in EU countries is only 1.7%. These indicators are simple enough to understand that even though agriculture is the most important sector of the country, from the standpoint of employment and the strategies remains still one of the sectors with the lowest productivity in Europe and shows that our country in order to achieve EU levels, has a lot of work to do and it is very essential for this process taking in consideration or paying attention to the "best practices" of this sector to reduce the gap created between Albania and the EU countries if we truly aspire to become part of this family. It is often discussed about the stimulation of foreign enterprises to displace a part of their manufacturing in our country. Or more precisely, it has often been demanded that foreign enterprises should operate in traditional sectors with output compartments that use a non-specialized labor intensive. According to modern economic theories, low labor cost is one of the primary factors in the international fragmentation of production (Lucas, 1988; Stokey, 1991; Bassanini and Scarpetta (2002b). While talking about labor cost, this should not be confused with low salaries, because not always a low salary coincides with a low labor cost. The problem of these entrepreneurs is the fact that although they shift their production to countries like Albania, they do not create a long-term cooperation with these countries. Not even a distribution of technology or an increase of total productivity is noticed, even in those sectors where there has been a shift of production. The objective of this paper is to measure the convergence in the agricultural sector and the role that integration has played in the economic development of the country in order to give some modest suggestions for policy makers which may be necessary for designing development strategies in the future

Keywords: Convergence in Agriculture, Productivity Growth, Albania in EU Integration

1. ALBANIAN PROBLEMATIC ISSUES OF AGRICULTURAL SECTOR FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EMPLOYMENT

During the transition period, the agriculture sector in Albania has experienced a long phase of regression, along which it has played primarily a social function and not commercial objectives (Ancona, 2005). The lack of commercial goals and the limited agricultural area have created a lot of difficulties for farmers considering technological improvement, introducing

new marketing techniques and realizing significant or standardized production volumes to inhibit the import of a major part of these products[1].

According to a study of the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU, 1999), agricultural land in Albania in August 31, 1992 was divided in over 460 thousand pieces with an average of about 0.2 hectare of arable land and 2.2 hectares of forests and pastures. This division, along with the lack of the arable land market and the ownership problems are the primary source of the lack of investment in technology in this sector and consequently the source of inefficiency and low productivity (Skreli and McCall, 2013).

It should be specified, however, that the deficiency problem of production in large quantities and fragmentation of land is not only a problem of Albania but also other of Balkan countries. According to the AgriPolicy.net, in Kosovo and Macedonia as well agricultural lands dimensions are small and do not exceed 3 hectares, only Croatia agricultural lands are slightly larger, i.e. about 4 hectares. However according to Volk the dimensions of agricultural lands are very small in the Balkans compared with the EU average.

According to the Volk study in EU, the enterprises with over 10 hectares of land constitute 10% of the total number of enterprises and 85% of the total arable terrain. While in some countries of the Balkan, enterprises with more than 10 hectares of land constitute 5% of the total number of enterprises and use 25% of the total area of arable land in Serbia, 41% in Montenegro and 52% in Croatia. While in Albania only 11% of agricultural enterprises have more than 2 hectares of land and none of the enterprises has more than 10 hectares of land (Volk, 2010).

According to Lampietti the size of agricultural enterprises in the Balkan countries is even smaller if it is taken into account EU countries like Italy, Greece and Spain in the 70s (Lampietti et. al., 2009). Regarding the contribution of agriculture to GDP according to the data of Table 1.1 it is noted that in Albania the share of agriculture sector is far more important. About 20% reaches this value during the last years; which if it is compared to the average of EU countries (more or less 2% i.e. 10 times smaller) remains very high, but also considering the Balkan countries such as Macedonia, Serbia or Montenegro who are similar countries to Albania where agricultural sector's share in GDP is half that of Albania.

According to the data of table 1.2 it can be noticed that the weight that agricultural sector occupies in total employment in Albania is relatively high. Although employment data are missing for Greece and Kosovo it can be said, however, that Albania is among the first countries of the Balkan Region with the highest weight of the agricultural sector in employment. So the impact of agriculture in our country is more stable in terms of both employment and its weight in GDP. But these two tables indicates at the same time that such a large weight in employment provides a relatively low contribution to GDP which from the other side is an indicator that the agricultural sector in Albania is very out of date and needs radical reforms to achieve the average of EU countries that Albania aspires. This fact argues and justifies the data of table 1.3 that Albania remains the last country in the Balkans in terms of productivity. This conclusion is credible even though the data of table 1.3 seems not very accurate.

Regarding our country it can be said that the lack of investment in technology in this sector and prolonged transition problems in Albania have made the sector inefficient and not attractive to stimulate the consolidation of establishing production lines.

From table 1.3 it is observed that after EU accession countries like Slovenia, Bulgaria and Romania appear to have a significant improvement in productivity. Given the current situation in Albania and the fact that Albania's entry into the EU seems distant, in such circumstances to achieve levels of EU in agriculture there is a lot of work ahead. Although it seems difficult it may be feasible taking into account the application of best practice of Slovenia and other countries part of EU. At the same time the relevant authorities of this sector should give technical assistance to entrepreneurs in this sector to promote the use of technology and to lower the gap of this sector with that of other countries and above all to make the sector more attractive from the standpoint of economic efficiency[2].

Another possible way would be that of associations of different categories and the creation of cooperatives. This, according to the Bodini and Borzaga would be very important for entrepreneurs of the sector because it allows dimensional growth

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[1] R. Kola, E. Skreli, M.Osmani, A. Tanku, Farmers' characteristics as determinants of collective action: the case of Greenhouse Producers in Albania, NEW MEDIT nr. 2/2014, p.2

[2] Botta, F. "The role of institutional factors for the development of agri-businesses" in: The Albanian food system, institutions, structures and policies by G. De Meo, Franco Angeli, Milan, 2004 pg.450

which from the other side enables an increase of market power, offering better conditions for both the purchase of inputs from the market and the sale of products. This increase of decision-making power in the market will have a positive impact on investment's growth in manufacturing technologies and those of conservation[1].

An example of success can be considered the cooperatives in Trentino Alto Adige. This area is characterized by a very fragmented land like Albania and the costs of land plow are high. The creation of cooperatives not only enabled the survival of the agricultural sector but played an important role in the process of economic development of the territory.

Another case to be taken into consideration is the development of production lines by cooperatives in Uganda, NDAFCU, where initially farmers were unable to sell milk individually. Operating like a cooperative they managed to produce 30,000 liters of milk per day. This amount allowed local farmers to negotiate the sale price of milk and reached to invest in a manufactory of milk processing, enabling the production of different products, higher revenues and enhancing local development[2].

Another possibility would be the application of an integrated development model based on local comparative advantages, integrating all social and manufacturing components. Primary selection will be agriculture but the transformation lines will be encouraged shifting from the production of agricultural products in their processing, i.e. a shift in agro industry, thus promoting local agro tourism. This enables for different locations the opportunity not to be limited only to the production of grapes or milk, for example, but to transform them into wine or cheese. It can also be considered mass production of 100% organic products. Such a product would positively affect the exports even for the reason that such products are highly demanded in foreign markets. In Hungary the production of organic products in a poor area of fragmented agricultural terrain not only led to local development but also gave a positive contribution to trade balance since 91% of this production was exported.

2. THE IMPACT OF AGRICULTURAL SECTOR ON IMPORT-EXPORT GROWTH

During the transition period, Albania has experienced a continuous change of policy makers which all have had as common denominator, the priority of the agricultural sector considered by all as a strategic sector for economic growth in the country's future. In general, the agriculture and rural development remain two of the priorities of the integration process for both Albania and the countries of the Western Balkans[3]. The agriculture in Albania has had a chapter on its own even during the signing of the Pact of Stability and Association with the EU: Article 71, 76 and 79 of the SAP predicts that agriculture will be a priority for the strategic development plan of the country. The signed agreements for SAP and the openess of negotiations to become a EU candidate country, during 2007-2014, Albania needs to harmonize domestic legislation with that of the EU and Agricultural policy change by promoting the creation of land market. The latter would help to stimulate investments in this sector and to increase competitiveness and productivity. All these activities have as their primary objective, increasing agricultural production in order to meet domestic demand as well as the export of agricultural products in the midterm period[4]. Increasing exports is one of the primary indicators of competitiveness mentioning here the positive impact it has on employment.

If we refer to the export balance of agricultural products it can be observed that Albania has a dependent model on imports: in 2012 the export-import ratio in general was 1:1.67 (Ministry of Agriculture, 2013). As it can be noted in table 2.1 in 2008 this ratio was more or less 1: 8, and the trend recently has not experienced huge changes. This is proved in 2012 where the volume of imports of agricultural products was 875 million dollars while the export of these agricultural products was only 74 million dollars (MoA, 2013). A World Bank study shows that the scarcity of conservation and processing of agricultural products structures is the reason why all agricultural products are salable only in areas close to production or

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[1] C. Borzaga, R. Bodini, (2012). What to make of social innovation? Towards a framework for policy development. Euricse Working Paper, nr. 36, p. 8.

[2] C. Borzaga, R. Bodini, Cooperating to compete: the case of the Agricultural Cooperation. World Food Day, Wednesday, November 21, 2012, Euricsce, p.

[3] D. Tomić, M. M. Ševarlić, N. Tandir, Agriculture of the countries of the western balkans and european integrations, Agroinform Publishing House, Budapest, 2010, p.94-96

[4] http://www.bujgesia.gov.al/al/programi/zhvillimi-rural/bujgesia-dhe-zhvillimi-rural

wholesale traders, where the latter are king-maker in price's determination[1]. This phenomenon is widespread in Albania, given that the majority of traders require large amounts sinse there are no market rules, these traders often buy the products abroad leading domestic producers to bankruptcy.

2.1.   The trend of main agricultural products of Albania

Regarding the cultivation of land in Albania, in the early '90s after the agrarian reform, a major part of the farmers produced only for personal consumption. This led to a considerable increase of the sowing of cereals at about 40%; this figure is similar to those of other Balkan countries. These cereals were used only for internal consumption and not for export.

While tabacco until the '90s had a significant slice of export, after the agrarian reform the interess for this product fell sharply where only during the period 2000-2012 passed from 6,200 tons to 900 tons. Also the same trend had production of cotton or sugar-beet. Unlike tobacco, where the interest for its cultivation falls significantly, for fruits it is increasing year after year.

In the last decade the area cultivated with fruits has increased substantially, from 149,600 hectares in 2000 to 262,200 hectares in 2008 (AgriPolicy.Net, 2014). The same trend has had the cultivation of vegetables. The increased area of vegetables passed from 462 hectares that was in 2000 to 940 hectares in 2008 continuing the dimensional growth even in the coming years. During the last years in agriculture it is observed the usage of technology in production and investments in general. It is worth mentioning that the number of enterprises which used the greenhouses in Albania in 2000 was only 10 and in 2011 reached 102, while in 2012 greenhouse vegetable production reached 79,000 tons, or 9% of total output (MoA, 2013).

The significant growth of fruits and vegetables production is reached thanks to frequent interventions of the ministry of agriculture in the last decade. In fact the Ministry has introduced a range of practices of use to increase the production and the usage of technology as: friendly technologies, GAP *best practice*, CAP, common agricultural policy and the CMO, common market organization. According to the ministry all these practices will significantly increase the production and will lower their transportation costs (Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection 2014).

These interventions, appear to provide their effects in production productivity increase and the improvement of trade balance for agricultural products.

According to the ComTrade database (2013) for the period 2001-2011, the export of domestic vegetables increased by 9 times and the agricultural products export grew by 17% meanwhile in 2012 the export decreased by 1%. An important contribution to a significantly increase of agricultural exports in 2012 gave olive and dry fruits production; the production of the latter only in 2013 increased by 10 times (MoAFCP, 2014). While the production of olives and olive oil in the same year was doubled.

Regarding the dried fruit and olives it can be said that their growth has come as a result of the above mentioned policies which not only have had undoubtedly a positive impact and significant contributions but also have provided the subsidies by the ministry launched in 2010 for the cultivation of these plants.

However, it can convincly be verified that the gap that exists between the Albanian agricultural sector and the other countries of EU and the Balkans is very high this due to the fact that Albanian agriculture is still with a deficit trade balance although this sector employees almost 43% of the the total labor force.

According to a recent study conducted on the analysis of trade balance of 98 products results that our country suffers a trade deficit for the major part of this category which in fact continues to grow every year. The only products that have a negative trade balance which is declining over the years are fruits and vegetables that have passed from $ 78.7 million in 2009 to $ 61.3 million in 2011 (Mitaj et. Al, 2014). So once again, it can be concluded that Albania poses serious problems of production structure in agriculture.

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[1] D. Soto, H. Gordon, P. Gedeshi, I. Sinoimeri, Poverty in Albania. A qualitative assessment, The World Bank, Washington DC, 2002, p. 11-12

3.   CONCLUSIONS

From the analysis of the agricultural sector in Albania, it is observed that Albania's agricultural land is very fragmented with an average of 0.2 hectare according to INSTAT data in 2000. This fragmentation of land from the preceding analysis is a consequence of 3 reasons: land ownership problems, agrarian reform of 1992 (Law 7501) and the lack of agricultural land market. These problems are the main source of the lack of investments in this sector. The lack of the latter is the primary cause of low productivity and productive inefficiency in this sector.

The analysis of some of the above indicators as contribution of agriculture to GDP and total employment of the country appears that this sector has a very low productivity not only in comparison with the average of the European Union but also compared to Balkan countries, which seems to be similar to Albania regarding the productive structures. Given these data it can be said that the agriculture sector in Albania has serious problems and there is a large gap compared with developed countries. For this reason, if it will be necessary that this sector serves in the future as a primary sector of Albania's economy there is a lot to be done. On one hand it is needed to consider the best practice in countries such as Slovenia or other countries of EU, and on the other hand it is necessary to orient investments in this sector, particularly in the use of technology in order to increase productivity and production. These investments should be investments associated with each other in the sense that an investment should boost other investments in order to not only increase production and productivity but also to promote the processing of these products, shifting from agriculture to agro-industry and agro-tourism.

From the analysis of agricultural products import and export it was noticed that despite the fact that in this sector are employees of the labor force of our country, is has not been achieved yet sufficient production to be auto sufficient. So Albania has a huge trade deficit in this sector. In relation to this, institutions should make a detailed analysis of market demand for agricultural products, in order to orient the investments and subsidies in the production of those manufactures that currently have a deep trade deficit. This means that under the current situation faced in Albania it is important to initially produce for fulfilling domestic demand and after that the possibility to export is an option to be considered. Exporting is important because it is the most important indicator for the level of competitiveness but despite this, the primary objective in the short and medium term should be that of producing for domestic consumption.

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Table 1.1: Agricultural contribution in country's GDP for the Balcan Region

Year	Albania	Macedonia	Montenegro	Serbia	Slovenia	EU
1995	55.8	13.2	20.9	20.9	4.3	2.9
1996	33.1	13.3	21.3	21.3	4	2.8
1997	31.8	12.4	12.2	16.5	3.9	2.7
1998	28.5	12.8	12.2	15.6	3.3	2.5
1999	26.3	12.8	12.1	19	3.3	2.3
2000	25.3	11.6	12.4	20	3	2.3
2001	23.4	11.7	11.8	20	3.2	2.3
2002	23.4	11.9	12.7	14.6	2.4	2.1
2003	23.1	12.9	11.3	13.8	2.6	2.0
2004	22.7	12.7	10.6	13.5	2.6	2.0
2005	20.3	12.4	10.5	11.9	2.8	1.7
2006	19.8	12.1	10	10.8	2.1	1.6
2007	18.6	10.6	9.3	10	1.9	1.6
2008	18.3	11.6	9.4	10.5	2	1.6
2009	18.2	11.1	10	9.4	2	1.4
2010	18.2	11.5	9.4	10	2.3	1.6
2011	18.3	10.9	9.5	10.8	2.2	1.6
2012	20	10.2	8.8	10.3	2.1	1.6
2013	22.4	10.5	9.8	n.d		1.7

Source: *Our calculations based on World Bank data, 2014*

Table 1. 2 :Agriculture contribution in employment in %

Year	Albania	BH	Bulgaria	Croatia	Macedonia	Montenegro	Romania	Serbia	Slovenia	EU
1997	69.60			17.80			39.00		12.00	8.50
1998	70.80			16.70			40.00		12.00	8.19
1999	72.10			16.60			41.80		10.80	7.91
2000	71.80		13.10	14.50			42.80		9.50	7.77
2001	72.20		9.70	15.50			42.30		9.80	7.55
2002	57.70		10.70	15.20	23.90		36.40		9.70	6.93
2003	58.10		11.10	16.80	22.00	9.00	35.70		8.40	6.77
2004	58.50		10.60	16.40	16.80		31.60	24.00	9.60	6.30
2005	58.50		8.90	17.30	19.50	8.60	32.10	23.30	8.80	6.16
2006	58.00	20.60	8.10	14.20	20.10		30.50	20.50	9.60	5.88
2007	47.60	19.80	7.50	13.10	18.20	8.70	29.50	20.80	10.20	5.61

2008	43.90	20.60	7.50	13.40	19.70	7.60	28.70	25.10	8.60	5.15
2009	42.10	21.20	7.10	13.90		6.50	29.10	24.00	9.10	5.61
2010	41.50	19.70	6.80	14.90		6.20	30.10	22.20	8.80	5.15
2011		19.60	6.80	15.40	18.70	5.60	28.60	21.20	8.60	4.99
2012		20.50	6.40	13.70	17.30	5.70	29.00	21.00	8.30	5.10

Source: Our own calculations based on World Bank data, 2014

Table 1. 3: **Agriculture added value per employee for Balcan countries (thousand dollars, constant prices (2005)**

Year	Albania	BH	Bulgaria	Croatia	Macedonia	Montenegro	Romania	Serbia	Slovenia	EU
1997	2,178		7,452	7,961	4,983		4,288		33,351	12,7
1998	2,321		8,383	9,207	5,411		4,104		35,548	13,27
1999	2,356		9,83	9,575	5,703		4,454		38,248	14,23
2000	2,486		9,643	10,5	6,03		3,839		42,839	14,74
2001	2,545		9,69	11,64	5,534		5,212		47,894	15,11
2002	2,573		10,964	12,99	5,753		5,563		58,735	15,88
2003	2,515		11,679	12,9	6,289		6,259		49,189	15,86
2004	2,593		12,758	15,14	7,217		8		67,667	18,19
2005	2,607	14	12,486	16,03	7,397		7,094		69,208	17,4
2006	2,697		12,773	18,61	7,926	4,396	7,57	3,576	74,899	17,74
2007	2,769		10,389	19,32	8,083	4,055	7,06	3,435	96,49	18,75
2008	2,984		14,577	21,84	8,998	4,73	9,006	3,895	96,969	20,31
2009	3,066		14,258	22,65	9,625	5,052	9,253	3,87	98,861	20,99
2010	3,327		14,207	22,91	10,841	5,24	9,289	4,304	115,57	20,85
2011	3,515		15,087	23,43	11,318	5,978	11,126	4,544	145,21	22,25
2012	3,735		15,031	21,64	11,134	5,649	9,117	3,938	133,66	21,92

Source: Our own calculations based on World Bank data, 2014

Table 2. 1 Foreign exhanges and trade balance for agricultural products

	Unit	2005	2006	2007	2008
Trade volume of agricultural products	mln €	428,0	502,0	734,8	651,3
Export volume of agricultural products	mln €	46,4	53,8	75,5	60,1
Import volume of agricultural products	mln €	381,6	448,2	659,3	591,2
Trade balance of agricultural products	mln €	-335,2	-394,3	-583,8	-531,1
% of agricultural imports in relation to country's total imports	%	17,6	17,9	16,2	16,6
% of agricultural exports in relation to country's total imports	%	8,2	7,9	7,3	6,4

Source: *Our calculations according to AgriPolicy statistics Albania, 2014*

The Economic Informallity Opposite Fiscal Policy and the Legal Vacuum Issues. the Features of the Tourism Sector Informallity in Albania

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Abstract

Economists and researchers increasingly debate regarding costs, benefits and even measurements of the informal economy. Such discussions are also indisputable part of our country reality. They evidence more and more the influence that the informal economy occupies in the gross domestic product of a country. Others consider informal economy as lubricating social welfare. Nowadays taking into account the economic situation in Albania, the informal economy is considered blow in the market competition, this competition which in turn is considered of particular importance for the economic development of the country. Throughout the paper we will look at whether the policies and strategies of a state, undertaken in the framework of economic growth, do not bring a reduction in unemployment and efficient distribution of income then there will be no reduction of informality. In terms of tourism sector it will be concluded that it is this informality which deviates the so much required standards in domestic tourism. In the region, the lodging taxes are estimated at 1 euro, while in our country it varies no more than 5% of the price of the room. This is why it remains difficult to calculate costs, which amounts millions of euros just in this part of the tourism sector.

Keywords: informal economy, fiscal policy, legal vacuum, tourism.

Introduction

The informal economy is a hot topic for the Albanian reality. But how is this defined? The informal economy in itself includes all economic and trading activities recorded in fiscal and legal system. It is basically its nature to evade from taxes, fees, social security system and from the legal obligations related with the security and reliability of the services and products offered as well as the social responsibility of business. Experts as well as politicians of different levels, unable to complete its elimination, often debate the findings of the ways and means to put it under control.

These debates are not characteristic only for developing countries but also for the developed ones. Statistics from various reports of the European Commission show that the informal economy takes approximately 5-20% of GDP, and the figure is even higher for developing countries (Bank Annual Report, 2013). Its different levels come to the fact that it, the informal economy, in different countries is in different stages of development. The causes of the informal economy generally are considered as identified. Positive results to informalities increasingly emphasize the need for reforms in all those sectors which constitute incitement and contraction at the same time. It is widely accepted that the high fiscal burdens encourage the informality (SANDMO, 1992). Businesses that operate in the informal market claim that they do evade as they can not afford the taxes, fees and insurance. However, operating in this way they receive and create undeserved advantages compared to businesses that are registered and are part of the tax system. From this, at all honest, competition comes as

bankruptcy of the registered businesses as well as encouraging a shift from formal to the informal sector. Literature and studies related to this phenomenon show a mutual respect between the formal and informal economy, and for the fact that the market exists precisely to equalize demand and supply for goods and services (Pollo, 2010). The informal sector offers gooda and services to the formal sector. To make a distinction between these two sectors it is important to go back to the definition of the informal economy which can also refer to as parallel economy, black economy, the underground economy, clandestine or as unregistered economy. In general terms, the informal economy is recognized as part of unobserved and unrecorded market economy that produces goods and services whose aim is their marketing or providing benefits in other forms and ways (E, 1989). Mirus and Smith in 1997 give this definition to it "The term informal economy refers to all unobserved economic activities realized by employees and entities, which are aimed at avoiding taxes and fees or operation contrary to the laws and administrative procedures which apply in a country ". In general, the informal economy is characterized by low demand in terms of capital and qualifications for the market access, by the skills acquired outside the framework of formal education, by intensive production methods implemented by manpower and inadequate technology and the economy operating outside framework although with lower cost.

The impact of fiscal policy on the informal economy seen in terms of fiscal evasion

Administration of the tax system is a matter of concern not only for developing countries but also for already developed countries. There are many factors that influence the informal economy and each of them has a specific weight, but one that directly affects the informal economy is the fiscal evasion (F Schneider, D Ernest, 2001). The tax system is considered very important for the fact that he is the main instrument which finances the state's budget. Efficient and effective tax system makes business organizations, on their free will, to settle all obligations under the laws and regulations in force. When a tax system is considered efficient? What would be the fiscal package which makes such a tax system? Both raised questions can be answered differently. Their answers depend on the country to which they refer and the individuals of their society. This is because it is they, the people who make fiscal evasion. Different states have experimented with changing tax rates in order to achieve their objectives, but the increase of tax competition can bring new business opportunities or more risks for the government (UNECE, 2003). Lower tax rates in certain situations can affect the favoriziation of the business and at the same time also bring increased revenues to the state budget. The other side of the coin of this fiscal policy would be; low tax rates, fewer tax revenues which in turn would imply the reduction of the quality of public goods and services in various sectors (R. Boadway, E. Chamberlain and C. Emmerson, 2009). Modern tax systems consist of a series of taxes and duties that vary in type, weight and importance. Nowadays particular importance has taken the structuring of the tax system in accordance with the legislation in force as well as the harmonization of the tax system with the acquis communitaire. From 2008 until 2014, precisely until 1 January 2014, Albania used to apply a flat tax of 10%. This tax rate was considered low; however, under the excuse that the poor class of society payed a greater obligation than middle and rich class of society, therefore the fiscal burden was not considered fairly distributed, the new government passed on a progressive tax. The effects of the progressive tax system in Albania's economy still remain to be studied. To broaden the discussion a little bit about the flat tax we can say that in the late 70` was preached for the first time a new course known as "the economists of supply hand" which states that low tax levels affect in promoting new enterprises, increasing employment and consequently increasing production. According to this school, a contraction of the tax will cause an increase in state revenue without affecting the growth of the budget deficit. The well known Laffer curve shows that revenues from taxes are in proportion with the tax rate up to a certain level and then becomes negative correlation (Thomas K.Papp, ELODA Takats, 2008). Proponents of this curve argue that a higher tax rate will reduce the level of work in the formal economy by reducing the income from work, savings and investments and impacting directly into state coffer. Another effect of a lower tax is associated with the increase of the public revenues as a result of increased taxable base. Individuals and businesses will not hide their profits. One of the toughest tasks fiscal policy makers is precisely the finding of the optimal tax rate, finding the most suitable number of taxes and feed nationally and localyl as well as their optimal management (HJ Kleven, WF Richter and BP Sørensen, 2000). All this varies depending on the level of economic and social policies of a country, where at the same time the tax system will be affected by administrative and adjustment costs. Finding a system without costs is not and does not requiry special skills, what exactly requires attention and study, is finding a tax system which costs are lower than benefits from it.

The most exposed actors of the informal economy.

Towards the informal economy remain exposed a number of groups which include poor groups in the labor market. The main challenge of the informal economy is still finding methods and techniques for its integration into the formal economy, as a matter of equality and social solidarity. Policies of a country should promote the removal of this economy and

supporting part of the sector groups should be financed by society as a whole. Problems faced by hourly wage workers are countless. Causes came from inadequate working codes, not protecting the position of work, problems with social security and health insurance schemes as well as limited access to the organizations in defense of the employees' rights. Women as part of the informal economy continue to occupy a significant part of it. International statistics show that women occupy on average 60-80% of this market (Bank, World Bank Indicator, 2014). Moreover, the number of labor forces that belong to this group is increasing, representing the largest number of unpaid workers. The work of the young girls and boys remains a significant problem. They face the problems of the various obstacles, handling and resolution of which requires not only attention but also the specific policies and strategies. Due to the high level of unemployment in this age group they feel compelled to address the informal sector (Holzener, 2003).

Once we have mentioned the informal sector stakeholders, let's briefly have a look at what are the problems and difficulties faced by the informal sector. The market economy compels all businesses which operate in accordance with the rules which guarantee the sustainability and competitiveness. This market can be very rough by making the formal and informal businesses face different obstacles that can affect business continuity. The state does favourize these obstacles not to penalize formal business but as measurements to limit the informal business. Such problems can have infrastructural, institutional or economic nature. These obstacles are connected with each other, creating a vicious circle of poverty and high risk. To illustrate with an example we can say that among the main reasons for the lack of capital and investment opportunities for the informal sector is the inability to be funded by financial institutions. Despite many obstacles we must emphasize that there are also other factors such as; the life cycle of product, type of the business and the level of society's development. But is it possible the formalization of the informal economy? The high degree of informality makes it a difficult task for the government to collect public revenue. It itself must not allow informality. Economic agents' effort should fairly be coordinated by the government leading to a continuous reduction of the informal economy. The negotiation process with the EU on a Stabilisation and Association Agreement reflected the progress made by Albania during the transition period. Given to Albania the status as a candidate country to the European Union, must say that standards and expectations are increased and not only that but ahead of our country already stand more ambitious objectives. Given the current problems with public revenue collection, it is appropriate to raise the question of how to achieve these ambitious objectives. The experience from developing countries has shown that to improve governance in order to achieve social objectives means to pass from an economy without infrastructure to an economy that pays taxes and fees. The majority of these reforms will require the reduction of corruption, bureaucratic inefficiency and other causes of the informal economy. More and more there are efforts towards reducing cash transactions. Banking and transactions only through banks and banking institutions will unquestionably mean a reduction of informality. But not only this, even the government through its administrative structures can play an important role in promoting and regulating the movement of cash. Strengthening of controls from different state institutions to identify and denounce the informal sector would be other ways to formalize the informal sector. International Monetary Fund in its report of 2014 states that the improvement of tax collection will be achieved by improving tax administration and not by changing tax policy. In order to measure the informal economy in Albania, there have been various studies, so for example the OECD (European Organization for Cooperation and Development) has estimated that the informal economy in our country is about 40%. The Institute of Statistics estimates that the weight that occupies informal economy in our country is 32%. Let's take a look at the performance of the informal economy. As we noted earlier elimination of the informal economy is almost impossible, so the aim of every country is keeping its levels which do not affect economic development. The phenomenon of informal economy can be analyzed by focusing on the factors that causes it. This complex phenomenon is a result of several factors which in turn interact with each other, thus bringing the further development of the informal economy and sometimes even shift from formal to the informal economy. Among the factors which influence its growth in general, including our country, we can be mentioned;

- The large number of legal and administrative norms and rules.
- Unemployment
- Higher tax liabilities
- Lack of trust in public institutions and corruption
- The right to property
- Awareness of society towards tax liabilities
- Approval or toleration of illegal work by state
- Failure of declaring the income

The informal economy in Albania was born after 1990, prior to this period is impossible to talk about such phenomena because of the centralized economy. Market liberalization undoubtedly brought its growth and upbringing. This despite the fact that the state did not create the much needed mechanisms to avoid or even to control it (a few years after 1990). After the collapse of the centralized economic institutions were created institutional and legal spaces or gaps. Even the financial crises, economic and political changes which have affected our country in different periods have encouraged the development of informality. Albanian reality shows that state authorities at different levels, often in order to gain personal benefits, help and support the development of informality. The chart below shows the performance over the years of fiscal evasion in Albania for the period 2000-2012, and in this way we see the informal economy in terms of fiscal evasion.

Figure 1. Level of fiscal evasion and its growth rate for the period 2000-2012
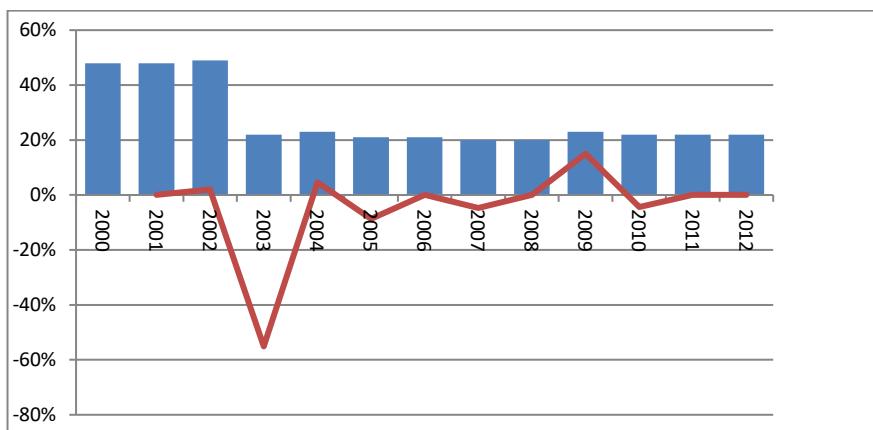
Non-declaration of income is another element which brings the growing informal economy. This factor can be seen through the eyes of employers and employees. Employees tend to claim less in order to have less tax liability as; profit tax, VAT, social security and health insurance. While employees benefit the difference between real wages and lower tax liabilities. These elements affect the progress of the labor market and consequently give rise to the informal economy.

The informality in the tourism sector.

As it is mentioned above, the informal economy has expanded and affects almost every sector of the economy. Saying this, it is obvious that the informal economy is also present in the tourism sector. Tourism creates unique spaces exactly where the needs and desires of tourists in many urban destinations, do not respond with products and services, especially near the main attractions, resulting in a gap that allows the informal economy for example: souvenir shops, restaurants, rent agencies, street vendors and shelters (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). Within the major tourist areas in developing countries, these are formally and informally provider of the products and services industry (Crick, 1992). Work in the formal sector of tourism includes professions and businesses that are accredited, licensed and taxed such as hotels, restaurants, transport companies and travel agencies. In most cases, the informal sector includes outpatient sellers, artisans, and informal guidelines. Usually informal sector includes people with undeclared and unregistered income, not taxed or in some cases have illegal income (Rogerson, 2001). Informal activities, although in most cases work together with tourism formalized services and business components in some destinations, their separation is unclear. According to many studies, informal entrepreneurs have begun to be assessed by the state and are allowed to operate openly (Opperman, 1998). The same author, Opperman, has determined that in certain types of tourism where formality and informality stay together, here he includes informal and formal tourism in non-tourist areas. In there spaces, the growth of tourism plays an important role in their development. As such spaces, we can mention border areas in developing countries where many entrepreneurs sell different products and services for people who are staying or transiting the border (Peberdy and Rogers, 2000). Compared to non-tourist areas, tourist area is made up of a mix of formal and informal sellers and casual shoppers. Informality in our tourism sector is an evident reality. In Albania, though foreign and local tourists do not pay lower prices for accommodation in hotels or holiday home, it results that some of this money, which should be translated in the tax and state's budget, is not reflected anywhere, all this comes as result of informal accommodation units. Referring to the data

during July - August 2014 it is estimated that the flow faces 254 thousand beds, but only 30 thousand of them are formal and belong to hotels. Tourism agents say it is this informality which deviate so much the required standards in domestic tourism. Mainly in the region, the accommodation taxes are calculated at 1 euro. While in our country it varies no more than 5% of the price of the room. This is the reason why it remains difficult to calculate the costs, which amounts to millions of euros just in this part of the tourism sector. Despite high rates of informality, the main problem of domestic tourism is inversely ratio between the price you pay and the service you receive in return. Improving this ratio is a challenge not only for the government and its institutions but also for the society itself. However this problem is not the focus of this paper and can be considered for further studies on the reality of Albanian tourism. Wishing to emphasize the fact that informality in the tourism sector is only a part of this economical reality, as a whole we are referring to inconsistencies in Albania's national accounts which suggest that the informal sector accounted on average of 36.2% of GDP in 1996-2012 periods. This leads to loss of tax revenue, lack of labor protection and unfair competition between firms, says the 2013 report of the EBRD for the business climate in Albania.

Conclusions and recommendations

Various international financial institutions have provided different figures for infomality phenomenon in our country, but all show a higher level than 30 percent of the informal economy in our country. Black economy at these levels has brought negative effects mainly in two directions. The first low level in fiscal management being classified as the last place in the region for tax collection performance in relation to GDP at only 24 percent, from 29 percent which is the regional average. The second relates to the unfair competition by businesses that evade taxes. Serious companies, according to EBRD study, increasingly find it hard for to be competitive in such informal setting in Albania. This high level of informality, among others, is caused by factors such as labor market, corruption, legal gaps and tax system. Lack of banking culture and accomplishments of cash payments are another disturbing reality of our country. Constituent elements of the factors mentioned above are unemployment, non-declaration of income, failure to file financial statements, lack of efficiency in the collection of public revenue, not the declaration of the origin of money, lack of technology, etc. In general, countries with low tax rates tend to have the lowest level of the informal economy. However we must stress out that often happens that these lower tax rates only seem to stabilize the informal economy and no further decreases it. The tax system should be simple and wide acceptable and of course convenient according to the economic circumstances of our country. Setting possible links between contributions and benefits of the tax system is seen as a good opportunity for businesses and individuals to be directed towards the formal economy. Albania, until early 2014, had flat tax system, taxes that are often seen as a tax which encourages the expansion of businesses and individuals registering in the tax system. Progressive tax effects, as part of the fiscal package of 2014, on the informal economy could be studied in future periods. The Albania fight towards fiscal evasion is not only focused on tax rates. Non-implementation of laws and regulations in force as well as preferential treatment of other businesses are listed as other conditions and ways for the growth of the informal economy and fiscal evasion. Awareness of society remains the duty of the authorities and governmental institutions. That awareness can cover topics such as: not-collected taxes, ways and means which avoid taxes and customs procedures, policies for the elimination of spaces created. The informal economy is a widespread phenomenon, and therefore must work separately on any of its parts or elements. The fight against it can involve all the parties of interest, among which we can even mention the registered business. The fight against corruption is a very important part of the fight against fiscal evasion and informal economy. This fight should be seen as strengthening and consolidation of structures and state institutions and public administration. It also implies the awareness of citizens and the responsibility of every individ. To the same importance is the cooperation between various institutions such as: The Institute of Statistics, The Institute of Social Security, General Custom Directory, General Tax Directory, the institutions responsible for fighting economic crime etc. All these institutions can share and reconcile their data in order to reduce the level of informality. Equally important is the legal stability. Frequent legal changes seem to encourage the tendency of businesses to be part of the informal market. Policies needed to improve levels of informal economy in Albania should include macroeconomic policies as economic growth, control of inflation level, employment and business climate. Outside this spectrum can not remain fiscal policy, labor legislation and social protection policies. This sector results in weakening of the authority and legitimacy of the state. All this brings a loss of citizens' confidence to justice, security or other services a consolidated state should offer.

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Cinema and Philosophical Education: from Wittgenstein to Deleuze

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Abstract

Bruce Russell argues, that cinema cannot create the philosophical knowledge for the reason that the answers to philosophical questions are contradictory and not obvious, the explicit argumentation is needed if the person is inclined to give justified answers to philosophical questions. Given examples are not satisfactory for philosophizing. On the other hand Slavoj Žižek, Stanley Cavell and Gilles Deleuze seems do not see this obvious gap between cinema and philosophy. They discuss the cinema as philosophy. What presumptions are needed for this approach? How this approach could be adapted in the philosophy education? [1]

Keywords: cinema, philosophical education, Wittgenstein, Deleuze
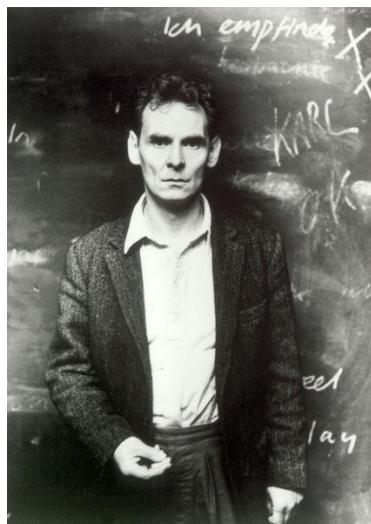
Wittgenstein as a professor at Cambridge University (staging Karl Johnson) in Derek Jarman film *Wittgenstein* (*Wittgenstein,* 1993) © Bandung Productions

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Wittgenstein and Deleuze as Cinema Goers

The best movie about the philosophy and the philosophical education is *Wittgenstein* (1993) created by Derek Jarman's[1]. The script was written by Terry Eagleton. First of all, this movie shows Wittgenstein as a unique thinker, and only in the second place – as a whacky character or gay. Jarman did not make a mistake the Italian director Liliana Cavani made: in the film *Beyond Good and Evil* (1977) she created the personage of Friedrich Nietzsche only as an anecdotic character, having nothing to do with the turn in philosophical thinking the real Nietzsche had made. Jarman kept respect for the philosophical interests of real Wittgenstein and unusual form of the movie – as if the action is going in the opera theater or, speaking with Deleuze's concepts, in any-space-whatever – only enlarges an intellectual intrigue. In the film section *Depression*, the character-Wittgenstein refuses to go to the seminar. His friend Johnny reproaches him: 'What are you doing! Everyone's waiting for you'. Wittgenstein-character rejects: 'Go away. Please. They're torturing me'. Johnny insists, but Wittgenstein does not move. So Johnny uses his last argument: 'listen, just get through this seminar and we can go to the cinema' (Eagleton, Jarman,scs.27). In the Terry Eagleton's written script the insisting person is David Jarrett's and his tone is more strict: 'if you don't come out now I am not going to the flicks with you' (Eagleton, Jarman 1993:21). Wittgenstein-character raises his head and complaining 'Intolerable, intolerable' moves to the seminar. Next shot: one sees him at the seminar. New episode: Wittgenstein with his friend sits in the cinema theatre and watches the movie. So cinema becomes a reward for difficulties in philosophy teaching. It is like an entertainment, an escape and has nothing to do with the philosophical teaching itself. 'There was no competition between cinema and seminar. I loved films', - reflects the character of Wittgenstein in the movie. – Especially Westerns and Musicals. Carmen Miranda and Betty Hutton were my favorite actresses. I always sat in the front row. Film felt like a shower bath, washing away the lecture. I hated the newsreels – far too patriotic' (Eagleton, Jarman, sc.30).

It is not common or necessary for a professional philosophy teacher to enjoy cinema. Even more: it is not a popular tradition to include cinema art into philosophy seminars. Some philosophy educators would always resist this idea. There can be several reasons. First of all: it is rather difficult to include the cinema into philosophical teaching for the reason that the image and the word, as revealed Belgian painter René Magritte and French philosopher Michel Foucault are as two heterogeneous series. Foucault in cooperation with Magritte in his book *This is Not a Pipe* discovered the innate incompatibility between the word and the image. Foucault noticed that Magritte discovered the gulf, "which prevents us from being both the reader and the viewer at the same time <…> " (Foucault 1983: 36). On the other hand, the use of film equipment in the audience requires additional training and flexibility in changing the rules of the teaching game and is always connected with the possible technical problems. But even more serious motive to resist to inclusion of the movies in philosophy teaching is the purity of profession. It starts from supposition, that the thought is always superior than the image and philosophy – superior to any art, and cinema as well. The idea starts from George Hegel, who indicated that in its development the Objective Spirit passes through three levels: art, religion and philosophy. The cinema is only an art. Philosophy as an abstract spirit is superior to visual thinking. The non-articulated supposition is that philosophy is connected to elite, but cinema – to popular culture. There is also the inertia of two thousand years old tradition. Cinema art takes its beginning only in the 20th century. The montage cinema was invented by the American film director Griffith David Llewelyn (1875-1948) in his three films *The Birth of a Nation* (1915); *Intolerance* (1916) and *Broken Blossoms* (1919). Soviet Russian film director and theorist Sergej Michailovich Eisenstein[2] (1898-1948), was following Griffith and criticizing him. He paradoxically created two very important things: first of all, he created the basic ideological movies for Bolsheviks (*Strike* 1925, *Battleship Potemkin,*1925, *October,*1928) and helped to establish the Soviet regime. But, on the other hands his movies were examples of genial application of Hegelian dialectics to the sphere of cinema. Some years later started to flourish French and German school of cinema[3]. The French school is connected with the names of Jean Renoir (1924-1978), Jean Epstein (1897-1953), Abel Gance (1889-1981), Jean Vigo (1905-1934), Jean Grémillon (1901-1959), René Clair (1898-1981), Marcel Carné (1906-1996). The German-Austrian school was famous for expressionism. Her famous directors were: Paul Wegener (1874-1948), George Wilhelm Pabst (1885-1967), Friedrich Lang (1890-1976), F.W.Murnau

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[1] Michael Derek Elworthy Jarman (1942–1994) created movies *Sebastiane* (1976), *Jubilee* (1977), *Caravaggio* (1986), *The Last of England* (1988), *War Requiem* (1989), *Edward II*, (1991), *Wittgenstein* (1993), *Blue* (1993).

[2] See Peter Greenaway's drama *Eisenstein in Guanajuato* (2015)

[3] Look: Kracauer, S. 1971. *From Caligari to Hitler. A Psychological History of the German Film.* Princeton: Princeton Univesity Press.

(1888-1954), Josef von Sternberg (1894-1969). To film classics belong also the films of Danish film director Carl Theodor Dreyer (1889-1968).

On the other hand, philosophy in general and the philosophy of education in particular start in Athens 5 centuries B.C. (Socrates, Plato, Aristotle schools). For twenty five centuries philosophers-educators managed to do without the cinema, relying on logic and critical thinking, verbal dialogue and text. It was not the philosophers who invented the cinema. And as usual it is very rare cases when cinema directors are reaching for philosopher's bachelor diploma. The professional prestige of philosopher arose beyond the cinema. Henry Bergson was the first who started to write about the cinema in the book *The Creative Evolution*, but his writings were critical. The cinema was already established in the beginning of the 20ᵗʰ century, but the most eminent 20ᵗʰ century film philosopher's reflected upon the phenomena of consciousness ignoring the cinema. Edmund Hussserl and Martin Heidegger never mentioned the cinema and Jean-Paul Sartre who wrote about imagination and the phenomena of consciousness in his books *Imagination: A Psychological Critique* (1936), *The Imaginary* (1940) also kept silence about the cinema. The first phenomenologist who started to compare phenomenology with the cinema was Maurice Merleau-Ponty in his book *Phenomenologie de la perception* (Deleuze 1983: 84). Merleau-Ponty tried to reveal the cinematic nature of phenomenological gestalts and came to the conclusion that at this point the limit is drawn beyond which the new psychology stats but the cinema remains ambiguous ally to philosophy (*allie ambigu*).

Analytic contra-argument against including the cinema into the philosophy teaching was were clearly formulated by Bruce Russell, who insisted, that the movies cannot create the philosophical knowledge for the reason, that the answers to philosophical questions are contradictory and not obvious, so the explicit argumentation is needed if the person intends to present justified answers to these questions. Only useful examples are not enough for philosophizing.

Nevertheless some philosophers attend cinema. The second after Wittgenstein famous philosopher who was happy going to cinema was French philosopher Gilles Deleuze (1925-1995). But, in contrast to Wittgenstein, for him cinema was not only an entertainment, but also a professional interest: he included cinema in his philosophical teachings and writings as well. Deleuze considered himself as a philosophy teacher with a very obvious metaphysical professional thinking. He wrote and published the books about philosophical classics: On David Hume, Friedrich Nietzsche, Immanuel Kant, Henri Bergson, Gottfried W. Leibnitz, Benedict Spinoza: *Empirisme et subjectivité* (*Empiricism and Subjectivity*,1953); *Nietzsche et la philosophie* (*Nietzsche and Philosophy*, 1962), *La philosophie critique de Kant* (*Kant's Critical Philosophy* ,1963), *Le Bergsonisme* (*Bergsonism*,1966), *Nietzsche* (in *Pure Immanence* 1965), *Spinoza et le problème de l'expression* (*Expressionism in Philosophy: Spinoza*,1968), *Spinoza - Philosophie pratique* (*Spinoza: Practical Philosophy*,1970, 2nd ed. 1981), *Le pli - Leibniz et le baroque* (*The Fold: Leibniz and the Baroque*,1988). His book *Différence et répétition* (1968) (*Difference and Repetition*) was based on a new Deleuzean anti-Kantian metha-psysics. In his early writings Deleuze also expresses his interest in literature and published the books: *Proust et les signes* (*Proust and Signs*,1964, 2nd exp. ed. 1976), *Présentation de Sacher-Masoch* (*Masochism: Coldness and Cruelty*,1967), *Logique du sens* (*The Logic of Sense*, 1969).

In 1969 Deleuze met Féllix Guattari and their intellectual cooperation ended with very important books: *Capitalisme et Schizophrénie 1. L'Anti-Œdipe* (*Anti-Oedipus* (1972); *Kafka: Pour une Littérature Mineure* (*Kafka: Toward a Minor Literature*,1975), *Capitalisme et Schizophrénie 2. Mille Plateaux* (*A Thousand Plateaus,*1987), *Qu'est-ce que la philosophie?* (*What Is Philosophy?,*1991).

But in addition to this in 1983 and 1985 Deleuze alone published two books devoted to cinema *Cinéma I: L'image-mouvement* (*Cinema 1: The Movement-Image*,1983); *Cinéma II: L'image-temps* (*Cinema 2: The Time-Image*,1985). How it happed for philosopher to approach this new area of culture?

François Dosse in the book *Gilles Deleuze &Felix Guattari. Intersecting Lives* in the chapter *Deleuze Goes to the Movies* step by step reveals the consequent turn of the philosopher toward the cinema. Deleuze was attending film programs organized by *Cahiers,* occasionally with his daughter Emilie, who had made films herself or with his wife, Fanny. The philosopher first spoke publicly about cinema in 1974, defending Hugo Santiago *The Others*. Deleuze also played the small role of the philosopher Lammenais in Michele Rosier film on George Sand, *George qui?* (*George Who?,* 1974) (Dosse 2010: 397- 405).

What is the relation of philosophy and cinema? In *Cinema 2. The Time-Image* Deleuze answers: the good cinema, when it stops being bad is philosophy (*quand il cesse d'être mauvais*) (Deleuze 1985: 223) (Deleuze 1989: 166).

Stanley Cavell: Uneventful and Eventful Events

The American philosopher Stanley Louis Cavell, the author of the books *Must We Mean What We Say?* (1969), *The Claim of Reason: Wittgenstein, Scepticism, Morality and Tragedy* (1979), *The Pursuit of Happiness* (1981) and etc. also saw the identity of film and philosophy. Rather distant from the philosophical suppositions of Deleuze, Cavell came to the same conclusion: films think and think philosophically.

Cavell says he was encouraged to turn to cinema as philosophy after he had attended the lectures of Austin who visited Harvard in 1955 and after he had read Wittgenstein. Wittgenstein not including movies into philosophy teaching formulated some ideas in his texts which encouraged the appearance of a new type of philosophy open to life and to cinema at the same time. Cavell reflected:

'I might specify three issues I recognize as exemplifying the kind of encouragement Austin and Wittgenstein lent to the progress of my thinking about film. One was allowing me to resist the idea of that relation of a photograph to what it is of is well through of as representation; another is the role of the ordinary, or say the uneventful, in the motion picture camera's interests in things, especially in the human face and figure; the third, most general, issue is their enabling me to feel that I was at once philosophizing and being responsive to, open to, the endless events (uneventful and eventful events, as it were) of film' (Cavell 2005: 168).

Wittgenstein's ideas enable Cavell to overcome the fear of the irrational which was in some way pervasive in western philosophy due to the popularity of such books as Alfred J. Ayer's Language, *Truth and Logic*. Mainly film philosophy can create an adequate vocabulary of passion. Starting from Wittgenstein's formulation from *Philosophical Investigations*: 'it is grammar that tells us what kind of object anything is', Cavell concludes that 'he is there claiming to satisfy, by educating, an ancient intellectual craving' (Cavell 2005: 195). This Wittgensteinian approach allowed to Cavell to the answer the question 'what is (the ontology of) film?' to formulate different type of questions, for example:

''what is the audience of film?'(as opposed to audiences of plays), 'what is the director of a film' (as opposed perhaps to the director of bank), 'what does the film screen screen?' (in contrast with what the support of a painting supports), 'what role does the script of a film play? (measured against what role the libretto of an opera plays), 'what counts as remembering a film? '(as compared with remembering a poem, or as novel, or an argument, or what happened yesterday), 'what is a remake of a film?' (as opposed to new production or a play), etc.'(Cavell 2005: 195)

The idea of Wittgenstein, that '[in philosophy] we must do away with all *explanation*, and description alone must take its place' inspired Cavell to suggest a new type or quality of description suitable for teaching cinema. As usual in the Universities when grading students essays on cinema the assessment has two aspects: 'description' and 'analysis' and analysis is considered as more strong part of the essay. Cavell suggests for the students not to be afraid of descriptions and remember, that 'a serious film, like any work of art, resists interpretation, as it were insists upon being taken in its own terms<…> They are no more transparent to criticism than persons are' (Cavell 2005: 179).

Andrew Klevan, at this time lecturer in Film Studies at the University of Kent, discussed with Cavell the features of teaching cinema to the students. Their conversation can be summarized by several conclusions they came to:.1. Discussing a film with the students differs from discussing a painting, literature or music. In discussion a film one needs paraphrase. 2. Teaching cinema and learning the new type of description is very hard, it requires long discussions. 3. Teaching cinema has basic supposition: the inherent vulnerability of human being, its openness to tragedy. 4. Teaching cinema requires the ability to tell a story. 5. To see film and to speak or write about it is mysteriously different things.6. A Film teaches when it strikes. Andrew Klewan remarked, that he always encourages his students to start write essay with a moment in film that struck them.

Teaching Cinema as Philosophy

In 1980 in Paris – VIII University started a curriculum of degree program in film and the film department having always excellent relations with philosophy department asked Jean-François Lyotard and Gilles Deleuze to oversee research in the film department. On November 10 1981, Deleuze gave his first lecture on cinema. He devoted to the film philosophy not only two books, but also three academic years and 250 class hours (Dosse 2010: 397). As notices Dosse, the microcosm at Vincennes were Deleuze gave lectures was completely unlike traditional academic universities. The new university, Paris-VIII, was a sort of anti-Sorbonne where multidisciplinarity was the religion: "at Paris-VIII no one taught traditional courses to prepare students for the national examinations, preferring instead to work on developing students' research

skills. Lectures were for the most part banned in favor of open group discussions" (Dosse 2010: 344). Dosse also notices, that the intellectual path of Deleuze's Paris-VIII seminars is particularly rich and closely linked to his publications.

'He had an immediate rapport with his student audience, albeit without any concession concerning the highly philosophical content of his courses. His reputation as a fantastic teacher was well established in Paris even before he came to Vincennes, and he taught to a very large audience right from the start' Dosse 347)

After retirement in interview about philosophy Deleuze reflected about this period of lecturing as a major part of his own life. One of the possible secrets of Deleuze's popularity as a professor was his passionate involvement. Deleuze compared lecturing to a relatively fixed audience for a number of years to a research laboratory:

'you give courses on what you're investigating, not on what you know. It takes a lot of preparatory work to get a few minutes of inspiration. I was ready to stop when I saw it was taking more and more preparation to get a more taxing inspiration. And the future's bleak because it's becoming more and more difficult to do research in French universities' (Deleuze 1995: 139).

Deleuze suggested also the other comparison of teaching philosophy in non-traditional way: he compared it to the music: to the rock concert, where the listeners are from very multiple spheres: the first-year and nth-year students, students and non-students, philosophers and non-philosophers, young and old, and many different nationalities. There were always young painters and musicians there, filmmakers, architects. It seems Deleuze was fascinated by this multiplicity and did not see his aim as a philosophy professor of "building up knowledge" progressively. Philosophy teaching was not strictly scheduled: long sessions (in which, according to Deleuze, nobody took in everything, but everyone took what they needed or wanted, what they could use, even if it was far removed from their own discipline) were abrupt by interventions, often schizophrenic, 'then there was the taping phase, with everyone watching their cassettes, but even then there were interventions from one week to the next in the form of little notes I got, sometimes anonymously (Deleuze 1995: 139).

Deleuze used the charismatic way of teaching films as philosophy also philosophy in general as well. He did not believe in discussions for the reason that everyone is framing the problem in one's own way. He compared a discussion to an

'echo chamber, a feedback loop, in which an idea reappeared after going, as it were, through various filters. It was there that I realized how much philosophy needs not only a philosophical understanding, through concepts, but a non philosophical understanding, rooted in percepts and affects. You need both'(Deleuze 1995: 159).

Deleuze does not discern teaching cinema as philosophy from the other topics of philosophy for the reason he has a special approach to the heterogeneity of the word and the image. Gilles Deleuze and Félix Guattari discovered the unexpected sources of creativity namely in the heterogeneity and the territories in-between. In the book *What is Philosophy*? (*Qu'est-ce que la philosophie*? 1991) the philosophers discern the territory in-between uniting arts and philosophy. They suppose that art and philosophy crosscut the chaos and confront it, but it is not the same sectional plane. 'In the one there is the constellation of a universe or affects and percepts; and in the other, constitutions of immanence or concepts. Art thinks no less than philosophy, but it thinks through affects and percepts' (Deleuze and Guattari 1994: 66). The plane of composition of art and the plane of immanence of philosophy can slip into each other to the degree that parts of one may be occupied by entities of the other. In fact, in each case the plane and that which occupies it are like two relatively distinct and heterogeneous parts.

Philosophy is not a discussion, nor a meditation, nor contemplation. Philosophy is a creation of the new concepts, would say Deleuze and Guattari in their last book *What is Philosophy*? But first of all philosophy from Deleuzean point of view is a permanent experimentation. And this experimentation need openness to the life in general and to the arts in particular. Vision and word does not confront each other in education. They both meet. Where? And when?

The New Pedagogy of Perception

Deleuze does not consider that cinema is going to be dangerous to the education based on the word and the argumentation. He discerns two possibilities of vision and extract the cinema from obsession with a technique. Deleuze in the *Letter to Sergey Daney* reflected upon the new pedagogy of perception connected to cinema, but also with TV. The philosopher responded to Daney's book *La Rampe* (1983)*.* Deleuze was intrigued by the question posed in the book*: '*What is there to see behind the image?' Reflecting upon the possible answer Deleuze discerned the new tendencies in the function of image:

'The relation between images and words, sounds, music changed too, with basic disymmetries between the aural and visual that allow the eye to read images, but also allow the ear to imagine the slightest noise. Finally, this new age of cinema, this new function of the image, was a p*edagogy of perception,* taking the place of an *encyclopedia of the world* that had fallen apart: a visionary cinema that no longer sets out in any sense to beautify nature but *spiritualizes* it in the most intense way. How can we wonder what there is to see behind an image (or following on from it. . .), when we can't even see what's in it or on the surface until we look with our mind's eye? And while we can identify many high points in this new cinema, it's the same pedagogical path that leads to all of them-Rosselini's pedagogy, 'a Straubian pedagogy, a Godardian pedagogy,' as you said in *La Rampe,* to which you now add Antonioni's pedagogy, by analyzing the eye and ear of a jealous man as a 'poetics' registering everything evanescent, everything that might disappear, a woman on the desert island in particular' (Deleuze 1995: 70).

But this new pedagogy of perception is threatened by the arousing interest on technique. Deleuze discerns possible sources of Daney's pessimistic point of view towards this new pedagogy of perception in the new approach towards the image:

'The question is no longer what there is to see behind the image, nor how we can see the image itself-it's how we can find a way into it, how we can slip in, because each image now slips across other images, "the background in any image is always another image," and the vacant gaze is a contact lens' (Deleuze 1995: 71).

Deleuze acknowledges that in this case, 'the encyclopedia of the world and the pedagogy of perception collapse to make way for a professional training of the eye, a world of controllers and controlled communing in their admiration for technology, mere technology', concludes Deleuze (Deleuze 1995: 72). How it is possible escape pressure of technology? Once again remains the question: What is there to see behind the image? What the lessons can be learnt in teaching cinema as philosophy? The answer would be looked for going through two Deleuze's books on cinema.

Education Through Signs

The Cinema 1. The Movement-Image starts from the warning, that it is not the history of cinema, but its taxonomy. It means that the reader is going to learn not about the periods of the history of cinema, but about the signs it deciphered.

The idea, that learning is essentially concerned with signs was for the first time expressed in Deleuze's book *Proust and Signs* (1964). The concept of sign was taken from Proust's book's final systematization that constitutes *Time Regained* (*Le Temps Retrouve*). Deleuze writes:

'Signs are the object of a temporal apprenticeship, not of an abstract knowledge. To learn is first of all to consider a substance, an object, a being as if it emitted signs to be deciphered, interpreted. There is no apprentice who is not "the Egyptologist" of something - One becomes a carpenter only by becoming sensitive to the signs of wood, a physician by becoming sensitive to the signs of disease. Vocation is always predestination with regard to signs. Everything that teaches us something emits signs; every act of learning is an interpretation of signs or hieroglyphs' (Deleuze 2000: 4).

Deleuze, following Proust, concludes that the signs are specific and constitute the substance of one world or another. In this plurality of worlds signs are not of the same kind, and they do not have the same way of appearing, do not allow themselves to be deciphered in the same manner, do not have an identical relation with their meaning. Deleuze deciphered four types of the world and four types of the signs in Proust's created literary universe: the worldly signs, the signs of love, the sensuous signs and the science of art. The researcher who is learning from signs is trying to grasp the essence, but it always escapes in the case of worldly signs, science of love and sensuous signs. One is able to reach the essence only on the level of art. 'But *once* they are manifested in the work of art they react upon all the other realms; we learn that they already incarnated, that they were already there in all these kinds. of signs, in all the types of apprenticeship (Deleuze 2000: 38).

In both volumes of *Cinema* Deleuze discerns much more different plurality of worlds and when mentioning sign he mentions that had taken this concept from American logician and pragmatist Charles Sanders Peirce. In *Proust and Signs* Deleuze connected the learning from signs with a search for an essence. In cinema philosophy the essence do not play role any more. The concept of sign is enabled to grasp to the most serious problems of philosophy, which bothered philosophical minds starting from Greek: the problem of movement and the problem of time. Cinema becomes as if a window one can look through to these problem from another perspective: from the sphere of moving images. Semiology of Peirce for Deleuze is like a skeleton for this new approach to the old philosophical problems. Henry Bergson idea of duration gives

the vitality to the construction. Deleuze was impressed by Pierce's semiology for the reason that he wrote about signs on the basis of images and their combinations, not as a function of determinants which were already linguistic. Deleuze refers to Peirce's extraordinary classification of images and signs:

'Peirce begins with the image, from the phenomenon or from what appears. The image seems to him to be of three kinds, no more: firstness (something that only refers to itself, quality or power, pure possibility; for instance, the red that we find identical to itself in the proposition 'You have not put on your red dress' or 'You are in red'); secondness (something that refers to itself only through some - thing else, existence, action-reaction, effort-resistance); thirdness (something that refers to itself only by comparing one thing to another, relation, the law, the necessary)' (Deleuze 1989: 30).

Deleuze based this research schema in the first volume of *Cinema 1.The Movement-Image* on these firstness, secondness and thirdness of image, suggesting that these qualities correspond to the affection-image, the action-image and the relation-image. But, on the other hand, according to Deleuze, all three are deduced from the movement-image as material, as soon as it is related to the interval of movement. In this Deleuze's schema between the perception-image and the others, there is no intermediary, because perception extends by itself into the other images. But, in the other cases, there is necessarily an intermediary which indicates the extension as passage. This is why Deleuze suggested six, not three, types of perceptible visible images: '*perception-image, affection-image, impulse-image* (intermediates between affection and action), *action-image, reflection-image* (intermediate between action and relation), *relation-image'* (Deleuze 1989: 32)

On the other hand Deleuze considers that he takes the term 'sign' in a completely different way from Peirce:he considers that sign is a particular image that refers to a type of image, whether from the point of view of its bipolar composition, or from the point of view of its genesis. So he constructs his own classification of signs. In the second volume of *Cinema: The Time-Image* Deleuze poses to Peirce the testing question: why does Peirce think that everything ends with third ness and the relation-image and that there is nothing beyond?(Deleuze 1989:.33). Deleuze steps beyond and finds

'signs which, eating away at the action-image, also brought their effect to bear above and below, on perception and relation, and called into question the movement-image as a whole: these are opsigns or sonsigns. We could no longer consider Peirce's thirdness as a limit of the system of images and signs, because the opsign (or sonsign) set everything off again, from the inside' (Deleuze 1989: 34).

How a Character is Learning the New Vision of Reality?

Cavell and Deleuze were not cooperating in teaching cinema as philosophy. They do not practice philosophical friendship and created two indispensable schools of teaching cinema as philosophy. They were separated by the space, by different cultures, by different educational background and, as noticed D.N.Rodowick, "seem only dimly aware of one another" (Rodowick 2010: 98). They were interested into different movies. In the book *The Pursuit of Happiness: The Hollywood Comedy of Remarriage* Cavell reflected upon the Holywood's 'golden age' *remarriage comedies*[1]. Cavell was interested in the moral lessons of these movies revealing a necessity in order to preserve one's happiness to grow up together with one's partner. The man in order to grow with a woman partner has to acknowledge the woman's autonomy, and for her to see that he acknowledges it. Only by doing so will he make himself worthy of her, so that she may at last give herself to him for the second time (remarry him). Cavell concluded that these films teach that the pursuit of happiness require not to fulfill our desires but to transform them.

Deleuze mentioned more than four hundred movies in his two volumes of *Cinema.* He showed respect for American cinema reflecting upon the historical movies, created by Cecil DeMille. He reflected a lot upon Orson Welles's (1925-1985) creation: *Citizen Kane* (1941); *The Lady from Shanghai* (1947), discussed the principles of new New York cinema school in John Cassavetes (1929-1989) films: *Faces*, *Love Streams, Shadows, Woman Under the Influence*. On the other hand his selected stream of favorite 'good movies' was mostly from European cinema: Andrei Tarkovsky (*The Mirror*, *Solaris*, *Stalker*), Kryzstof Zanussi, Joseph Losey (1909-1984) (*The Servant*, 1963), Alain Resnais (*Last Year at Marienbad*, 1961; *My American Uncle*), Federico Fellini (*And the Ship Sails On*, 1983), Michelangelo Antonioni (1912-2007) (*The Night,* 1961), Max Ophüls (*The Earrings of Madame de*..., 1953), Luis Bunuel (1900-1983) (*Belle de jour*, 1967, *The Discrete Charm of*

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[1] *The Lady Eve* (1941, director Preston Sturges),*It Happened One Night* (1934, director Frank Capra), *Bringing Up Baby* (1938, director Howard Hawks), *The Philadelphia Story* (1940, director George Cukora), *His Girl Friday* (1940, director Howard Hawks), *Adam's Rib* (1949, director George Cukora), *The Awful Truth* (1937, director Leo McCarey).

the Bourgeoisie, 1972), Lucino Visconti (*Leopard, Sandra, Senso*, *White Nights, Obsession, Death in Venice, Damned, Conversation Piece*), Werner Wenders (*State of Things*) etc. Besides, Deleuze showed interest also in Japanese movies, e.g. Akira Kurosawa (1910-1998) (*Rashomon,* 1950), etc.

Cavell was looking for the education of new emotions in cinema, Deleuze was seeking the birth of the new thought. Notwithstanding their distance, D.N. Rodowick indicated some common points between Cavell's and Deleuze's approaches to cinema: inclination towards moral reasoning. Cavell was concerned with the problem of ethics in film and philosophy, above all through his characterization of an Emersonian moral perfectionism. Rodowick discerned in Cavell's Emersonian ethics echoes with Gilles Deleuze's Nietzschean and Bergsonian perspectives on cinema, 'wherein concepts of movement and time are related as the expression of belief in the world and its powers of transformation' (Rodowick 2010: 98).

As important bridge between Deleuze's and Cavell's approach to cinema Rodowick indicated first of all their mutual interest in Nietzsche. Another common point is their original way of asking ethical questions in ontological contexts:

'Though Cavell uses the word frequently, and Deleuze rarely, both evalute ontology as a particular approach to Being. This is not the being or identity of film or what identifies film as art, but rather, the ways of being that art provokes in us – or more deeply, how film and other forms of art express for us or return to us our past, current, and future states of being. Also, in both philosophers, the ethical relation is inseparable from our relationship to thought. For how we think, and whether we sustain a relation to thought, are bound up with our choices of a mode of existence and our relations with others and to the world' (Rodowick 2010: 99).

  Cavell takes interest more in our relations with others, Deleuze – to the world. Cavell reflecting upon remarriage comedy tried to reveale at first sight not given and it seems unsignificant aspects of our relations with others and showed, that

'we help and hurt and interest, and bore each other in our everyday lives in countless unremarked and fateful ways, that while we have to learn to tolerate clumsiness in one another – say inadvertent, heedless, thoughtless, careless slaps in our ignorant or uneducated responses to frustration – we have also to learn not to tolerate slugs, meaning any one of a hundred ways we have of dealing out little deaths of rejection' (Cavell 2005: 203).

Cavell discerns one common feature uniting film with philosophy: 'they are both preoccupied with ways in which we miss our lives, miss the density of significance passing by in a film, in or speech, in our lives' (Cavell 2005: 206).

Deleuze notices one common feature between philosophy and cinema: they both say something about the encounter of the subject with reality. The cinema subject – its main character -- does not ask a philosophical question: why there is something instead of nothing. She/he experiences the other problem: how to withstand something which is unbearable and unthinkable in reality. Modern cinema invents new signs and breaks old sensory-motor schemes based on a movement. Modern cinema turns from action to a purely optical and sound situation:

'It makes us grasp, it is supposed to make us grasp, something intolerable and unbearable. Not a brutality as nervous aggression, an exaggerated violence that can always be extracted from the sensory-motor relations in the action-image. Nor is it a matter of scenes of terror, although there are sometimes corpses and blood. It is a matter of something too powerful, or too unjust, but sometimes also too-beautiful, and which henceforth outstrips our sensory-motor capacities' (Deleuze 1989: 18).

This intolerableness of reality is something like what existentialists or Albert Camus were writing about. Deleuze does not articulate the problem in detail in existentialist manner, he simply states it as a main fact of human existence that the cinema is revealing even more clearly than philosophy is. Romantics were able to grasp the intolerable-or the unbearable, the empire of poverty. They also produced the new means of knowledge and action: the visionary approach to reality. Deleuze is relying on romantics' experience.

Deleuze pays no attention to the actors playing the characters, he almost never mentions their names, he only indicates, that 'a new type of actor was needed: not simply the non-professional actors that neo-realism had revived at the beginning, but what might be called professional non-actors, or, better, 'actor-mediums', capable of seeing and showing rather than acting, and either remaining dumb or undertaking some never-ending conversation, rather than of replying or following a dialogue' (Deleuze 1989: 20). As a matter of fact when discussing the type of the character – clairvoyant, who is reflecting the encounter with the something unbearable in reality and is learning to see the reality from a new side, becoming a visionary Deleuze usually returns to the characters of three women: Karin in Roberto Rossellini's *Stromboli*, Irene in Rossellini's *Europe'51* and Gertrud in Carl Theodor Dreyer's *Gertrud* (1964). The first two – Karin and Irene – was played

by Ingrid Bergman (1915-1982), who suggested to Rossellini to create common movie *Stromboli* (1950). In this film Bergman plays Karin, a displaced Lithuanian in Italy, who escapes the internment camp by marrying an Italian soldier and fisherman (acting Mario Vitale), whom she met in the camp on the other side of the barbed wire. After marriage they went to his home island of <u>Stromboli</u>. She tries to adapt to the very harsh and barren environment of the island and to very traditional and conservative people –- hostile and strange, -- but she failed. She becomes pregnant and understands that in any case she has to escape. In escape plan she has to pass the hill with volcano and at this very moment the volcano starts to erupt. Karin has no possibility to go further, but she also has no possibility to return. She goes asleep and when gets awakened reflects her new situation. The film documentary features real segments about fishing tuna and an actual an eruption of the volcano. Most villagers are played by actual people from the island. Notwithstanding some skeptical acceptance of the film from the side of film critics, Deleuze considers this movie as an example of the modern cinema, when all sensory-motor schemes are broken and the character reflects the world in the new optical and sound situation and learns the things she/he never saw before. Karin becomes visionary when she suddenly understands the extraordinary greatness of reality she is not able to bear on. Deleuze writes:

'Stromboli presents a foreign woman whose revelation of the island will be all the more profound because she cannot react in a way that softens or compensates for the violence of what she sees, the intensity and the enormity of the tunny fishing ('It was awful .. .'), the panic-inducing power of the eruption ('I am finished, I am afraid, what mystery, what beauty, my God .. .')' (Deleuze 1989: 2).

Deleuze concludes that island Stromboli' beauty is too great for Karin so becomes intolerable, but also for all the spectators, like too strong a pain. But mainly the greatness of the situation as something unbearable in the reality possibly revealed in the movies engenders the real unforgettable philosophical lessons in cinema. On the other hand something unbearable is experienced when the heroine Gertrud (acting Nina Pens Rode) from Dreyer's movie *Gertrud* (1964) also experiencing the difficulties in marriage and the relations with other lovers is reflecting in her mentality her own life. Gertrud becomes conscious of belief as thought of the unthinkable (,Have I been young? No but I have loved. Have I been beautiful? No but I have loved. Have I been in life? No but I have loved.' (Deleuze 1989: 170-171).

This a limit-situation was repeated in the other movie *Europe 51* created by Rossellini in which Ingrid Bergman also played the main role of, in Deleuze words, bourgeois woman Irene. Living in wealthy family with industrialist man George (acting Alexander Knox) Irene (acting Bergman) is too busy with her social life and the parties they are giving at home to their friends. So she has no enough time left for her their son Michele (acting Sandro Franchina) and Irene does not notice his loneliness and his longing for her attention. During a dinner party, Michele constantly tries to get his mother's attention, but Irene is more interested in being a good hostess to her guests. Michele attempts <u>suicide</u> by falling several stories down a stairwell. At the hospital, Irene promises to never leave Michele, but he dies. Irene overcomes her depression and grief and starts to notice the poor people and take care of them, donating her money. She's horrified by the factory's working conditions, which she sees as slavery. Irene then cares for a <u>prostitute</u> who is dying of <u>tuberculosis</u>. Her family, husband and mother are not able to understand the reason of her absence from home and conclude she is betraying the family and is mentally ill, so close her in <u>mental institution</u>. The very important is the end the movie. Irene has to make her final choice, as a heroine from Kierkegaard's *Either/Or*. She is suggested by her family to decide: either to return to the family and keep on going to live a life as she lived before, or she will stay in mental hospital, forever closed. The people she has helped, along with many she hasn't, were standing outside her cell window, praying to her as their new 'patron saint.' She made a decision to stay with these people and maintain forever closed for the reason she learnt unforgettable lessons about herself and reality she is living in she can not betray any more. She behaves like Knight Myshkin or Sonia Marmaladova from Dostoyevsky's novel *The Idiot*. Rosselllini was expressing his admiration to Saint Francis of Assisi values. For Deleuze Irene as well as Karin from *Stromboli* becomes as a sign of clairvoyance, a new visionary.

'These are pure seers, who no longer exist except in the interval of movement, and do not even have the consolation of the sublime, which would connect them to matter or would gain control of the spirit for them. They are rather given over to something intolerable which is simply their everydayness itself. It is here that the reversal is produced: movement is no longer simply aberrant, aberration is now valid in itself and designates time as its direct cause. 'Time is out of joint': it is off the hinges assigned to it by behaviour in the world, but also by movements of world. It is no longer time that depends on movement; it is aberrant movement that depends on time. The relation, *sensory-motor situation ~ indirect image of time* is replaced by a non-localizable relation, *pure optical and sound situation~direct time-image.* Opsigns and sonsigns are direct presentations of time. the grasping of the intolerable even in the everyday and insignificant' (Deleuze 1989: 170)

One can notice essential difference in the lessons learnt in remarriage comedies, discussed by Cavell and the lessons learnt by Deleuze's clairvoyants – Karin, Gertrud and Irene. Three Deleuze's beloved woman –visionaries never remarry. On the contrary, they start to learn the new lessons about reality only when they are leaving husbands or other lovers and start to go their own way. Visionary is alone and cares not about the relations with other people, but about the vision itself.

Conclusions

1. When philosopher goes to cinema it is possible that he has no any other interest except of entertainment, as it was it Wittgenstein's case and is revealed in the best movie about philosophy teaching *Wittgenstein* created by Derek Jarman.

2. On the other hand the philosophical ideas of Wittgenstein inspired American film philosophy school created by Stanley Cavell.

3. When philosopher goes to cinema it is possible that his intention for entertainment coincides with his professional interest, as happened in French philosopher's Gilles Deleuze' case, who lectured cinema in university and wrote two books on cinema.

4. Lecturing cinema as philosophy demands the new conception of philosophy elaborated by Cavell (*philosophy as responsiveness*) and Gilles Deleuze (*philosophy as experimentation*) .

5. Cavel and Kevin came to a conclusion that lecturing cinema as philosophy has several features: 1. Discussion about a film with the students differs from discussing a painting, literature or music. In discussion a film one needs paraphrase. 2. Teaching cinema and learning the new type of description is very hard, it requires long discussions. 3. Teaching cinema has basic supposition: the inherent vulnerability of human being, its openness to tragedy. 4. Teaching cinema requires the ability to tell a story.

5. To see film and to speak or write about it is mysteriously different things.6. A Film teaches when it strikes.

6. Deleuze in teaching practice preferred the conception of charismatic teaching without any strict rules in advance.

7. Deleuze in his works elaborated the pedagogy of perception and education through signs.

8. Cavell and Deleuze discerned the possibility for characters to learn from their own experience when meeting a limit-situation. But in Cavell's film philosophy the possibility to learn from one's experience is left for both partners and the possibility of happiness is sustained in remarriage. In contrast to it Deleuze in film philosophy is reflecting not happiness but a clairvoyance. When all the links with the men partners are broken women are able to understand something unbearable in reality itself.

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Institutional Work in Total Institutions and the Perspective of the Persons that Have Lived in Residential Treatment Institutions

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Boštjan Bajželj

Abstract

Institutional work includes all kinds of psychosocial assistance that offers, to people that need them, living environments and immediate environments adapted to their age, problems, disorders, and state. The diversity and dilemmas of institutional work represent the central theoretical discourse that the authors are researching in the explanations of the total institution, the exact answers regarding the help the youth that involuntarily find themselves in such institutions receive. The continued development of the discourse logically proceeds into deinstitutionalisation. *Semi-structured interviews of adults that have spent their youth in such institutions represent the empirical part of the research. Extreme psychosocial pressures make the youth deviate away from goal orientation and the purpose of the institutions' operations. So, additionally, the authors have gathered a collection of good and bad experiences to bring attention to the many imperfections that should not be self-evident. The key problems that people that have stayed in such institutions a decade ago would like to give light to are the non-existence of logic and specific learning and practical competences that would benefit them in the life outside of the institution. They also stressed the lack of using the quality relations that had been established in the institution as support in post-treatment.*

Keywords: institutional work, total institutions, residential, treatment, institutions

Introduction

Institutional work

In institutional education the educational conditions and interpersonal relationships of children are largely influenced by the characteristics of organisation: the division of labour, the highly formalised application of rules, and a complex hierarchy (Wolf, 1995).

The separation of household chores, therapeutic functions, pedagogical functions, and additional divisions of labour within those areas, is organised division of labour in institutional education. For example, people that are suitably qualified for household chores such as cleaning, doing laundry, cooking, shopping, maintenance, managing inventory, and gardening, are responsible for them.

This is also used by institutions that seem to allow completely normal living conditions - by the standards of institutional education. In this case, the participants are not necessarily aware of the scale of the division of labour. The division only becomes apparent when a new worker or participant enters the group. This is shown by Günder (1995) in his example of a new participant who solves everyday problems as he would in real life: while grocery shopping, he buys a light bulb for the light in the common room, although the light bulbs are exclusively bought by the caretaker and are paid for from the collective budget.

What is institutional work? Weezel and Waaldijk (2002) suggest that it is a kind of psychosocial assistance, where living environments and immediate environments are adapted to the person's age, problems, disorders, and state are offered to those that need them. Institutional work is about:

- the cohabitation of a specific number of people that have not chosen each other as participants
- organised, more or less artificial immediate environment
- absence from home, whatever that constitutes for each individual
- slight or significant distancing from the local community
- the all-encompassing duality of the employees and the participants
- the dependency of the participants or visitors on the frame of mind, mood, presence, expertise, and strength of the staff that used to be undisclosed

It is important that we solve the following dilemmas (Weezel, L.G, Waaldijk, K., 2002, p. 22):

1. the division between two sides – openness and reserve
2. the definition of the amount of discipline and freedom
3. a strong focus on the group or a strong focus on the individual
4. the length of staying at an institution
5. prioritising the provision of a place to live or psychotherapy or educational services
6. working with an individual in the institution or working with an entire network, i.e. the family
7. the polarity between a spontaneous, more or less natural community or a detailed, carefully planned organisation
8. the polarity between questionable directions – the social exclusion of "bad", "dangerous" individuals and the provision of a warm immediate environment

It is difficult to formulate what the main goal is and what the best approach is in institutional work for both theoreticians and those who put the theory into practice.

We can presume that residential treatment centres are still being ignored by the society, who cannot or does not want to try and find other ways that would allow them to integrate into the immediate environment better.

Total institutions

Goffman defines total institutions as those institutions that completely take-over the time and the activities of its members, so to say, all of the aspects of an individual's life (residence, work, fun, recreation, etc.). It is all-encompassing, which is also symbolised by the barriers that such institutions have, for example psychiatric hospitals, prisons, barracks, and convents usually have some sort of a barrier that separates them from the outside world (1991, 16-17). The inmates bring their culture, habits, and sense of self into the institution, all of which was taken for granted until the admission to the institution. After being admitted the inmates do not receive a new culture in change for their culture, so acculturation is not exactly the right term to describe this process. This is more a process of unlearning and "dis-culturation" so to speak, due to being absent from society for a longer period of time. The point of a total institution is not to defeat the culture of the inmates, as the tension between the home world and the institution world is the most important strategic lever that helps to manage the inmates (*ibid.* 23-24, Flaker 1988, 79). Admission to an institution robs a person of most of the stability that enabled a sense of an identity. With a series of systemic arrangements "the self" changes, mortifies, and severe changes in the person's moral career occur regarding personal beliefs about themselves and significant others. These are only a few of the changes that accompany the modification of an individual's story about himself.

The described processes of modifications and adjustments an individual goes through when being admitted to a total institution touch upon the issue of the modification of identities and stories about yourself. Where do story-telling and shaping an individual's identity come together? Narrative structures allow us to express ourselves and the vastness of fragmented experiences that substantiate our lives; everything is put into some kind of order. There is no other mechanism for structuring experiences that would appropriately present the sense of time that somebody had lived in (Plummer 2001, Ricoeur 2003). Creating a narrative order is essential for giving life a sense, keeping the feeling of self-consistency, and planning for the future. With establishing order and life events interconnecting, our life becomes easier to understand and more manageable. People construct and change their reality, build their identity, and direct their actions towards the future by telling their biographies. Making up stories about yourself is a part of the daily work with the identity of an individual in which the individual reflects his experiences from different perspectives of his identity. The identity of the self is not a typical trait or a combination of the individual's trait, but the self that the person reflexively understands within his biography. The narrativity of identity is the essential means of the individual with which he obtains the integrity of his identity (Ule 2000, 196).

Institutional stories repeat themselves and produce repetitive knowledge. With this they create an institutional memory, but at the same time this is a case of forgetting. By performing anamnesis, the experiences of the patients are left out with their power, story, and knowledge taken away. As Goffman explains, this is necessary for easier management of people.

Foucault states that the transformation of the individual into a, for example, person with a delinquent career enabled disciplines to create a system in which the individual is seen by the use of documentary objectification and visibility. We put the individual into a documentary field where he receives a record and thus becomes a case. With this, we achieve that the

individuals become visible, and after their visibility is established they can be differentiated and sanctioned. The objectification of visibility duplicates in written reports. Each individual receives his document, identity card, and number; disciplinary institutions receive their registers, records, and so on (Foucault, 1984).

Behaviourally disturbed adolescents

The consideration of a child for this kind of care calls for familiarity with the child's biography. Psychosocial and hermeneutical diagnostics are helpful. Classifications of behavioural and emotional difficulties are necessary because they build a bridge between:

- detection and diagnostics,
- triage,
- the course of education or psychosocial assistance, and
- social integration as the goal of the assistance.

Systematic action calls for categorisation as the basis for data analysis and its systematic evaluation, where it is particularly important to examine the family system. Even if the expert does adhere to a specifically set type of classification or systematisation in his approach, he relies on his own knowledge, derived from experience. Post (1997, p. 79) calls these facts inescapable and unavoidable. In professional communication, even subjective concepts can be useful if it is clear how information from various areas was acquired. The necessary data is revealed by the central question: on the basis of which reasons and in which particular fields is educational assistance required because the parents are not providing adequate upbringing? Along with the explanations of the current problems, finding links and explanations in the child's biography is always important (certain illnesses, preoccupation and strain, crumbling relationships and other relationship disorders, for example separation). In general, the status of the family, the social environment, financial, material, and housing conditions have a significant influence on the child's or adolescent's development. The educational style of the parents, their educational capabilities and upbringing in general must not be overlooked. The data must clarify evaluation concepts and educational goals, common points and differences, mistakes, drawbacks, and disturbances. Extra care has to be taken in evaluating the individuals' behaviour to establish that behavioural disorders are not just the result of the nature of a particular situation.

The following is a shortened presentation of Bregant's classification.

Bregant's etiological classification schematic of dissocial disorders is based on the research findings and models of dissocial disorders found in A. Aichorn, G. H. Brandt, F. Redl, I. Bennet, A. Dührssen and E. Künzl (In Bregant 1987). Bregant (1987, p. 8) divides the etiological classification of dissocial disorders into five groups:

1. situational, reactively caused disorder caused by severe strain with a normal personality structure;
2. secondary peristatic disorder caused by disruptions in emotional development
3. with a neurotic personality structure,
4. with a dissocial personality structure;
5. primary peristatic disorder caused by direct environmental corruption and deception;
6. primary, biologically conditioned disorder caused by a damaged central nervous system and psychosis;
7. developmental impairment without the presence of dissocial disorders.

Indicators which influence behavioural and emotional disorders that are explored in the majority of the research (Blandow 2000, Bürger 1998a, Farrington 2001b, Myschker 2002, Ule 2000) have been divided into the following groups:

- socio-economic circumstances (demographic characteristics, population density in the region, unemployment, housing conditions and spatial concentration of social deprivation);
- family (structure, relationships, lifestyle, single parenthood, education, migration);
- school (productivity and efficiency – criteria for children's success rates (Thiersch 1998), education as risk (Beck 2003), reinforcement of social differences (Ule 2000);
- personality characteristics (differences in constitution, particular personal features, endogenous specifics of a person's reactivity (cannot be classified as mental illnesses or as organic brain dysfunctions). Intelligence is also

often singled out as a factor. Elliott (2002) claims that intelligence varies with delinquents in the same manner as with the general population.)

-   Peers (youth subcultures, aimless groups, supportive groups... (Ule 2000).

Children that have grown up separated from their families have been due to the separation deprived of certain rights that are otherwise guaranteed to children and this makes them particularly vulnerable (Žižak and Vizek Vidović, 2004).

Žižak, Koller Trbović and Jeđud (2005) talk about the triple transition of this particular group of children. The first is the transition on a personal level, that is, a child becoming an adult, and the second is a social transition that is related to the broader circumstances of the society in which we live and is so marked by insecurity. These two transitions are typical for all youth, while the third transition is characteristic of the youth that live separated from their families and is related to the transition from living in an institution to living independently. The point when young people leave their families and gain independence is getting more and more delayed and young people in Western societies begin independent life in their late twenties or even early thirties. Arnett (2007) talks about a new phase of growing up that he calls emerging adulthood. The youth that grow up separated from their families do not have this luxury or as Mržek and Krajnčan (2010) say – the system of social interventions does not follow these social changes.

Methodology

The goals and the methods

The following research is based on a qualitative approach that enables the understanding of the daily lives of individuals. The research mainly focuses on how individuals understand and experience themselves, their environment the surround world, which allows a person to discover a new reality (Mesec, 1998).

The general goal of this research is to gain insight into the perspective of youths who lived in the residential treatment centre, while focussing on their admission, the relationship of the institution and on their independent lives after leaving the centre. Aside from the general goal, the specific goals are as follows:

-   To strengthen and describe the experiences of youths related to life in the residential treatment centre
-   To acquire the competencies required for an independent life after leaving the residential treatment centre

The participants in the research

The selection of the participants in the qualitative research is based on a random sample. Because the focus is on the experiences of a person's independent life after leaving the residential treatment centre, the key informers are those who have previously lived in a residential treatment centre. The research involves seven individuals from three different residential treatment centres in Slovenia (*Vzgojni zavod Veržej, Vzgojni zavod Višnja gora* and *Vzgojni zavod Logatec*), four of them male and three female. They lived in a residential treatment centre for a period of two to seven years. The participants' average time spent living in a residential treatment centre is 5.11 years. When the research was conducted, five individuals, all of whom were female, already lived independent lives. One individual lived with his parents, while one was in prison. The average age of the participant when the research was carried out was 29.7 years.

The method of acquiring the data

The data have been gathered by means of a semi-structured interview, which was composed specifically for this research. Prior to this interview, an informal talk was held in which the participants were introduced to the goals and methods of the research. All of the participants gave consent for participating in the research, and the interviews, all of which are recorded, were done individually. All interviewees were able to check the transcribed interviews with the possibility of expanding, clarifying and correcting the transcription. None of the interviewees chose to do so. Most, however, have expressed the wish to see the interviewer a second time and to be informed as to the results of the research.

The method of processing the data

In relation to the processing of the data, what has been used, aside from the research, is a qualitative textual analysis whose goal is to summarise, structure, understand, and explain the empirical material gathered in the process of data acquisition (Novak and Koller Trbović, 2005). The data has been processed in accordance with the following steps:

1. A reading of the transcribed interview
2. Assigning codes to original statements
3. Combining codes into abstract categories
4. Merging the categories under superordinate fields
5. Interpreting the data in accordance with the fields and their respective categories

Displaying the results and discussion

The data are displayed on the basis of the field and its subordinate categories, where the participants' quotations are used to support the results. The processing of data has highlighted two larger fields; or rather, it has been shown that individuals speak about two phases in their lives, the first relating to the time spent in the centre and the second to their subsequent independent lives. The youths describe their independent lives through concrete experiences, as well as through their expectations.

Living in the Centre

Anxieties about what it is going to be like / problems on arrival

On arriving, I knew nothing. What living was going to be like was described to me on the tour, but I didn't remember anything about the building. What's more, everything seemed different to me. I didn't know where this place was and, in the end, I thought it was at the end of the world. I didn't know anyone in the group and I thought that I was getting on everyone's nerves. I felt as though everyone was judging me, or that everyone wanted to do something bad to me, or steal something from me. My room was wonderful. I had wonderful feelings about the bed that I would be assigned and about how everything was neat and tidy. I also remember the TV. And everything was so tidy.

1. Being ill-prepared for the system
2. Having a positive attitude to the living conditions (even if they are bothered by the distance from home)

Problems pertaining to understanding rules

Everything we had to do was utterly illogical. On 21 December and 21 June we had to be in bed by 21:00!? We had no influence over the rules. The rules there have been the same for the past 30 years, according to older residents. The rules are also very untrue to life. I don't understand why we had to do everything so rigidly; even some of the educators were baffled. We worked not knowing what for, and cleaned only because it was time to do so despite everything being spotless.

The rules are not true to life and aren't accepted by the residing youths

Problems with other youths / violence and initiation

I had to be in the same bedroom with a girl who I didn't like at all. I immediately felt that others were plotting against me. I had the feeling that someone would do something bad to me. I couldn't close my eyes throughout the whole night. When I heard of the initiation, I was scared. I got diarrhoea. Then they told me who was boss and that I shouldn't even think of doing anything without telling him prior. The initiation comprised of me searching for sausages blindfolded. I'd never been so humiliated in my life. They acted aggressively towards me and took everything nice I'd brought with me. Things eventually started settling down, but the beginning was hard.

Institutionalised initiation rituals

Accepting and rejecting educators, who ranged from very good to those who punished without cause

I was lucky because I got an educator who was like a mother to me. Another educator was new and young and inexperienced. I couldn't get used to him wanting something from me, as he was weird. The educators were cool, even though some of them humiliated us whenever we did something not to their liking. The educator was a great help to me, I liked him very much. It's a pity he wasn't there when I left the centre. I was lucky not to fall in the clutches of the boss, who was the scariest person ever. Some of them even beat us. My two educators meant everything to me after I'd accepted them.

I soon got the hang of everything – what I needed to say to someone, how I needed to behave in front of someone, and how to treat the other residents. I knew completely the ins and outs of the centre. As much as I wanted to go home, I equally afraid, afraid of my parents, afraid of the group of people I used to hung out with and with whom we did everything imaginable, and afraid of boys, who now saw me differently. At the centre, you only needed to know when to be quiet and when to speak up, when to be at the right place, etc. Everything I learnt at the centre was completely useless once I started living independently. The centre was the world to me. When I was seven, I was so scared of leaving – I couldn't even imagine what it's going to be like, even though I wanted to go home.

1. Educators play an important part in the development of a child. One of the main drawbacks is that they cannot continue being as supportive after the child leaves the institution
2. Learning to leaving at the centre, inadequate skills after leaving the centre
3. A wish for and fear of leaving
4.

Independent life

An unpromising life without a job, without positive age mates and a lack of money

When I started living independently I felt completely lost. I thought I wouldn't be able to cope with it. I think I would've left with the first man who'd tell me he'd have me. I thought everyone knew that I was a kid from a residential centre. No one wanted to give me a job. I thought of going back to Ljubljana, but I didn't know where exactly I'd go to and how I'd do it and I didn't have any money. My ex-schoolmates where either students or already working, while I thought life was over for me after five years of being away. I wanted to start living at the residential centre again, and I even considered suicide. This wasn't the life I was imagining – it was a nightmare. It was horrible – only after five years was I able to prove myself as being capable of (car) refinishing. It was easier after that. If my brother hadn't supported me, I'd definitely have gone astray again. They should have given us someone who we were used to. This was the hardest time in my life, even harder than when I had first arrived at that damned centre. I didn't see my social worker once. That Centre for Social Services was good for nothing else than giving me a ride and officialising my release. They function as nothing other than an end in itself.

1. In the post-treatment period, youths are insufficiently helped by both the centre and the responsible persons on the one hand and by the professional Social Services on the other
2. The youths lack financial, as well as human, support

What is apparent is that despite modernisation, progress, and research results, post-treatment care is still the weakest kind of intervention (Koller Trbović and Mirosavljević, 2005), which should be improved upon in the future.

In a study conducted in Great Britain (Amanfo, Bowley and Miller, 2008), the youths state the following factors they see as important in connection with growing up in out-of-home care and the time spent living independently: the support by and relationships with important persons (that is, knowing that someone cares for them) that they can trust, ask for advice, information, encouragement, and motivation. They also cite a feeling of certainty and control over their lives and choice being a possibility. The authors of the research believe that the key factor for the youths is those experts who truly cared for them. A similar claim is made by Žižak et al. (2012), who conducted research on children living in foster care. The researchers emphasise the importance of the relationship between a child and an expert, and consequently require that an expert, aside from being formally competent, be capable of showing true human regard for a child and his or her life. Other studies based on youths in foster care have been done that emphasise the importance of such a relationship (e.g. Greenen and Powers, 2007). Aside from respecting the importance of the relationship between experts and youths, what is important is strengthen and encourage the youths' ability to establish other relationships outside of the confines of an institution (Sladović Franz and Mujkanović, 2003).

Conclusion

On the basis of the available literature and results of this research, we can justifiably speak of the importance of researching the youths' transition from out-of-home care into independency, with such research being especially focussed on authentic experiences (that is, the users' perception). We believe that such data are especially helpful in the sense that they are authentic information about experiences and feelings that researchers and experts can only speculate on. The insight into the users' perception of independent life shows a multi-layered attainment of independence, which is, on the one hand, difficult, and on the other, filled with feelings of success and a real, on-going, confrontation with daily life. Such research familiarises us with the parts of a person's daily life, shows us that children see institutions positively in spite of criticism and a trend towards deinstitutionalisation which is affecting many institutions. It is not only important where a child is living, but also how he or she is living. If he or she has the chance of establishing a healthy relationship and get the feeling that he or she is important to someone, an institution can be an effective springboard for his or her future life.

The results of our research (as well as those of others) unveil the relatively inadequate nature of social networks mentioned by the youths. In connection with this, it is believed that the youths have, aside from formal interventions, the help of experts whose objective is to offer them support and help them expand their social networks. For this reason, certain foreign practitioners employ the so-called alumni – groups where former users can meet and whose goal is to offer help and mentorship and ease the transition into independence. One of the mentorship programmes for youths leaving care is the British *Prince's Trust Leaving Care Initiative* (Leaving care Mentoring, b.d.), which offers youths the chance to understand their mentors as an integral part in their independent lives – the mentors, in turn, offer their wards accessibility, attention, and informality in comparison with experts. The youths have especially emphasised the importance of a mentor's help in connection with issues pertaining to interpersonal relationships, a feeling of self-respect and an emotional well-being. We highlight the importance of investing in the strengthening of an active participation on the part of the youths with the aim of increasing the feeling of responsibility and control over their lives. We also believe that the youths' inclusion in projects exploring their perspective and the changing (i.e. improving) of their lives further strengthens the possibility of an active participation in society.

An important realisation is that the network should be homogenised so as to offer actual support to youths leaving institutions, to those coming from specific furrows of total institutions, and that accept their new home and new important people but find themselves alone upon leaving.

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The Analysis of Problems in Application of International Financial Reporting Standards in Kosovo

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Abstract

Financial reporting, in terms of the internationalization of business, has a special role because the preparation of the complete and exact information is vital for users of financial statements, to support their decisions. Recent years in many countries there is a tendency towards harmonization of the use of International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS). In this sense IFRS represent a set of accounting standards that enable the compilation of comprehensive and transparent financial reports. In Kosovo, since 2011, with the Law on financial reporting has become mandatory application of IFRS for all entities. Fulfilling this obligation, except different priorities, often presents numerous difficulties for entities in their practical implementation. The practical application of IFRS for entities presents a problem because of the complexity of these standards and frequent changes made by the makers of these standards. Analysis of the collected data enables the detection of the current state of practical implementation of IFRS and problems during the implementation of accounting standards by entities. Based on data collected from the practical problems of economic units, will made recommendations in order to assist professionals in the accounting field, without damaging the quality of financial information.

Keywords: IFRS, financial reporting, accounting standards

1. Introduction

In the globalized capital markets, differences in accounting standards, makes financial statements less understandable and comparable. These differences hamper the ability of efficient capital commitment of investors and creditors.

Application of International Accounting Standards (IAS) assists companies seeking financing, reducing the costs of being in compliance with different accounting standards. In this way it reduces the risk of information for capital providers, as a result of trust in the information of financial statements prepared under International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS).

 In Kosovo since 2011, all large enterprises, small and medium-sized entities, that are limited liability companies, are required to apply full IAS and IFRS to the preparation of financial statements (Law 04 / L -014).

2. Objectives of the study

The application of IFRS / IAS, except priorities of the financial reporting, there are some problems in practice, due to the complexity of these standards. Problems also arise because these standards are changed too often as a result of the global needs of modern economy.

In terms of Kosovo's economy, the application of these standards becomes complicated and costly. Lack of professional staff for the application of the standards increases the problems of applying these standards, especially for small and medium entities. This issue becomes problematic because, based on the current law, all entities regardless of their size, are required to apply full IAS and IFRS for the financial reporting. Therefore, the main purpose of this paper is to make evidence of the level of implementation of international financial reporting standards and the problems that arise in practice in relation to these standards.

3.   Methodology

In the case of data collection for this research, used is critical incident technique (CIT). CIT is a set of procedures that are characterized by collecting data from direct observations of human behavior.

Where researchers faced weak or no theoretical foundations for the phenomenon they studied, they consider the CIT as an appropriate means for developing the conceptual structure for their research (Walker and Truly, 1992).

Critical incident technique helped to identify the topics that appear when accountants assess the problems of implementation of accounting standards.

Survey to identify critical incidents

To collect the necessary information are used surveys. For conducting interviews are engaged colleagues who are working in the profession of accounting and auditing, who interviewed accountants of entities, in order to obtain relevant answers about the questions in the form of interview.

In this connection interviewed 15 accountants of entities, who were asked to respond to an identical question:

"Do you have problems in the application of accounting standards in your entity and what are they?"

From interviews conducted in connection with this problem, made with accountants of interviewed entities, are collected a total of 85 cases of critical incidents (Table 1).

Table 1

	Description	Nr. of incidents	%
1	IAS / IFRS are voluminous	12	14.12
2	Are IAS / IFRS are complicated	11	12.94
3	Problems due to frequent changes of IAS / IFRS	11	12.94
4	Inadequate translation	10	11.76
5	Uncertainty	9	10.59
6	Great divergence between IFRS and local tax laws	7	8.24
7	Management is not interested in implementation of IAS / IFRS	7	8.24
8	The implementation of IAS / IFRS is costly	6	7.06
9	Terminology	6	7.06
10	Discrepancy	4	4.71
11	Other	2	2.35
	Total	85	100.00

The results presented in the table show that the International Accounting Standards are voluminous, which is observed in 12 cases and participates with 14.12% in the total critical incidents found by the interviews conducted. IFRS are complex and change often it is reported in 11 cases of critical incidents. Inadequate translation of IFRS is reported in 10 cases of critical incidents.

Other findings were reported in the number and percentage of their participation in total of critical incident techniques.

Hypotheses

For the design of the hypotheses we are based in cases of critical incidents, obtained from interviews conducted with accountants of economic entities.

These hypotheses are as follows:

H1 = Problems in the practical application of IAS / IFRS in Kosovo are in their complexity and frequent changes.

H2 = Entities have inadequate attitude regarding the implementation of IFRS.

H3 = Small and medium entities must apply IFRS for SMEs.

The research questionnaire

The data obtained from interviews conducted by the method of critical incidents and previous findings from the review of relevant literature in this field, have served as a basis for the design of the research questionnaire.

To test the hypotheses, was designed research questionnaire, which enables the identification of problems faced by entities in the compilation of financial reports. The questionnaires were sent to the accountants of entities in the period January-February 2014. The questionnaires were sent via mail to 180 businesses, and 52 questionnaires were received and were judged useful for the study.

4.   Analysis, data explanations

To test the hypothesis we have processed and analyzed the results of the data collected.

H1 = Problems in the practical application of IAS / IFRS in Kosovo are in their complexity and frequent changes.

To test this hypothesis, we have analyzed the responses to our questionnaire regarding voluminous, complexity and frequent changes of IAS / IFRS (Tab. 2, 3 and 4).

Table 2

Are the IAS / IFRS voluminous?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	8	15,4	15,4	15,4
	n/a	3	5,8	5,8	21,2
	yes	41	78,8	78,8	100,0
	Total	52	100,0	100,0	

Table 3

Are the IAS / IFRS complicated?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	12	23,1	23,1	23,1
	n/a	2	3,8	3,8	26,9
	yes	38	73,1	73,1	100,0
	Total	52	100,0	100,0	

Table 4

Do you have problems due to frequent changes of IAS / IFRS?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	9	17,3	17,3	17,3
	n/a	2	3,8	3,8	21,2
	yes	41	78,8	78,8	100,0
	Total	52	100,0	100,0	

From the above results of the paper can be concluded that the hypothesis H1 that has to do with the complexity of international accounting standards and their frequent changes, it is proven in its entirety, since over 70% of respondents think that the IAS / IFRS are voluminous, complex and change frequently.

H2 = Entities have inadequate attitude regarding the implementation of IFRS.

To test this hypothesis, we analyzed the answers to our questions regarding the disinterest of management for implementation of IAS / IFRS (Tab.5)

Table 5

Is management not interested in implementation of IAS / IFRS?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	22	42,3	42,3	42,3
	n.a	1	1,9	1,9	44,2
	yes	29	55,8	55,8	100,0
	Total	52	100,0	100,0	

As stated above, we conclude that the hypothesis H2 is proven, regarding management's disinterest for the implementation of IAS / IFRS, because 55.8% of respondents answered in favor.

H3 = Small and medium entities must apply IFRS for SMEs.

To test this hypothesis, we have analyzed the responses to our question: should SMEs to apply IFRS for SMEs? Results are presented in the following table:

Table 6

Should SMEs to apply IFRS for SMEs?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	2	3,8	3,8	3,8
	n/a	2	3,8	3,8	7,7
	yes	48	92,3	92,3	100,0
	Total	52	100,0	100,0	

As was noted in the table above, we can conclude that the hypothesis H3 is proven, about the reasonability of implementing the IFRS for SMEs, for small and medium entities, because 92.3% of respondents answered in favor.

Our results are supported by findings of previous studies. MG Baldarelli, Demartini P., Skare ML (2007), have come to the conclusion that the application of IAS in Croatia entities has been low due to their complexity.

 Pacter (2013), has found that SMEs, in case of application of IFRS for SMEs, freed from the burden of applying full IFRS.

Fitzpatrick and Frank (2009) state that SMEs are entities that publish general purpose financial statements for external users and do not have public accountability.

The accounting profession has long struggled with the idea that the financial reporting needs of small, closely held businesses often differ from those required by large, publicly traded companies (Zanzig, & Flesher, 2006).

Standard setters have made their requirements deliberately difficult to implement (Moore, 2002).

Conclusions / Recommendations

Results of this study show that IAS / IFRS are complex and voluminous and their implementation requires certain knowledge by professionals. The current accounting law in Kosovo requires from SME to apply IAS / IFRS, which is completely irrational and illogical.

Most countries in the region and in the whole world in their legislations have regulated this thing so that for SMEs to apply IFRS for SMEs or have adopted national accounting standards for their needs.

Results of this study show that the majority of respondents believed that SMEs should apply IFRS for SMEs. This is reasonable since the IFRS for SMEs is adapted to small and medium enterprises that do not have public accountability, shares which are not traded in financial markets. This standard takes into account the capabilities of SMEs to prepare financial information and the cost of their preparation.

We recommend changes to the current Law on financial reporting in Kosovo, so that SMEs must applying IFRS for SMEs because this standard is suitable for these entities and enables comprehensive and transparent financial reporting.

In order to improve the situation regarding the implementation of IAS / IFRS recommend that professional associations to organize continuous trainings and professional staff participate in regular trainings with regard to these standards.

Results of this study show that the management of entities is not interested in the implementation of accounting standards. This fact is worrying and illogical in terms of the need for comprehensive and transparent financial reporting.

We recommend professional associations to organize meetings with the management of entities in order to make their awareness about the importance of the implementation of IAS / IFRS for financial reporting by watching the possibility of hiring professional accounting staff.

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Gender Equity at Work and the Role of the Legal Factors in Albania

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Abstract

Gender equity in general, and gender equity in the context of workand work relations, has been and remains an important issue, which is sensitive and open for debate.For many scholars the gender equity is the product of social nature factors and those of economic nature . There are also many scholars who associate the degree of gender equity to the role of national or international legal factors, which consist in the role of instruments, actors, and legal institutions. What could explain the upward-downward dynamics of Gender Equity at Work (GEW) observed in Albania? The extent at which the legal factors have determined the dynamics of GEW in Albania reflects the role and degree of influence of the legal instruments, the legislative, the executive, and judiciary. What we observed in the case of Albania are two realities: 1) the availability of the necessary tools guaranteeing the GEW and 2) the active role of the legislature, the judiciary and the executive. This paper analyzes the role of instruments, legislative laws, acts of the executive, and the judiciary decisions for the period 2006-2014, and it concludes that although legal factors have a positive impact in guaranteeing GEW, the latter and its upward-downward trends in Albania, more than with the role and influence of legal factors can and should be explained with the role and influence of social and cultural factors. Gender equity at work in Albania, more than a matter of instruments, laws of the legislative, acts of the executive, or judicial decisions, it remains at a considerable degree a matter of culture and behavior of the individual on a personal level, of the social group , or that of the state institutions.

Keywords: Gender equity at work , the legislative , the executive, the judiciary

INTRODUCTION

Gender equity in general, and gender equity in the context of workand work relations, has been and remains an important issue, which is sensitive and open for debate. Problems in gender relations and respect for gender equity are observed in a number of countries.[1] However, what distinguishes these countries are the differences in the level as well as tendency over time. World Economic Forum (WEF) measures the level and tendencies of gender equity in two ways: 1) as a combination of fields of economy, education, health, and political representation, and 2) according to a specific field[2].

Although in the time period 2006-2014 Albania shows an **increase of** the CGE level[3], when it is compared with other countries of the world, its **performance** results to be weaker, which is shown in its ranking.[4] However, when analyzing performance data of Albania for GEW the dynamic appears to be even more problematic. In 2014, Albania reflected not only a low level of GEW compared to 2006,[5] but also a poorer performance compared with many other countries. [6] In this paper gender equity measured in the four areas mentioned above as a single coefficient will be known as the Combined Gender Equity (CGE), while gender equity measured in terms of employment and labor relations will be known as Gender Equity at Work(GEW).

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[1] The latest report of the World Economic Forum (WEF), presented in 2014, observed Gender Equity in 142 countries.

[2] See World Economic Forum 2006-2014 Reports by Ricardo Hausmann, Laura D. Tyson, Yasmina Bekhouche, and Saadia Zahidi.

[3] In 2006, the coefficient of the CGE in Albania was 0.6607 and in 2014 it was 0.6870. So, Albania has a slight improvement the CGE level with +0.0263, or 3.98%.

[4] In 2006, among the 115 countries surveyed, Albania was ranked the 61st and left behind 47% of the countries, while in 2014, among the 142 countries surveyed, Albania was ranked the 83d and left behind 42% of the countries observed. This shows that Albania has performed worse than at least 5% of countries observed which had had a low coefficient of the CGE before.

[5] In 2006 the coefficient of GEW in Albania was 0.6610, whereas in 2014 it was 0.6530. thus Albania reflects a decline, though a slight one, of the CGE with -0.0080, or 1.21%.

[6] In 2006, among the 115 countries surveyed Albania was ranked the 38th and left behind 67% of the countries, while in 2014, among 142 countries surveyed Albania was ranked the 78th and left behind only 45% of the countries surveyed. Thus, Albania's performance was weaker than at least 22% of the surveyed countries which previously had a bad coefficient of the GEW compared to that of Albania.

Based not only on the level and tendencies that were observed in the case of GEW and not only when analyzed as a separate area but also when compared with CGE, two questions can be raised about GEW. What could explain the dynamics that characterizes GEW, both as level or as tendency? What could explain the significant increase of the observed GEW -whether in the period of 2008-2011, or in 2014? What about the significant decline seen in the period 2011-2013, what can explain it? To what extent can either the decline or increase of GEW be explained with the role of the legal factors?

These questions are the focus of this paper which analyzes the GEW dynamics in Albania from a legal perspective. This paper is structured in the following way. The next section analyzes gender equity at work the role, and influence of the legal instruments in Albania **The second** section analyzes the facts observed in the Albanian reality in the periods 2008-2011 and 2011-2013. The analysis aims at shedding light on the degree of the responsibility of the legal factors in Albania for the upward and downward dynamics observed with regard to GEW. This paper closes with conclusions. Based on the analysis of concrete cases related to GEW, the conclusions will provide an explanation whether the observed dynamics should be attributed to legal factors or other factors.

A brief overview of the literature.

Many researchers, despite their perspective of the analysis, consider gender equity very important because of its impact. From a social standpoint, gender equity affects the quality of life of people, the state of social welfare, health insurance, the capacity of the state to provide social assistance, or human capital,[1] and from an economic perspective, it affects the quality of human resources, labor cost, business development, or relations with customers.[2] Gender equity in the private sector affects the recruitment of talent,[3] business performance, or quality of customer service,[4] while in the context of work, it affects economic growth, worker productivity, human resources, business development, tax revenues to the state budget, or the social security system.[5]

There are also many scholars who associate the degree of gender equity to the role of national or international legal factors, which consist in the role of instruments, actors, and legal institutions. At the international level, legal instruments include the treaties,[6] conventions,[7] norms, statements and recommendations,[8] while actors and institutions include international

[1] Karen Kraal, John Wrench, Judith Roosblad and Patrick Simon (2009), "The ideal of equal opportunities and the practice of unequal chances," pp.10-11, in Karen Kraal, Judith Roosblad, and John Wrench (eds) (2009), *Equal Opportunities and Ethnic Inequity in European Labor Markets: Discrimination, Gender, and Policies of Diversity*, Amsterdam University Press.

[2] Lewis, S. and J. Lewis (1996). *The work-family challenge*. London: Sage Publications; Brekel, C. van den, M. van Klaveren and K. Tijdens. (1999), *The Absence of Women in the ICT-sector.*

[3] Hsieh, C. T., E. Hurst, C. I. Jones, and P. J. Klenow (2012), *The allocation of talent and US economic growth,* unpublished manuscript.

[4] Carter, D., B. Simkins, and G. Simpson (2003), "Corporate governance, board diversity, and firm value," *Financial Review,* Vol. 38, No. 1, pp. 33-53; McKinsey and Company (2008), "A business case for women," *McKinsey Quarterly*, September; Adams, R. B. and D. Ferreira (2009), "Women in the boardroom and their impact on governance and performance," *Journal of Financial Economics*, Vol. 94, No. 2, pp. 291-309; Terjesen, S., R. Sealy and V. Singh (2009), "Women directors on corporate boards: A review and research agenda," *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 320-337; Adams, R. B. dhe P. Funk (2009), "Beyond the glass ceiling: Does gender matter?", *UPF Working Paper Series, ECGI – Finance Working Paper, No. 273/2010 European Corporate Governance Institute, Brussels, available at http://ssrn.com.abstract=1475151; Dezso, C. L. and D. G. Ross (2011), "Does female representation in top management improve firm performance? A panel data investigation," Robert H. Smith School Research Paper, No. RHS06-104, available at http://ssrn.com/abstract=1088182; Nielsen, S. and M, Huse (2010), "The contribution of women on boards of directors: Going beyond the surface," Corporate Governance: An International Review, Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 136-148.*

[5] Karen Kraal, John Wrench, Judith Roosblad and Patrick Simon (2009), "The ideal of equal opportunities and the practice of unequal chances," p. 24 in Karen Kraal, Judith Roosblad, and John Wrench (eds) (2009) *Equal Opportunities and Ethnic Inequity in European Labor Markets: Discrimination, Gender, and Policies of Diversity*, Amsterdam University Press.

[6] Emilie M Hafner-Burton and Kiyoteru Tsutsui (2007), "Justice Lost! The Failure of International Human Rights Law to Matter Where Needed Most," *Journal of Peace Research,* Vol. 44, pp. 407-425.

[7] Suzanne Zwingel (2005), *How do international women's rights norms become effective in domestic contexts? An analysis of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)*, Doctoral Dissertation, Ruhr-University Bochum, http://wwwbrs.ub.ruhrunibochum.de/netahtml/HSS/Diss/ZwingelSusanne/diss.pdf; Beth A. Simmons (2009), *Mobilizing for Human Rights,*Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; Andrew C. Byrnes and Marsha Freeman (2012), "The Impact of the CEDAW Convention: Paths to Equity," *UNSW Law Research*, Paper No. 2012-7, February 20, 2012, p. 5.

[8] Liu Dongxiao and Elizabeth Heger Boyle (2001), "Making the Case: The Women's Convention and Equal Employment Opportunity in Japan" *International Journal of Comparative Sociology,* Vol. 42, pp. 389-404; Petrice R. Flowers (2009), "Gender Equity and Women's

courts and organizations, international committees and commissions, and national states members of international organizations.[1] In a national level, legal instruments include the constitution, national laws, codes, and governmental policies,[2] whereas actors and institutions include the legislative and parliamentary commissions, the executive and public agencies, as well as the judicial system represented by the courts and the judges. [3] Those researchers who highlight the role of the legal factors, attribute the positive impact and the contribute in the improvement and increase of gender equity to such factors.[4] There are researchers who give precedence to the international instruments,[5] because they see them as a reference point for the states in formulating their national instruments. Other researchers emphasize the role of actors, giving priority especially to the national actors, and specifically to the legislative,[6] as the role and impact of international instruments is likely to be greater when national states reflect them in the changes that the national parliament makes in the legislation on gender equity, compared to cases when the national states do not express the will to change legislation. There are also some who bind the effect of legal factors on gender equity with the clear or unclear definition of gender equity standards,[7] the reflection of these standards in national instruments, the acceptance or lack of acceptance of the gender equity standards from the national actors,[8] respect or lack of respect for these standards by the national actors, as well as the implementation of decisions in cases of conflicts with gender character by the national institutions, the society in general, or by the specific segments and individuals.[9]

This paper examines gender equity at work and its dynamics based on three indicators: 1) participation at work, 2) working positions, and 3) salary. Departing from the coefficient that the report of the World Economic Forum (WEF) attaches to the gender equity at work in Albania, the latter is characterized by an increase over the period of 2008-2011, a decline during the period of 2011-2013 and another increase in 2013-2014. The INSTAT data provide a more detailed picture of the dynamics of GEW in three measuring indicators. In the period of decline in 2011-2013, GEW regarding participation at work reflected deterioration either as level or as tendency. In 2013 the level of gender gap regarding participation at work exceeds

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Employment," Chapter 4, pp. 69-112, in *RefuGEWs, Women and Weapons: International Norm Adoption and Compliance in Japan,* Stanford: Stanford University Press.

[1] International Law Association (2002), *Report of the Seventieth Conference*, New Delhi, pp. 507-555; International Law Association (2002), *Final report on the impact of the United Nations treaty bodies on the work of national courts and tribunals;* International Law Association (2004), *Report of the Seventy-First Conference*, Berlin, pp. 621-687; Emerton, Robyn. and Kristine Adams, Andrew Byrnes, Jane Connors (2201), *International Women's Rights Cases*, Routledge Cavendish; Andrew C. Byrnes and Marsha Freeman, "The Impact of the CEDAW Convention: Paths to Equity," *UNSW Law Research*, Paper No. 2012-7, February 20, 2012, p. 1.

[2] Ilana Landsberg-Lewis (eds.) (1998), *Bringing equity home: Implementing the convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women*, CEDAW, UNDP for Women, New York; Visser, J., T. Wilthagen, R. Beltzer and E. Koot-van der Putte (2004), "The Netherlands: from Atypicality to a Typicality", in S. Sciarra, P. Davies and M. Freedland (eds.), *Employment Policy and the Regulation of Part-time Work in the European Union, A Comparative Analysis*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 190-223.

[3] Andrew C. Byrnes and Marsha Freeman, "The Impact of the CEDAW Convention: Paths to Equity," *UNSW Law Research*, Paper No. 2012-7, February 20, 2012, p. 4; OECD (2012), Part I, Chapter 3, "Embedding gender equity in Public Policy," pp. 37-44, in *Closing the gender gap: Act now*, OECD, Paris, France.

[4] Andrew C. Byrnes and Marsha Freeman, "The Impact of the CEDAW Convention: Paths to Equity," *UNSW Law Research*, Paper No. 2012-7, February 20, 2012, p. 2.

[5] Oona Hathaway (2002), "Do Human Rights Treaties Make a Difference?" *Yale Law Journal,* Vol. 112, p. 1935; Ryan Goodman and Derek Jinks (2003), "Measuring the Effects of Human Rights Treaties," *European Journal of International Law,* Vol. 14, pp. 171-183; Varun Gauri (2011), "The Cost of Complying with Human Rights Treaties: the Convention on the Rights of the Child and Basic Immunization," *Review of International Organizations,* Vol. 6, pp. 33-56; Andrew C. Byrnes and Marsha Freeman, "The Impact of the CEDAW Convention: Paths to Equity," *UNSW Law Research*, Paper No. 2012-7, February 20, 2012, pp. 5-6.

[6] Andrew C. Byrnes and Marsha Freeman, "The Impact of the CEDAW Convention: Paths to Equity," *UNSW Law Research*, Paper No. 2012-7, February 20, 2012, pp. 3-4.

[7] Byrnes, Andrew (1997): "Human Rights Instruments," in pp. 50-55, in Andrew Byrnes, Jane Connors, and Lum Bik (eds), *Advancing the human rights of women: Using international human rights standards in domestic litigation*, the Centre for Comparative and Public Law, the University of Hong Kong; Goonesekere, Savitri (2000) "Gender-specific Norms and Standards," in *A right-based approach to realizing gender equity*, Paper, UN Division for the advancement of women;

[8] Flavia Agnes (1997), "The domestic application of international human rights norms relevant to women's human rights: Strategies of law reform in the Indian context," pp. 101-113, in Andrew Byrnes, Jane Connors, and Lum Bik (eds), *Advancing the human rights of women: Using international human rights standards in domestic litigation*, the Centre for Comparative and Public Law, the University of Hong Kong.

[9] P.N. Bhagwati (1997), "Creating a judicial culture to promote the enforcement of women's human rights," pp. 20-26, in Andrew Byrnes, Jane Connors, and Lum Bik (eds), *Advancing the human rights of women: Using international human rights standards in domestic litigation*, the Centre for Comparative and Public Law, the University of Hong Kong.

20%.[1] In the period of decline in 2011-2013, GEW in Albania in terms of the range of positions and sectors that employ women they appeared to be either stable or worsened. According to INSTAT data, men dominate over women not only from the number of positions and sectors occupied by them, [2] but also in the percentage within a specific sector.[3]This paper tries to see if the increasing or decreasing dynamics of the level of GEW that are observed in Albania in the periods of 2008-2011, 2011-2013, and 2013-2014, can be explained by the role of the internal Albanian legal factors.The extent at which the legal factors have determined the dynamics of GEW in Albania reflects the role and degree of influence of the legal instruments, the legislative, the executive, and judiciary. What we observed in the case of Albania are two realities: 1) the availability of the necessary tools guaranteeing the GEW and 2) the active role of the legislature, the judiciary and the executive.

1.1 Gender equity at work, the role, and influence of the legal instruments in Albania

Two facts are observed in the case of Albania**. Firstly,** that Albania possessed the national instruments that protect GEW even before 2006. Table 6 summarizes all national instruments, according to the legal hierarchy, available to the protection of gender equity at work.

TABLE 6 - National Instruments Available to GEW

Instrument	Articles that cover the GEW
The Constitution of the Republic of Albania	17, 18, 42, 43, 49, 54/1, 101, 131/a/f, 132, 134/g,
The Labor Code	105/a, 107, 141, 143, 144, 146/1, 202/2,
Administrative Procedure Code	116c, 117
Civil Procedure Code	31, 32, 36, 47, 153, 154, 610
Civil Code	608, 625

Secondly, we note that during the period 2006-2014, Albania has made efforts to approximate and match its instruments with international standards on a number of cases. **The first case** is the **Constitution** of the Republic of Albania. It reflects its tendency to be in line with the European Convention on Human Rights in its three articles. Article 17/2 evokes the ECHR giving it constitutional status in our domestic law. Article 18 establishes the principle of equity and non-discrimination, determining that "*everyone is equal before the law, and no one can be discriminated for such reasons as gender, race, ethnicity, political opinions, religious or philosophical beliefs, economic, educational, social or parentage.*" While, Article 116 stipulates the prevalence of the international law ratified by the Republic of Albania on domestic laws.

The second case of approximation with the standards of international instruments is the **Labor Code** of the Republic of Albania. Approved by Law 7961, on 12 July 1995, it is based on respect for international standards of labor law protecting the rights and freedom of the parties and two changes were made: Law Nr.8085, on 12 March 1996 and Law no. 9125, on 29 July 2003 . Article 9 determines the prohibition of any discrimination in employment. Article 146/2 stipulates the right of the employee to sue the employer if the contract is terminated without reasonable cause but the employer is released from the burden of proof in order to prove discrimination only if it was proven the exemption based on gender, race, religion, ethnicity, language, political beliefs, economic status, as well as the social, educational status and parentage. There have been several attempts to improve the approximation of the Labor Code with the standards of international instruments.

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[1] In 2013, participation of women at work is 50.1% compared to 70.2% of men, thus -20.1%. See Institute of Statistics in Albania (2014), "Active Economic Population," p. 61, in *Women and Men in Albania,* INSTAT, Albania.

[2] Women are mainly employed in the public health and education, or in the private sector of agriculture and are almost inconsiderable percentage in the sectors of construction, transport, or telecommunications. See Statistical Institute of Albania (2014), "Employment structure by gender and economic activity" p. 72 Women and Men in Albania, INSTAT, Albania.

[3] In specific sectors, the gender gap is higher, in the Construction and Transport in which men occupy 97.3% and women occupy 2.7%, or differently, women have a difference of -94.7% with men; in Telecommunications, where men occupied 80.5% and 19.5% women, or differently, women have a difference of -61% with men; in education, where women occupy 68.2% and men 31.8%, women dominate the sector therefore with + 36.4%, and in Health Care, where women occupy 72.4% and men 27.6%, women dominate the sector with + 44.8%. See Statistical Institute of Albania (2014), "Employment structure by gender and economic activity" p. 72 in Women and Men in Albania, INSTAT, Albania.

Another attempt is the Albanian Constitutional Court in 2007.[1] In parallel opinion of the decision, expressed by member Fehmi Abdiu, it was suggested that Article 146 of the Labor Code be aligned with EU legislation.[2] Alignment has to do with the issue of burden of proof for discrimination and specifies three things: 1) that the employee who claims discrimination is not obliged to prove discrimination, but only to provide the court the necessary doubt that discrimination has occurred, 2) if the employer cannot prove his absence, the court must decide in favor of the employee, and 3) that after presumption for discrimination by the employee, the employer is to prove that the employee has not been discriminated. Therefore, the employer has the burden of proof and the employee only needs to create the necessary doubt to the judge that there was discrimination without being obliged to prove it.

Other attempts to approximate are the recommendations of the Commissioner for Protection from Discrimination in 2012 for some changes in the Labor Code.[3] In the recommendations three suggestions were made: 1) to reformulate the concept of "discrimination" adding causes of discrimination, including sexual orientation and gender identity, according to Law 10221/2010 "On protection from discrimination"; 2) to include other forms of discrimination as "instruction to discriminate", "concern", "victimization", "discrimination by association" and "denial of reasonable adjustment"; and 3) to prescribe the obligation of the employer to ensure equal employment.

The third case is that of the **Administrative Procedure Code**. Approved by Law no. 8485, in May 12, 1999, the Code establishes the principle of equity as one of the basic principles of the functioning of the public administration. Attempts for a new bill aimed at aligning it with EU standards and CEDAW. The Commissioner of Protection from Discrimination has offered three amendments:[4] 1) definition of equity and non-discrimination as basic principles of activity of any public body; 2) harmonization of the causes of discrimination in Article 1 of Law no. 10-221, 4 February 2010, "On protection from discrimination;" and 3) regulating the burden of proof in discrimination cases in accordance with the EU directives and CEDAW. Referring to the EU Directive 97/80,[5] to approximate the Code of Administrative Procedure with the *acquis communautaire* of the EU, the Commissioner has suggested removing the burden of proof for the plaintiff in the case of discrimination on grounds of sex and gender through a section that stipulates that in cases where the plaintiff presents evidence of discrimination, or presumes discrimination, the defendant is obligated to prove that the facts do not constitute discrimination. The Commissioner has suggested that in the case of administrative proceedings the burden of proof should go to the public administration body.

The fourth case is that of the **Civil Procedure Code of the Republic of Albania**. In Article 12 provides that the burden of proof for existence of irrational causes of settlement labor contract is left to the plaintiff.[6] In an effort to align the Code with the EU Directives on equal treatment and non-discrimination,[7] and based on the jurisprudence of the ECJ, the Commissioner has suggested an article which states that during a civil proceeding, the burden of proof is transferred from the plaintiff to the party sued for discrimination (defendant).[8]

Thus, the dynamics of the GEW are observed in relation to the instruments available to guarantee GEW what is seen is a contradiction between the level and trends of GEW in Albania and the range of instruments available to GEW. Although GEW protection instruments have existed before 2006 and during the period between 2006 to 2014 they were characterized by the tendency of expanding their range and approximation to the standards of international instruments, the GEW level, as it was recorded by the WEF, has been low and the general trend of GEW has been the decline if the level of GEW.

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[1] Constitutional Court of Albania, Decision No. 33, 12 September 2007, the case Joint Chambers of the Supreme Court vs. Assembly of the Republic of Albania and the Government of the Republic of Albania.

[2] European Commission, Directive nr. 78/2000, "On the creation of a regulatory frame for equal treatment in employment relationships."

[3] Commissioner of protection against Discrimination, Letter Nr. 360, Prot, Dated on 14 Sep. 2012

[4] Commissioner for Protection against Discrimination, Letter no. 692/1, 30 December 2013, the Ministry of Justice; Commissioner for Protection against Discrimination, Letter no. 894/1 Prot, 24 October 2014 addressed to Mr. Fatmir Xhafaj, Chairman of the Committee on Legal Affairs, Public Administration and Human Rights, near Parliament.

[5] The Directive states that "Member States shall take such necessary measures, in accordance with their national legal systems, to ensure that, when persons who consider that he has become an unfair because of the failure of the principle of treatment equal, brought before a court or other competent authority, facts from which it may be presumed that there has been direct or indirect discrimination, it will be the duty of the defendant to prove that there was no violation of the principle of equal treatment. "

[6] Code of Civil Procedure, Article 12, stipulates: "The party that claims a right, has no obligation, in accordance with the law, to prove the facts on which he/she bases his/her claim."

[7] European Council Directive 97/80; European Parliament and European Council Directive 2006/54 / EC, 5 July 2006, "On the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation."

[8] Commissioner for Protection against Discrimination, Letter no. 294, Prot 10 March 2014 to the Minister of Justice Nasip Naco.

Given the fact that the "instrument" factor generally displays a positive role and influence in favor of guaranteeing the GEW, what can be said is that apparently, the number of the instruments available to GEW has played no significant role in determining the level and trends that GEW has registered in Albania in the period of 2006-2014.

1.2. Gender equity at work, the role, and influence of the legislature in Albania

Even in the case of the legislative activity, expressed in laws that it adopted, two realities were noticed. **First,** the Albanian legislature has been active in enacting laws which include and cover, through specific sections, even the GEW problems, either before 2006 or during the period of 2006-2014. Table 7 summarizes the main laws approved by the legislative before and after 2006.

TABLE 7: LAWS OF GEW TO BE ADOPTED BY THE LEGISLATIVE

	LEGISLATIVE LAWS BEFORE 2006
1991, 08 August	Law no. 7510, "On the access of the Republic of Albania in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights"
1991, 08 August	Law no. 7511, "On the access of the Republic of Albania in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights"
1993, 09 November	Law no. 7767, "On the access to the Convention 'on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women"
1996, 31 July	Law no. 8137, "On the ratification of the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms"
2003, 17 April	Law no. 9052, "On the ratification of the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women"
	LEGISLATIVE LAWS DURING 2006-2014
2008, 24 July	Law no. 9970 "On Gender Equity in Society"
2010, 04 February	Law no. 10-221, "Protection from Discrimination"

The second reality is the tendency observed in the Albanian legislature to legislate, which aligns GEW handling with the standards of international laws and instruments. Thus, all the laws issued before 2006, are formulated in accordance with the standards set by international pacts and conventions. Law No. 7510 reflects the standards of the International Convention on Civil and Political Rights,[1] Law No. 7511 reflects the standards of the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights,[2] Law No. 7767 reflects the standards of CEDAW,[3] and Law No. 8137 reflects the standards of the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms.[4]

Even the laws enacted by the legislature in the period 2006-2014 devote the same attention to international standards, and their tendency is to be more in line with the spirit of the instruments and international laws. Law 9970 "*On Gender Equity in*

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[1] From the ICCPR, the Albanian legislature has incorporated into its law Article 2 that establishes the obligation of States parties "to ensure that all citizens are subject to the protection of the rights provided for in this Convention without distinction of race, color, sex, language, belonging or regional political, ethnicity, social origin, property or birth status "and Article 26, which provides that" to all people are equal before the law, are entitled to the equal protection law without any discrimination, and the law shall prohibit any discrimination and guarantees for the whole, the equal and effective protection against any discrimination."

[2] By this pact, the Albanian legislature has agreed to incorporate in its law assertion that States Parties shall ensure that the economic, social and cultural rights enunciated in the present Covenant will be exercised without discrimination and awareness of some of the rights enshrined in the Convention such as the right to work, trade union rights, the right to social security, or the right to education.

[3] The Albanian Legislative has agreed to incorporate the law retains its attitude towards all forms, direct or indirect, discrimination and disrespect of gender equity and ensuring protection against them.

[4] The Albanian Legislative has agreed to incorporate in its law recognition of the principle of non-discrimination, expressed in Article 14 that the "prohibition of discrimination", closely discrimination connection with the rights set out in the Articles of the Convention and Article 1 of Protocol No. 12 which prohibits discrimination in cases where a person is discriminated against in the enjoyment of any right or benefit under national legislation.

Society" has taken into account the standards of CEDAW.[1] The law hat best expresses the tendency of the Albanian Legislature to legislate in accordance with the standards of instruments and international law is Law No. 10-221 "On Protection from Discrimination." This law guarantees the right of every person to equity before the law, protection of equity by the law, equity of opportunities and possibilities to exercise the individual rights and freedoms, provides protection and regulates the implementation and observance of the principle of equity in connection with an extensive list of causes, and also provides effective protection against discrimination.[2] Above all, this law establishes the institution of the Commissioner for Protection from Discrimination (CPD).[3] Its formulation and content was made n accordance with the standards of a number of international factors and documents,: 1) in the European Convention of Human Rights,[4] with CEDAW,[5] with the standard and handling of ECHR,[6]as well as will the ascquis and the directives of EU.[7]

Considering the feature of the Albanian Legislature to legislate in accordance with the standards of international instruments, it seems contradictory that although laws enacted have favored the guarantee of GEW, the low level and the declining trends of the latter, however, do not display and reflect any positive impact from the role and influence of the Legislature.

1.3. Gender equity at work: the role, and influence of the executive in Albania

In the case of the Executive three observations apply. **First,** we observe a less active role compared to that of the legislature and the Albanian judiciary, either before or after 2006. The normative acts of the Council of Ministers are missing, or are very few in number. Before 2006, an Act of the Council of Ministers concerns the relationship at work is DCM no.360, dated 14 July 2000, "On release from civil service." This act establishes the circumstances of termination of employment for those working in the Civil Service and Public Administration. During the period 2006-2014, the next act of the Council of Ministers is the Normative Act No. 5, September 30, 2013, "On amendments to Law no. 152/2003, 'for civil servants. "And at that time the Council of Ministers has requested and approved by the Albanian Legislature Law no. 178, 18 December 2014, "On amendments and additions to Law no. 152/2013 "for civil servants."

Secondly, the acts and decisions of the Council of Ministers in their formulation are not characterized by the same concern for compliance with the standards of international instruments, as observed in the case of national instruments, the laws of the Legislature, or the decisions of the Albanian judiciary. Consequently, acts or laws initiated by the executive for approval by the parliament have not always been in the spirit of international instruments and standards. In 2014, the Constitutional

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[1] This law has incorporated the CEDAW settings for particular discrimination (Article 4) and the prohibition of discrimination on grounds of sex (Article 6). The law specifically provides Albanian state obligations in relation to gender equity in political representation and public life, representation at the national level, citizenship, trafficking and prostitution, equity in education, employment, health care and reproductive health, economic and social welfare, equity before law, and equity in marriage and family.

[2] Article 1 provides specific causes which provides protection but also protection "for any other reason." Article states that "the law governing the application and observance of the principle of equity with regard to sex, race, color, ethnicity, language, gender identity, sexual orientation, political opinions, religious or philosophical beliefs, economic, educational or social, pregnancy, parentage, parental responsibility, age, family or marital, marital status, residence, health status, genetic predispositions, disability, belonging to a particular group, or for any other reason."

[3] Commissioner for Protection against Discrimination qualified as a legal, public, independent person, responsible for protection from discrimination, and covers discrimination both in the public sector and the private one, such as in relation to groups and institutions as well as in relations among particular individuals.

[4] The law incorporates all the causes listed in Article 14 of the ECHR as well as general comment 18 of the Committee of Human Rights for discrimination by considering non-discrimination, equity before the law and equal protection of the law without discrimination as core principles concerning the protection of human rights; and accepted that as a collaborative state, it will take positive measures to eliminate conditions that cause or foster discrimination prohibited by the Convention.

[5] Article 3 of Law 10-221 "Protection against Discrimination" reflects the standards of CEDAW

[6] Article 1 of Law 10-221 takes into account the relation between the definition given by Article 14 of ECHR about causes of discrimination and interpretation of discrimination by the ECHR as an expression of the differences that are based on a personal characteristic or what distinguishes a person or group of persons from others.

[7] Four EU directives in the field of non-discrimination include: 1) Council Directive 2004/43 / EC, 29 June 2000, on "The implementation of the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin;" 2) of Council Directive 2000/78 / EC, 27 November 2000, to "define a general framework for equal treatment at work;" 3) Council Directive 2004/113 / EC, 13 December 2004, on "The implementation of the principle of equal treatment between men and women and the opportunity to be supplied with goods and services",4) Directive of the European Parliament and of the Council 2006/54 / EC, 5 July 2006, "On the implementation of the principle of equal opportunity and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation" Direct expression of compliance of Law 10-221 with these directives is shifting the burden of proof from the employee to the employer in Article 36, point 6.

Court decided, in Decision No. 5, dated 5 February 2014 to reject and abolished as incompatible with the Constitution and international standards the Normative Act no. 5 of Council of Ministers, dated 30 September 2013 "On Amendments to the Law Nr.152 / 2013 'On the Civil Servant' " as well as Law No. 161/2013 "On approval of the normative act No. 5, dated 30 September 2013 "On Amendments to the Law Nr.152 / 2013' 'On the civil servants' " initiated by the Council of Ministers and approved by the Legislature.[1]

Thirdly, the very role and influence of the executive in relation to GEW appears to be problematic: Acts and Laws initiated by the Council of Ministers coincide with periods of decline of the GEW such as the Normative Act No. 5, as well as the Law approved by the parliament for this act, coincide with the period of 2011-2013 when the WEF has recorded and in Albania a low level and a decline trend of the of level of GEW.

Therefore, in the case of the activity of the executive, although the latter appears less active, it can be said that its role and its impact on the level and trends of the GEW in Albania may be considered either problematic or completely insensitive.

1.4 Gender equity at work: the role, and influence of the judiciary in Albania

Even in the case of the role and influence of the Albanian judiciary three realities can be observed. **The first** reality shows an active role of the judiciary during the period of 2006-2014 in judgment and decision-making process on cases with the object of work relations and gender equity at work. Table 8 lists the litigated cases in three periods: 2006 to 2010, when WEF records an increase of the level of GEW; 2011-2013 in which WEF records a decline of the GEW level; and for 2014, in which WEF records an increase in the GEW level, although the GEW level in 2014 does not exceed the level of GEW that WEF attaches to Albania in 2006.

TABLE 8: DISCRIMINATION CASES OF GEW JUDGED BY THE ALBANIAN JUDICIARY

Period 2006 - 2010 (characterized by increasing the level of GEW)			
2006, 12 December	Durres District Court	Decision no. 2918 - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Work contract
2007, 12 September	Constitutional Court	Decision no. 33 - Joint College of the Supreme Court (JCSC) vs. Executive / Legislative	Equity before the Law
2007, 03 December	Court of Appeal Durres	Decision no. 540 - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Work contract
2008, 21 January	Durres District Court	Order no. 36 - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Enforcement of Decision
2008, 07 April	Bailiff Office in Durres	Request - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Enforcement of Decision
2008, 21 April	Bailiff Office in Durres	Letter no. 864 - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Enforcement of Decision
2008, 05 June	Durres District Court	Decision Nr.1714 - Sinani vs. UAMD	Work contract
2009, 22 April	The Court of Shkodër	Decision no. 1057 - Semanaj vs. the Department of Public Health of Malesia e Madhe	Work contract
2009, 16 July	Court of Appeal of Durres	Decision no. 305 - Sinani vs. UAMD	Work contract
2010, 11 January	Court of Appeal of Shkodra	Decision no. 5 - Semanaj vs. the Department of Public Health of Malesia e Madhe	Work contract
2010, 25 November	Civil Service Commission	Decision no. 127 - Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Work contract

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[1] Constitutional Court, decision No. 5, dated February 5ᵗʰ 2014, on the issue "36 deputies of the Albanian Parliament against the Council of Ministers of the Republic of Albania and the Republic of Albania Assembly. The Constitutional court of the Republic of Albania consisted of Bashkim Dedja (Chairman) and Vladimir Kristo Sokol Berberi, Altina Xhoxhaj, Fatmir Hoxha, Gani Dizdar, Besnik Imeraj Fatos Lulo, Vitore Tusha (members)

2010, 27 December	Bailiff Office in Durres	Letter no. 184/10 - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Work contract
Period 2011 - 2013 (characterized by a decreased level of GEW)			
2011, 01March	Court of Appeal of Tirana	Decision no. 23 - Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Work contract
2011, 24 March	Court of Appeal of Tirana	Decision No.28- Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 11 April	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. 4386- Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 16 May	Prosecution Durres	Denunciation - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 13 June	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. 6552- Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 13 June	Bailiff Office in Durres	Letter no. 09/118 - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 23 June	College of the Supreme Court	Decision no. 986- Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Work contract
2011, 28 July	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. 8314- Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 25 August	Bailiff Office in Durres	Decision no. 09/118- Trupja vs. Maritime directorate	Enforcement of Decision
2012, 01 June	the Court of Tirana	Decision no. 3331 - Kastoria vs. Arts Academy	Work contract
2011, 08 September	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. 9224 - Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 30 September	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. l0335 - Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 03 November	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. 09/118 - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 08 November	Treasury Branch of Tirana	Letter no. 3020 - Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2011, 07 December	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. 13096 - Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2012, 12 January	Bailiff Office in Durres	Decision no. 09/118- Trupja vs. Drejtoria Detare	Enforcement of Decision
2012, 18 January	Treasury Branch of Tirana	Letter no. 3440/2 - Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2012, 16 March	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. 2645 - Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2012, 08 April	Bailiff Office in Tirana	Letter no. 3686 - Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture	Enforcement of Decision
2012, 23 May	Commissioner P.D	Decision no. 11 - S.C. vs. Harry Fultz School	Treatment at Work
2012, 25 May	College of the Supreme Court	Decision no. 1189 - Sinani vs. UAMD	Work contract

2012, 01 June	District Court of Tirana	Decision no. 3331 - Kastoria vs. Academy of Arts	Work contract
2012, 19 July	Constitutional Court	Decision no. 42 - Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture	Work contract
2012, 30 July	Commissioner P.D	Decision no. 13 - F.K. vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier	Treatment at Work
2012, 08 November	Commissioner P.D	Decision no. 21 - F.K. vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier	Enforcement of Decision
2012, 19 November	District Court of Shkodra	Decision no. 51 - Semanaj vs. the Department of Public Health of Malesia e Madhe	Work contract
2013, 20 February	Constitutional Court	Decision no. 4 - Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate	Work contract
2013, 04 June	District Court of Fier	Decision no. 1017 - F.K. vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier	Salary / work position
2013, 18 October	Commissioner P.D	Decision no. 103 - Kosturi vs. Academy of Arts	Treatment at Work
2014 (characterized by increased level of GEW)			
2014, 01 June	Appeal Court of Tirana	Decision no. 3331 - Kastoria vs. Arts Academy	Work contract
2014, 05 February	Constitutional Court	Decision no. 5 - Deputies vs. Executive & legislative	Work contract
2014, 20 February	Appeal Court of Vlora	Decision no. 280 - F.K. vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier	Salary / work position
2014, 30 October	Constitutional Court	Decision no. 2 - Sinani vs. UAMD	Work contract

The second reality tells about the decisions made by the Albanian judiciary, keeping account of the standards of international instruments and cases tried by international court. Even before 2006, the Albanian judiciary has addressed the issue of equity before the law in a number of practices and decisions of the Constitutional Court of Albania.[1] But during the period of 2006-2014, in the decisions of the Albanian judicial, are noticed a number of specific references to the European Convention of Human Rights (ECHR), the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR), or the EU Directives. The most frequent references to the ECHR are those for Article 6 of the ECHR that stipulate the right to a fair hearing,[2] Article 13 of the ECHR that states the right to equal treatment in front of the law,[3] Article 14 of the ECHR that defines the circumstances that constitute discrimination,[4] or Article 41 of EDHR that defines the right to a fair trial.[5] Also, in the decisions

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[1] Some decisions include: 1) Decision No. 11, 8/27/1993, 2) Decision no. 71, 2/12/1998, 3) Decision No. 16, 4/17/2000, 4) Decision no. 171, 30.7.2002, and 5) Decision no. 34, 12.20.2005. For more details about these decisions, see "Summary Decisions" pp. 1992-1997. 91; pp. 1997-1999. 206; 2000 p. 20; 2002 p.184; and 2005 p.289.

[2] This article refers to the Constitutional Court decided in three decisions: 1) Decision no. 42, 19. 07. 2012 (Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture), 2) Decision no. 4, 20. 02. 2013 (Trupja vs. Port of Durres), and 3) Decision no. 2, 20. 10. 2014 (Sinanaj vs. UAMD).

[3] Reference to this article were made in court decisions three different levels: Shkoder Court, Decision no. 1057, 04/22. 2009 (Semanaj v.s DPHMM); The Court of Appeal Vlora, Decision 280, 20.02.2014 (F.K vs. RDHF), and the Constitutional Court, Decision no. 2, 20. 10. 2014 (Sinanaj vs. UAMD).

[4] Reference to this article is observed in a great number of decisions and in all the judiciary levels, constitutional, court of appeal, court of first instance. The constitutional court refers in Decision 33, 12, 09, 2007 (Joint College of the Supreme Court (JCSC) vs. Executive & Legislative); Vlora Court of Appeal refers to Decision 280, 20. 02. 2014 (F.K vs. RDHF); Reference to this article observed in judicial decisions in the courts of first instance: Shkoder Court, Decision no. 1057, 22. 04. 2009 (Semanaj vs. DPHMM), and the Court of Fier, Decision no. 62, 04. 06. 2013 (F.K vs. RDHF). Reference to this article observed in two decisions of the Commissioner for Protection against Discrimination (CPD): 1) Decision 11, 23. 05. 2012 (S.C vs. Harry Fultz School), and 2) Decision no. 103, 18. 10. 2013 (Kastoria vs. Arts Academy).

[5] This article referred to the Constitutional Court Decision no. 42, 19. 07. 2012 (Paluka vs. MBMUK).

of the Albanian Constitutional Court are observed references to the jurisprudence of the ECHR,[1] as well as to the EU Directives for equal treatment.[2]

The third reality that was observed in cases of discrimination and GEW reviewed by Albanian courts reflects the following five features: 1) trial of the same case of discrimination on two or more levels of the Albanian judiciary, 2) accordance among courts of different levels on the decisions taken from them, 3) non-enforcement of the decisions of courts, 4) non-implementation of decisions and recommendations of the Commissioner for Protection from Discrimination, and 5) resolution of the conflict only by the decision of the Constitutional Court. Among the cases that reflect these features, four are the most typical ones: 1) The case of Semanaj vs. the Department of Public Health of Malesia e Madhe, 2) The case of F.K vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier, 3) The case of Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture, and 4) the case of the Trupja vs. the Marine Department of the Port of Durres.

In the case of Semanaj vs. the Department of Public Health of Malesia e Madhe (DPHMM) gender discrimination consists in the removal of Mrs. Semanaj on maternity leave, shortening of job position and termination of the contract and disrespect of the procedures and notification deadlines. The conflict was judged on two levels: the Court of First Instance of Shkodra and the Court of Appeal of Shkodra.[3] The decisions of the two courts were in favor of Mrs.Semanaj declaring the termination of the employment contract to be invalid, and asking the DPHMM to return her to her former place of work, and asking salary compensation for Mrs.Semanaj for all the time since the termination of the contract. DPHMM did not enforce the decisions of the courts and in order to ensure the implementation of the decisions it was necessary the issuance of an order for the Bailiff Office of Shkodra. This institution took the necessary actions to urge the PHDMM to implement court decisions.[4]

In the case of F.K. vs. the Regional Directorate of Health Fier (RDHF), it was about a direct gender discrimination and victimization. Mrs. F.K. initially was lowered in her position from "head of the sector" to "nurse", and was transferred from her previous place of work in another city, her salary was reduced by approximately 50%, and then she was completely dismissed from work. In her place was appointed a male person without the relevant education and experience for that position. The conflict was handled by the Commissioner for Protection from Discrimination,[5] and the court of two levels: District Court of Fier, and the Court of Appeal of Vlora.[6] Both the Commissioner and the courts issued decisions in favor of F.K. They asked RDHF to return Mrs. F.K to work, back to her previous position as "Head of the Sector" and indemnify Mrs. F.K. for the period she was left without work. The Commissioner requested report within 30 days after the decision of the measures taken by RDHF. The latter did not implement any decision and for this reason RDHF was fined by the Commissioner with 60,000 new ALL.[7]

The case of Paluka vs. the Ministry of Agriculture, Nutrition and Consumer Protection (Ministry of Agriculture), was about gender discrimination and termination of labor relations with Mrs. Paluka without respecting the legal process. The conflict was judged by the Civil Service Commission[8] and the Court in three levels: the Court of Appeals of Tirana,[9]

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[1] Constitutional Court Decision 33, 12.09.2007 (Joint College of the Supreme Court [JCSC] vs. the Executive & Legislative).

[2] Decision no. 33, 12.09.2007 (Joint College of the Supreme Court [JCSC] vs. the Executive & Legislative), Albania's Constitutional Court refers specifically to the EU Directive 78/2000 "On the establishment of a regulatory framework for equal treatment at work relations."

[3] Decision no.1057, 22. 04. 2009, the Court of Shkodra, Semanaj vs. Department of Public Health of the Great Highland; Decision 5, 11. 01. 2010, the Appellate Court of Shkodra, Semanaj vs. Department of Public Health of the Great Highland.

[4] Decision no.51, 19. 11. 2012, the District Court of Shkodra.

[5] Decision no.13, 30. 07. 2012, the Commissioner for Protection from Discrimination, FK vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier; Decision no. 21, 08. 11. 2012, the Commissioner for Protection from Discrimination, FK vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier.

[6] Decision no.1017, 04. 06. 2013 Fier District Court, FK vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier; Decision no. 280, 20. 02. 2014, the Court of Appeal Vlora, F.K. vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier.

[7] Decision no. 21, 08. 11. 2012, the Commissioner for Protection from Discrimination, F.K vs. Regional Directorate of Health Fier.

[8] Decision no. 127, 25. 11. 2010, the Civil Service Commission, Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection (Ministry of Agriculture).

[9] Decision no. 23, 01. 03. 2011, the Court of Appeals of Tirana, Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection (Ministry of Agriculture); Decision No.28, 24. 03. 2011, the Court of Appeals of Tirana, Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection (Ministry of Agriculture).

the Civil College of the Supreme Court [1] and the Constitutional Court of Albania.[2]Both the Civil Service Commission and the courts favored Mrs. Paluka. The Civil Service Commission changed the disciplinary measures given by the Ministry of Agriculture of "dismissal from work" to "written warning," and asked the Ministry of Agriculture to return Mrs. Paluka to her previous position and to compensate for the time left without work. Both the Court of Appeals in Tirana and the Civil College of the Supreme Court, made the same decision, as also did the Civil Service Commission, favoring Mrs. Paluka. The Ministry of Agriculture refused to enforce the decisions of the Commission and the Court. It opposed and prevented the execution of the orders of the Bailiff Office and those of the Treasury Branch of Tirana. The Bailiff Office of Tirana, during the period of 2011-2012, sent to the Ministry of Agriculture nine letters to give notice and also asked it to voluntary enforce the decision, [3] and also requested forced execution,[4] enforcement of the executive title,[5] and measures were taken for the execution of the decision.[6] The Bailiff Office of Tirana also sent to the Treasury Branch of Tirana two letters, one for conservative seizure,[7] and another one for the measures taken by the Treasury.[8] The Treasury Branch Tirana, in both letters, informed Bailiff Office of Tirana to block the budget funds of the Ministry of Agriculture.[9] Despite the court's decision and the actions of the Bailiff Office of Tirana and the Treasury Branch of Tirana, the Ministry of Agriculture refused to implement the decisions of the courts and to indemnify Mrs. Paluka according to the amount fixed by the courts. In an order addressed to the Treasury Branch of Tirana, the Ministry of Agriculture started conducting a monthly payment for the compensation of Mrs. Paluka, but it was several times lower than the amount ordered by the court.[10/100] The Ministry of Agriculture is obligate to fully implement the decisions of the courts only after the decision of the Constitutional Court of Albania.[11/101] The Constitutional Court, as well as the courts of lower levels, ruled in favor of Ms Paluka. Besides the obligation of the Ministry of Agriculture to implement the decisions of other courts, the Constitutional Court in its decision reminds the Ministry of Agriculture of the fact that state institutions are obliged to enforce the final judicial decisions and that this obligation derives directly from the Constitution. The state institutions cannot put into question the fairness of the final judicial decisions and they have to implement them. Also, the execution of the decisions cannot be extended indefinitely.

The issue of Trupja vs. Maritime Directorate in the Port of Durres, is about directly discrimination, contract termination and dismissal of Mrs. Trupja, and disrespect for both the legal process and the decisions of the courts. Also this conflict was judged by three degrees of judiciary: Durres District Court,[12] Court of Appeal of Durres, [13]Albania's Constitutional courts.[14]As the Court of First Instance, the Court of Appeal also took a decision in favor of Mrs.Trupja. They have asked the Maritime Administration to return Mrs.Trupja to work and be compensated by paying for the entire period of leave without work. During the period 2008-2012, the Maritime Directorate refused to implement the court order. It also denied

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[1] Decision no. 986, 23. 06. 2011, the Civil Division of the High Court, Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection (Ministry of Agriculture).

[2] Decision no. 42, 19. 07. 2012, the Constitutional Court of Albania, Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection (Ministry of Agriculture).

[3] Bailiff Office of Tirana, Requested the MAFCP for voluntary executions, Letter no. 4386, 11. 04. 2011.

[4] Bailiff Office of Tirana, Request for the MAFCP for forced executions, letter no. 6552, 13. 06. 2011, letter no. 8314, 28. 07. 2011, Letter no. 2645, 16. 03. 2012.

[5] Bailiff Office of Tirana, Requested the MAFCP for the execution of the executive title, Letter no. 8314, 28. 07. 2011, Letter no. 9224, 08. 09. 2011, Letter no. 10335, 30. 09. 2011.

[6] Bailiff Office of Tirana, informing MAFCP to take measures to execute the executive title, Letter no. 2645, 16. 03. 2012, and Memo no. 3686, 08. 04. 2012.

[7] Bailiff Office of Tirana, Order for the Treasury Branch of Tirana for conservative seizure to the Ministry of Agriculture, Letter no. 13 096, 07. 12. 2011.

[8] Bailiff Office of Tirana, Tirana Treasury Branch, Request for information about the measures taken by the Treasury for execution, Letter no. 3686, 08. 04. 2012.

[9] Treasury Branch of Tirana, Bailiff Office of Tirana blocking budgetary funds of the Ministry of Agriculture, Letter no. 3020, 08. 11. 2011, Letter no. 3440/2, 18. 01. 2012.

[10] Ministry of Agriculture, Letter no. 125, 06. 03. 2012, the Treasury Branch Tirana, For payment of 10,000 new ALL per month to Mrs. Paluka.

[11] Decision no. 42, 19. 07. 2012, the Constitutional Court of Albania, Paluka vs. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Protection (Ministry of Agriculture).

[12] Decision no. 2918, 12. 12. 2006, the District Court of Durres, Mrs.Trupja vs. Durres Port Maritime Directorate (DPMD); Execution Order no. 36, 21. 01. 2008, the District Court of Durres, Mrs.Trupja vs. Durres Port Maritime Directorate (DPMD).

[13] Decision no. 540, 03. 12. 2007, the Court of Appeal of Durres, Trupja vs. Durres Port Maritime Directorate (DPMD).

[14] Decision no. 4, 20. 02. 2013, the Constitutional Court of Albania, Trupja vs. Durres Port Maritime Directorate (DPMD).

its responsibilities and did not respond to six requests of the Bailiff Office of Durres for voluntary execution,[1] for the legal obligations,[2] for mandatory execution,[3] fining for negligence to act,[4] criminal charges,[5] and seizure.[6] The Marine Department implemented the court orders only after the decision of the Constitutional Court of Albania. The latter, in its decision, reminded the Maritime Directorate that the execution of a decision constitutes an essential element of the rule of law and the very notion of a fair trial. Every state body is obliged to take the appropriate measures for their implementation. Also, execution within a reasonable time of a final decision is part of the right to a fair hearing and only after the execution of the decision may the individual consider his right fully respected. Although delays in execution of a judgment may exist, delays cannot be to such an extent as to undermine the essence of the law. No citizen should wait indefinitely for the realization of a right recognized by a court decision. The execution of the decision represents a stage of the same process, thus the non-execution of a final decision by the Maritime Directorate was found inexcusable. Public or private authorities have an obligation for the implementation of the final court decisions. In this sense, the refusal of the Maritime Directorate to implement the order for execution of the court decisions for a period of 4 years and 10 months is totally unacceptable.

Some Conclusions

The GEW in Albania has been characterized not only by an increase but is whirling between growth and decline. Even in the late 2014 the GEW level results lower than in 2006. The question that emerges from this analysis then is: If the increase-decrease dynamics of the trends and levels in Albania cannot be explained with the role of the legal factors, more precisely, only with the role of the legislative instruments, the executive, or the Albanian judiciary, what can explain the increase-decrease dynamics of the GEW in Albania? This paper concludes that although the Albanian legal factors can be considered a positive force for the GEW in Albania, whether in terms of the role, whether in terms of the character of their influence, again, they cannot fully explain what happens to GEW in Albania. The explanation may be sought in other non-legal factors. The analysis of the role of the courts in this paper shows that there is reason to believe that explanation in the GEW in Albania cannot be complete without including in the explanatory model the role of cultural and social factors. In discrimination cases analyzed above, we saw that almost all courts of all levels had made decisions in favor of Gender Equity. Yet decisions were not implemented. The subjects that did not enforce the decisions were not only private legal entities but also public legal entities and institutions such as the Ministry of Agriculture. This results in the conclusion that GEW in Albania, more than a matter of instruments, laws of the legislative, acts of the executive, or judicial decisions, it remains at a considerable degree a matter of culture and behavior of the individual on a personal level, of the social group , or that of the state institutions. The lack of a full understanding and awareness of the GEW from the individuals and social groups or institutions and therefore everyday life conduct and relations through the aware or unaware negligence of the principle of gender equity, leads to a continuing presence of the cases of gender discrimination regardless of the public or private area, outside or inside the institutions. Cultural problems with understanding, awareness, customs and practices, can perhaps best explain why GEW in Albania whirls around an increase and decrease of its level.

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[1] Bailiff Office of Durres, Marine Department, Request for voluntary execution, Letter no. 864, 21. 04. 2008.

[2] Bailiff Office of Durres, Marine Department, Request for a term of 10 days for information about the undertaking of the rights and duties of the former Director of the Port of Durres, Letter no. 184/10 27. 12. 2010.

[3] Bailiff Office of Durres, Order Maritime Directorate for compulsory execution, Letter no. 09/118, 13. 06. 2011.

[4] Bailiff Office of Durres, 50,000 new ALL fine to the Maritime Directorate for negligence to act, Decision no. 09/118, 25. 08. 2011.

[5] Bailiff Office of Durres, Criminal charges against the General Director of the Directorate Marine, Letter no.09/118, 03. 11. 2011.

[6] Bailiff Office of Durres, seizure order for operating expenses to the Maritime Directorate for the amount of 936,849 new ALL Decision no. 09/118, 12. 01. 2012.

The Meanings of Prefix "Over"

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Abstract

The rules of word formation undergo changes from day to day. Prefixes become productive or lose their productivity. The aim of this paper is to examine the various meanings of prefix over- in English. Although it has its specific distinct meaning which is 'excessive' or too much, it can also imply other meanings. The prefix over- is used to form many different words, so it is very productive in constantly forming new words. Some of the words with over- represent recent coinages and some are very old dating back to the 16th century.

Keywords: prefix *over-*,meaning,English,word formation.

Introduction

According to Plag (2002: 123),prefixes in English can be classified semantically into four groups. In the first group are the prefixes that quantify over their base and have the following meanings:

'one'(*uni-,unilateral*),'two'(*bi-/di-,bilateral,ditransitive),*'many'(*multi-/poly-,multi-purpose,polyclinic*),'half'(*semi-,semi-detached*),'all'(*omni-,omnipotent*),'small'(*micro-,microwave*),'large'(*macro-,macroeconomics*),'to   excess'(*hyper-/over-,hyperactive,overestimate*),'not sufficiently' (*undernourish*).

In the second group are numerous locative prefixes such as:

'circum'around'(*circumscribe*),*counter*'against'(*counterbalance*),*endo*'internal(*endocentric),epi,*'on,over'(*epiglottis*),

inter'between'(*intergalactic*),*intra*'inside'(*intravenous*),*para-*'along   with'(*paramedic*),retro'back'(*retrospection*),*trans-*'across'(*transcontinental*).

In the third group there are temporal prefixes expressing notions like 'before' (*ante-,pre* and *fore-,*as in *antechamber, premedical, forefather*),'after'(*post-,poststructuralism*),or 'new' (*neo-,neoclassical*).

A fourth group consists of prefixes expressing negation (*a(n)-,de-,dis-,in-,non-,un.*

Numerous prefixes do not fit into any of the aforementioned groups, however, and express diverse notions, such as 'wrong,evil'(*mal-,malfunction*),'badly,wrongly'(*mis-,misinterpret*),'false,deceptive'(*pseudo-,pseudo-intellectuals*), 'together, jointly'(*co-,coeducation*),'in place of'(*vice-,vice-captain*) etc.

The large majority of prefixes do not change the syntactic category of their base words. Moreover,they can be attached to more than one kind of syntactic category (verb,adjective,or noun) and do not influence the stress placement of their bases.

On prefix *over-*

There are three master patterns of word formation in English:affixation,conversion and compounding. In the process of affixation, prefixes and suffixes are added to the bases to form a new word. They may change syntatic category of the base form. Conversion allows transformation of one category into another without changing the base form while compounding allows adding one word to another to form a new word. Even though the word formation relies on certain rules,the rules themselves may be subject to change. Some affixes may become more productive, and some may lose their productivity. For example,old English affix *-th* is no longer used in formation of new words, but it is kept in nouns such as *warmth,width*,etc.

Apart from Latin and Greek prefixes, English uses German prefixes to create new words. The most productive German prefixes are *in-,out-,up-,down-,under-,*and *over-.* One of the characteristics of these prefixes in standard English is their mutual exclusiveness. But it would be wrong to say they are always mutually exclusive. The exception to the rule is found in spoken English. For example,if we imagine a person who is supposed to be overdressed but does not reach that degree of overdress,we might describe that person as *underoverdressed* (Lehrer 144). According to the same author, if one wants to emphasise the meaning of these German prefixes, they can double the prefix and make a word like *overoverachiever.*

Even though the original meaning of German prefixes is local,they can have other meanings too. Our intention here is to show all possible meanings of prefix *over-.*

Prefix *over-*appears in old English. Back then it was used in a combination with verbs as in *oferclimban*,with nouns *oferslop,*with adjectives *oferceald.* At the time,it appeared in the form of *ofer-*, but also in the form of *ouer* as in *ouerbide* (survive),commonly in the verb formation.

The majority of old English forms disappeared in the Middle Ages, and the forms with prefix *over-*we use today appeared after 1550 (Brenda 2014: 70). Yet,in that period there were still words formed with prefix *ouer-:ouerfilm,ouerfineoverfloate.*

Prefix *over-* has always been used for formation of new verbs in English, the verbs Biber (Biber et al 2007: 403) claims are rare. Consulting *The Oxford Dictionary* he gives the examples of verbs derivationally formed by prefix *over-,* and divides them into:

the ones that appeared before 1650: *overeat, overfeed, overpay, overshoot, overstay, overstrain, overtax, overweigh,*

the ones that appeared after 1920:*overextend,overgraze,overprotect,overprovide*.

Certain words with prefix *over-* were introduced in English by eminent English theologians and writers. For example, J.Wycliffe(1320-1384),famous British theologian and reformer,translating the Bible,brought into English the following words:*overabound,overcarry,overcover,overgive.*

J.Milton (1608-1674),one of the most important English writers used the following *over-*words in English:*overarch, overripe,overstudy*. He made the verb *overbody* (to give too much body to someone) from the noun *overbody*, *and the* adjective *overawful* (too full of awe toward someone) from the verb *overawe*.

W. Shakespeare (1564-1616) enriched the English language adding the following *over-* words to it:*overblow, overcool,overcount,overcredulous,overeye,overglance,overhang,overhold,overpost,overred,oversize,oversnow.*   Like Milton,Shakespeare first used the word *overearnest* (although the word was first introduced by Sidney in Arcadia in the form of adverb), the word *overcharged* (from verb overcharge) and many other.

Quirk (1985:1542) classifies prefix *over-* under prefixes of degree and size claiming that his primary meaning is 'excessive'. When it means '*too much', over-* freely combines with verbs and adjectives as in:*overeat,oversimplify, overconfident,overdressed.* In his second-common meaning '*from above' it is usually added to verbs:overflow,overshadow, etc.*

In a great number of examples analysed for the purpose of this study prefix *over-* meant '*too much'* and it was combined with verbs (1) and (2), nouns (3) and (4), adjectives (5), adverbs (6) and numbers (7):

1. Like olive oil, though, rapeseed oil needs to be used with care as its unique flavour can **overpower** a dish or dressing.

2. The FDA's decision came on the heels of the discovery that American women were routinely **overdosing** on Ambien.
3. Pennycook is trying to turnaround the Co-op which lost £2.5bn in 2013 after the problems in the bank and an **overexpansion** of its supermarket arm.
4. "Reluctant governments should realise that **overemphasising** the 'pull effect' is not only factually incorrect but also morally indefensible," said the Centre for European Reform thinktank on Thursday.
5. Without this, patients will continue to turn up at A&E in desperation, and will place more pressure on an already **overstretched** service.
6. Kickstarter-funded adventure Broken Age told two stories in old-school "point and click" style: one about a boy stuck on a spaceship with an **overbearingly** maternal AI, the other featuring a girl about to take part in a ritual called the Maiden's Feast in which she gets fed to a monster.
7. More top-slicing is likely and there is the possibility that Whittingdale will revisit the idea of the BBC paying £500 cost of free TV licences for the **over-75s.**
8. Although the commonest meaning of prefix *over-* is '*excessive',there are some other meanings that can be* conveyed with this prefix such as local, temporal, general, meanings of failure, meanings of limit, meanings of power and metaphorical meanings:
9. With Luis Suárez out with a calf strain, Pedro then tried an **overhead** kick but missed the ball and Dani Alves drew a save from Jan Oblak from 30 yards.
10. Soak the beans **overnight** and cook per instructions on packet or click here for the River Cafe recipe. In a large thick-bottomed pan, heat 2 teaspoons of olive oil.
11. While its revenue has grown consistently, peaking at $75bn in 2013, its **overall** profit has remained flat due to heavy reinvestment of income from mature services into growing areas.
12. Rules that were made to defend the rights of the less wealthy are being **overlooked**.
13. It has transformative properties too: even on an **overcast** day, this gilded beacon casts a warm aura over the entire site.
14. During one very speedy visit to a factory where we were asked to wear blue **overalls**, one minister thought it funny to say: "It would be better if you weren't wearing anything underneath."
15. My clothes are tatty. My face is too spotty and my laugh too loud. I **overhear** friends asking why I put up with it.
16. Calling for a complete **overhaul** of how the project is managed, the report stated: "Proper planning must be in place and managed, which is not the case presently."
17. His comments had stated that, instead of feeling sorry for themselves and dwelling on the segregation and racism they faced in the past, African Americans should work harder to **overcome** their troubled history.
18. The pivotal year, when hip-hop went **overground**, was perhaps 1988, when Yo! MTV Raps aired and beamed it across middle America. Nelson George (old school: "before 1985"), a hip-hop commentator since the genre's infancy, remembers first hearing the term "in the 1990s when the west-coast scene was happening and there was a sense of eras passing".
19. Tory sources say the significance lies in the **overlapping** remits of Gove's new department and that of Theresa May's home office.
20. Industry experts estimate that around 62% of young adult fiction is bought for **over-18s**.
21. Later in the same month he and his wife, who used to sing his songs delightfully, gave some piano and song recitals in London; while in August he conducted the performance of his **overture** "In Autumn" at the Birmingham Festival.
22. Techno-optimist Kevin Kelly of Wired celebrates the coming of our robot **overlords**, arguing that they wil free us to do more fulfilling and higher-value jobs in the future.

The meaning of *over-* from the phrase *overhead kick* (8) is local and means the kick from above someone's head; *over-* in *overnight* (9) has temporal meaning and means during the night,but it can also denote something that happens suddenly; *over-* in *overall profit* (10) means total; *over-* in *overlook* (11) means to miss but in can also mean to have a view of something usually from above; *over-* in *overcast* (12) means dark with clouds; *over-* in *overalls* (13) denotes a piece of clothing worn over other clothes to protect them; *over-* in *overhear* (14) to hear what other people are saying unintentionally, *over-* in *overhaul* (15) means to change to improve; *over-* in *overcome* (16) means to control something that prevents you from achieving something; *go overground* (17) has a metaphorical meaning and means become popular, *over-* in *overlapping* (18) means selective inclusion; *over-* is combined with a number (19) to form a noun which is always in plural

and refer to people who are older than the number mentioned; *over-* in *overture* (20) denotes the introduction into a large piece of music;*over-* in *overlord* (21) is combined with a noun to denote someone who has power. Usually *over-* of this type is combined with nouns and verbs to form new verbs. Verbs formed in this way express the idea that someone has power over someone else as in :*overcome,overpower,override,overrule,overrun,overthrow,oversee,overturn,overwhelm.* Nouns with this power impact are combined with king,lord,ruler:*overking,overlord,*overclass,overruler.

Some words with prefix *over-* have a meaning *'to go beyond': overtake, overtime, overshoot* while some mean to fail*: overbalance, overlook, oversight.*

The study we conducted also comprises words with prefix *over-* pertaining to English for specific purposes[1]. The great majority of *over-*words in the field of business English means '*excessive'* or '*too much' as in*: *overcapacity,overleveraged,overproduction,overspent,overload* but the prefix *over-* in some words have other meanings too,for example, word *overheads* used in business English refers to indirect costs (not related to production but to administration).

Words with prefix over- combine with nouns and adjectives in medicine. Words formed in this way indicate that the quality exists in immense amounts:overactive,overdiagnosis,overdose,overexertion,overhydratation,overnutrition, oversensitive,overstimulation,overweight. Here again, some words with prefix over- have a meaning that is not that of excess like the word overbite which describes a condition in which someone's upper teeth are too far in front of their lower teeth,or the word over-the-counter which is usually combined with drugs or remedies (drugs that can be obtained without a prescription).

In the language of law, certain words with prefix *over-* mean to change:*override,overrule,overturn.*

In the language of sport, words with prefix *over-* may have local meaning (*overarm,overhead*),some can have the meaning '*too much' (over-swing and over-club)* or the meaning do pass or to do better than, after catching up with someone (*overhaul*). The word typical of newspaper reporting is *over-by-over,*which is also found in our corpus.

Prefix *over-* combines more willingly with certain semantic items which are classified in the following table:

Garment	Power	Feelings	Food	Cover	IT	Colour	Biology
overalls	*overclass*	*oversad*	overdrink	overlay	overclocking	overgreen	overstorey
overblouse	*overking*	*overconcern*	overeat	overpaint	overscan	overred	overplant
overcoat	*overlord*	*overdear*	overcook	overglaze	overtype	overbright	overseed
overshoe		*oversensitive*	overdo	overdye		overcolour	overcrop
overskirt		*overeager*	over-egg	oveprint			overgrass
overdress		*overfussy*	overboil	oversite			overharvest
overgarment			oversup	overwrap			overcultivation
overclad				overgild			
overknee				overveil			

Conclusion

Although linguists (Quirk 1985, Plag 2002) argue that the main meaning of prefix *over-* is 'excess', there are other meanings conveyed with this prefix:temporal,local,metaphorical etc. *Over-* can be freely added to different syntactic categories which makes it a very productive prefix. Almost all possible meanings of the prefix *over-* are illustrated in the previous headings. Yet, there are some other meanings that may be conveyed with this prefix but they are not exemplified here.

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Detection Techniques of Fraud in Accounting

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Abstract

The problem relating with the accounting fraud is that it has not stopped despite the numerous changes that have been made in legislation and strict controls by the internal and external auditors. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to asess strategies and techniques available to use for accounting fraud detection. Also, this paper aims to assess the impact of fraud, and the role of auditors and the media in combating this phenomenon. This research will be carried out using secondary data because it fits better the aim and purpose of the research. Data used derived from a range of sources that have a very high degree of credibility and reliability, and which have been carefully reviewed by other relevant bodies for accuracy and quality purposes. This includes databases and various publications. In addition, the data also stem from individual and group publications made by renowned scientific researchers who have solid expertise in their field of accounting. Narrative analysis is used to analyze the data in this paper. This research will conclude that techniques used for the detection of fraud in accounting and various strategies can positively influence the treatment of this phenomenon due to the alarm buzzer for possible fraud. However, vigilance is necessarily required to add all parties involved in the corporation through the use of different anti-fraud programs to stimulate the accountability of the management executives and employees through informants to fight this destructive phenomenon.

Keywords: fraud, technique, auditors, scandals, control, financial statements, auditing

1.0 Introduction

Because the financial statements are the basis for measuring the performance of a company, accounting fraud not only damages the confidence of investors, but also harms all management analyzes in regards to business performance.

Fraudulent activities in connection with the preparation and disclosure of corporate financial statements have received a significant amount of attention in the aftermath of the Enron scandal in the US. This scandal has left un-imaginable consequences in the financial world and has had significant influence on the policies of oversight to avoid potential scams that may hit the market occasionally.

Financial statements fraud, however, are not isolated only in the corporate sector. Such can be found within the entrepreneurial subjects in all sectors of the economy, including line ministries and non-governmental organizations or non-profit.

Although there are some companies that investors consider to be very safe, trust in them has been shaken from a large number of financial frauds in US corporations. Large investment banks and independent public accountants have also been involved in these frauds. To ensure the business of the companies in question, investment banks have presented false tips to the public. Scams are also associated with increased earnings consulting services, which has led to increased conflicts of interest between the role of audit and advisory role

The problem in connection with the accounting fraud is that it does not stop despite the numerous changes that have been

made in legislation and strict controls by the internal auditors and external. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to address strategies and techniques available to use for detecting accounting fraud. Also, this paper aims to assess the impact of fraud, and the role of auditors and the media in combating this phenomenon.

2.0   Literature Review

2.1   What is meant by fraud in the financial statements?

The American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA) defines fraud as an intentional act that results in an incorrect material statement to the financial statements. AICPA definition considers two categories of erroneous statements in financial statements (AICPA Auditing Standards Board, 2002). These include abnormalities arising from fraudulent financial reporting such as falsification of accounting records and false statements resulting from misappropriation of assets as asset theft or fraudulent expenses.

Definitions of financial statement fraud tend to be closed in the latter. The essence of these financial statements defines fraud as a deliberate attempt to mislead or misguide a person or a group of non-distort or give the amounts and disclosures in the financial statements (Rezaee, 2002).

Schemes commonly associated with fraud in the financial statement are as follows:

- Forgery, alteration, or manipulation of l financial records, supporting documents, or business transactions.
- Deliberate material omission or misrepresentation of events, transactions, accounts or other important information from which financial statements are prepared.
- Intentional misuse of accounting principles, policies and procedures used to measure, recognize, report, and detect economic events and business transactions.

2.2 Causes of Financial statements fraud

Financial statements fraud reported recently and the fall in the stock market have shown the importance of the quality of financial reporting and auditing, as well as the meaning of what may have caused the occurrence of accounting scandals. The collapse of high profile companies like Enron and WorldCom, has left doubts on the effectiveness of corporate governance, financial reporting quality, and reliability of audit functions.

These alleged fraud financial statements have raised serious concerns about the effectiveness of corporate governance; integrity and ethical behavior of top executives, especially the Chief Executive and Financial Managers when they are being sued for 'cooking the books"; adequacy and effectiveness of internal controls; reliability of financial reports; quality audits; and authenticity of the stock markets.

Many factors have contributed to the latest scams. These factors are (1) lack of vigilant oversight functions (board of directors, audit committee); (2) management arrogant and greedy; (3) improper business conducted by senior executives; (4) ineffective audit functions; (5) soft regulations; (6) inadequate financial disclosures and less transparent; and (7) shareholders inattentive (Rezaee, 2005).

2.3 Cost and impact of fraud in the financial statements for businesses

The recent wave of corporate financial scandals has raised significant concerns about the effectiveness of corporate governance not only in the US but in all countries of the world. Usually there is a view that financial scandals and symptoms result from massive deficiencies in corporate governance. This view has made major changes, including the Sarbanes-Oxley Act, the new rules Securities Exchange Commission (SEC), and governance requirements adopted by stock exchanges such as NYSE and NASDAQ (Fich and Shivdasani, 2007).

Fraud in the financial statements continues to seriously affect economies in all countries of the world including developed

countries and developing ones. Despite increased supervision, changes of laws, increased attention to the issue in question, fraud have not stopped. Damages from fraud in the financial statements account that damage the budget of United States of America (US) each year for an amount of $ 572 billion. Therefore, fraud has become a popular area of investigation among accounting academics because of the size of losses.

Besides the direct impact on cheated corporations, financial statements fraud adversely affects the employees, shareholders and creditors. Fraud in the financial statements has broader negative indirect effects at the market participants ranging from undermining the reliability of corporate financial statements and confidence in financial markets, and resulting in higher premium risk and less efficient capital markets. Also, financial fraud leads to substantial valuation losses for investors for companies involved in scandals.

The research about the history of fraud and discovery is important because it adds to the understanding of fraud, which has the potential to improve the auditors and regulators to detect fraud directly or serve as a basis for future research fraud. Enhanced fraud detection can help deceived businesses, and their employees, shareholders and creditors to restrain costs associated with fraud. It can also help to improve market efficiency (Perols and Lougee, 2011).

2.4 Press as a watchdog for accounting fraud

Many experts in the field of accounting and academics stress the important role of the press in early identification of fraud in accounting. In this regard, the press functions as an invisible hand to monitor preventing fraud alignment and size. Accordingly, signals the relevant authorities and stakeholders to handle cases properly. Press role in terms of monitoring function for the accounting fraud is investigated by Miller (2006). In this study, the author finds that the press fulfills this role by retransmitting information from other information intermediaries such as analysts, auditors and those that have been sued taking the original investigation and analysis. Articles based on original analysis provide new information on markets and rebroadcast those allegations by other agencies do not. In accordance with the dual role of the press, the author finds that the press-oriented business is more likely to take the original analysis, while non-business magazines concentrate mainly on retransmission. Furthermore, the author infers that the press covers firms and scandals that will be of interest to a wide group of readers and situations that are lower cost to identify and investigate.

2.5 The Role of Internal Auditor

Internal auditors may not be useful for all types of businesses. This is a very professional work area and the skills of an internal auditor may not be suitable for all types of business organizations. Appropriate selection in the auditor position is a must for better results (Agarwal and Medury, 2014).

Many researchers have worked on the role of the internal auditor to detect and prevent accounting fraud. It also been noted that investors are expecting more from auditors to detect and prevent accounting fraud, but there are many gap between investor expectations and actual performance by the auditors (Epstein and Geiger, 1994).

Therefore, to avoid this issue, the study conducted by Agarwal and Medury (2014) discusses the effectiveness of the internal auditor to contain, to discover and prevent accounting fraud and so to combat this plague in the corporate sector. Therefore, they have come to the conclusion with the concept of the appointment of internal auditors by external actors to strengthen its independence and therefore its effectiveness to detect and prevent fraud in accounting.

3.0 Methodology

This research has been conducted using secondary data because it best suits the nature and purpose of the research. Data for this research derived from a range of sources that have a very high degree of credibility and reliability, and which have been carefully reviewed by other relevant bodies to carry out supervision of accuracy and quality purposes. This includes databases and various publications. In addition, the data also stem from individual and group publications made by renowned scientific researchers who have solid expertise in their field of research. Narrative analysis is used to analyze the data in this paper.

4.0   Analysis

4.1   Fraud prevention and strategies for their detection

Accounting fraud has not stopped regardless the implementation of new regulations after the recent scandals in American corporations. Commission of fraud in the financial statements of corporations in the US high profile companies whose shares are publicly traded to take proactive roles by building strategies for the prevention and detection of fraud in the financial statements. According Rezaee (2005), some of the strategies that can be used are listed below

4.1.1 Review of the weakness of fraud

Reviews of fraud weakness should be conducted periodically and consistently. Corporations should consider the implementation of the deliberations of the weakness of fraud and fraud hotlines that can be used by the internals such as workers and auditors and outsiders including customers or suppliers to report fraudulent activities. Furthermore, corporations need to build adequate policies informants. After the Enron and WorldCom scandals, many other corporations in America like Coca Cola and Kodak have created offices for confidential reporting to informants including workers to hear about the affairs of accounting fraud charges.

4.1.2 Good and vigilant corporate governance

Corporate governance should have well-defined roles and accountability to all stakeholders for management and financial performance, including the board of directors, audit committee, management's top, internal auditors and external. While the primary focus in the past to stop fraud in the financial statements has been to the external auditors, nowadays to prevent any possible fraud all leading corporate bodies should be involved in this process conform to the roles and responsibilities that always have in long-term interest of shareholders.

4.1.3 Vigilant audit committees

Future audit committees necessarily are expected to be guardians of the interests of their investors. Recent scandals alert big corporate challenge to improve the supervisory functions and practices of their audit committees. These challenges will provide opportunities to improve corporate governance and financial reporting quality always in the best interest of investors and the financial community. The entire body of the audit committees must be independent enough financially to make difficult questions and in an effective way to oversee internal controls of businesses, the process of financial reporting, and audit functions.

4.1.4 Programs for fraud prevention

Corporations should work to design programs to prevent financial statement fraud, set up policies and procedures appropriate for the oversight of all financial chain involved in corporations, to communicate policies and procedures for all staff fraud, enforce policy compliance in practice and periodically independently monitor their impact on the prevention and detection of fraud in the financial statements. The programs in question should apply legal accountants, researchers, internal auditors, lawyers. Furthermore, it is essential to clarify that these programs will apply indiscriminately to all workers of lower level to those in the highest levels of of management chain (Rezaee, 2005).

4.2 Fraud detection techniques

Using various techniques for detecting accounting fraud is a very important process to avoid timely financial statements irregularities and to stop potential scandals by various manipulators involved in this process. According to Zhao and Kapoor (2011), until today it is estimated that in most cases the methods that are used most frequently are: regression, decision

tree, neural networks, the networks' Bayesian " and supported vector machines.

1. Regression

Regression methods for the detection of fraud is estimated to be the most used method so far. Transformations of variables in regression models were also studied in the context of fraud detection. A study that was done in Greece from data of 76 companies, half of which have been involved in the fraud affair, while the other half was not. In this study were used 10 financial variables and multi-variable logistic regression to identify relationships among the factors associated with financial statement fraud. The total of ten financial reports net profit to total assets, the ratio of total debt to total assets, financial concern, the ratio of inventories and sales, and the ratio of working capital and total assets are used for examination of possible forecasts financial fraud. Results show that companies with high inventories in relation to sales, high debt to total assets, lower net profit to total assets, lower working capital to total assets and high financial stress are more likely to manipulate financial statements.

2. Decision Tree

The objective of decision trees is the classification that separates observations into groups and multiple mutually exclusive choosing correctly attributes to share best sample. This method is used to predict the hidden problems in the financial statements considering the following six variables: Quick assets to current liabilities, the market value of equity to total assets, total liabilities to total assets, and interest payments to income before interest.

3. Neural Network

Neural networks are another technique used successfully to detect financial fraud. This technique assumes no independence of an attribute and is able to process data related and is a suitable alternative for problems where some assumptions regarding the regression are not valid.

4. Bayesian networks

Bayesian networks method usually are used to describe the statistics of a particular user and statistics of different scenarios of fraud. Bayesian networks can be used to prove the probability of fraud by considering the behavior of the users of financial statements.

5. Supported Vector Machines (SVM)

SVM builds a linear model to assess a decision function using class boundaries based non-linear support vector. Also, SVM is based on the structural principle of minimizing the risk, which means that this type of classifier minimizes the peak of the current risk while the other minimizes classifier empirical risk. Using this technique can help internal auditors and external who must allocate limited resources audit to make appropriate decisions during the fraud warnings. Its application extends to taxes, banking, creditors, regulators and agencies (Pai et al., 2011).

The techniques mentioned above have proven to be effective in detecting fraud in the financial statements. However, they are not without limitations. While these techniques have been developed for predictive modeling fraud discoveries in the financial statements, they are not developed enough in terms of the impact assessment of possible fraud.

5.0 Conclusion

Accounting fraud pose a critical issue in the protection of the global financial market. Overall frauds are related to the review of accounting records, falsification of transactions, and the misuse of accounting principles. Also, frauds have a devastating effect on the economy in general, to the shareholders of the company and to the employees.

Recent scandals of fraud that have affected various corporations in the US have led to a review of the rules and directives of stricter financial supervision in terms of reporting and financial statements and the opening of information to interested parties. However, these changes have not managed to stop and destroy this phenomenon.

The techniques used for the detection of fraud in accounting and various strategies can positively influence the treatment of this phenomenon due to the alarm buzzer for possible fraud. However, vigilance is necessarily required to add all parties involved in the corporation through the use of different anti-fraud programs to stimulate the accountability of the management executives and employees through informants to fight this destructive phenomenon.

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The Impact of Saving in Personal Finance

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Abstract

Personal finance shows how we manage of our financial resources. Represents our willingness about money and in general money management our economic and financial. This means you need to decide by yourself for your money, to have success. Savings for each case helps us to overcome such crisis in our lives. Saving helps us to overcome significant problems in our lives. To manage our income means to start a journey towards financial freedom. This does not necessarily mean having a luxurious life, but to adopt effective measures of achieving a certain comfort efficient management of money for each individual brings a qualitative growth. Money is a tool, the means by which we support our unique values and priorities. Therefore it is important to create a financial plan, savings strategies. Goals and opportunities for individuals to save are different and it is difficult to find a suitable solution for all. Albania has not started functioning separate windows or agencies that are only in terms of personal finance.

Keyword: saving, personal finance, budget, personal finance planning.

1. Manage the family finance

Life is a challenge that every individual must choose how to deal with revenue path. It is such as a market economy, each of us is the architect of his own welfare. No one but you can't take care of your welfare. Money is a tool, the means by which we support our unique values and priorities. Therefore it is important to create a financial plan, savings strategies. Goals and opportunities for individuals to save are different and it is difficult to find a suitable solution for all. The financial crisis may occur in a moment unexpected, but we should be always ready for that moment (Bajtelsmit, V. L., & VanDerhei, J. A., 1997). Keep in mind that money is a tool, the means by which we support our unique values and priorities. The richest among us are people who believe that they have enough money to live a quality life and achieve financial stability. Following an effective management manual for their personal income, many Albanian families could reach probably not a luxurious life, but would have a greater financial stability, more security nowadays.

If you are looking for a solution to your debt problems, the most important thing is to find the right solution. Some debt solutions are suitable for large debts, others for small debts. (And "big" or "small" means different things to different people, depending on their overall financial situation). Is always available to talk to a debt adviser about your finances, but if your debts are not very serious, the best debt solution may simply be learning to budget more effectively. Everyone can be surprised how quickly you can solve the problems our debt if you really have your mind on it. This will have little information on the balance of personal economy (Cawood W. F 2005).

Goals and opportunities for individuals to save are different and it is impossible to provide a suitable solution for all. However, there are basic principles that are is worth to follow.

A practical way to save is the investment of money in different stages, which may follow a set pattern. This approach helps us to manage pertaining to our current situation (Kahneman, D., and Tversky 1979).

How much can you save at 6 months, can you try to save for such a period? 6 months is not a long time, but it may be long enough to allow us to make a serious effort to leave some "footprint" on our debts, so as to make a step forward.

The question is: How much money we spend on luxuries, money that could go to wash off your debts and how you can achieve the realization of this objective that often decide?

What kind of luxury we buy?

This is not an easy question to answer, so rank 5 weekly spending unnecessary things. By doing this can we come to understand the value of saving and help we can give us this new method that can be followed easily. In this way you can save in 6 months just by giving up 5 things. If debts are not severe, it may be enough to clean (or to reduce existing debts).

How much money can maintain?

If you be more radical and try to be a little farther luxury you can afford can try cutting down to 50% of our costs substantially, resist the temptation else to spend money on things that do we need[1]. (Just be sure not compensate this "diet" spending more on other things that we do not need and can compromise us saving method).

Tip: *The best way to stay motivated is to keep a log to record any money we are saving, so we can see all those sacrifices are valid towards a road to a simple life.*

In this scheme you can count the time you need to save a certain amount of money, based on a given interest. Indicate the amount of savings each year, the amount you want to save and annual interest rate. For more see table illustrated below.

-      Secrets of how to save more that we get.

Do not give up the cultural temptation to buy more and more things that you do not need!

Can cut unnecessary costs when you take these steps:

1. *Do a weekly plan* – Every Sunday plan how much will spend this week.

2. *Do a list* - Before you go shopping do a list of what will buy and decide how much shall we spend, including the sales taxes. Do not give up the cultural temptation to buy more and more things that you do not need!

3. *Do a weekly plan*– Every Sunday plan how much will spend this week. Withdraw exactly that amount in cash and hide credit cards for the whole week.

4. *Do a list* - Before you go shopping do a list of what will buy and decide how much shall we spend, including the sales taxes. Take Cash in your wallet and leave the credit cards home. This to help we to purchase what we have in the list of purchases. If we or our kids find something that we might need it put it on the list of debts.

5. Do not fall in "hook" commercial win much less money when we spend a little, so they tempt we with advertising and sales s allure.

Although sales, traders can empower sales with prices of End with 9 or signs " Sale" that does not tell we how much you save. Spend little time in shops and you will have few time to be tempted to buy. Be smart even when you purchase. "Best time to purchase is when you are alone, unhurried and well feed, "Stress and rush does not allow purchase the right stuff " (Yuh, Y., & Hanna, S. 1997).

> ## *Set your goals at work*

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[1] Fry, T.R.L., Mihajilo, S., Russell, R. and Brooks, R. 2008. The Factors Influencing Saving in a Matched Savings Program: Goals, Knowledge of Payment Instruments, and Other Behavior. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues.*Vol. 29, Iss.2; faqe. 234-251.

Make your goals simple to evaluate and create a plan" to reach them. Every day of the week, it made 2/4 in an envelope instead work to buy a drink for 100 lek. At the end of each month, we can deposit the result an amount of money in our savings account. After three months, that money will be raised, including interest. At 12 months, an individual saved enough to pay some necessary expenses.

And avoid spending more when we can eat what you have. "I believe with all my heart that most of us can feed his family for a week with what is in the closet," "Using things up at the end is a favorite principle". And avoid spending more when you can eat what you have. "I believe with all my heart that most of us can feed his family for a week with what is in the closet," "Using things up at the end is a favorite principle

6. Do a deal before shopping - Invite friends that are interested to take part in this meeting where every one can exchange things that they need ((Yuh, Y., & Hanna, S. 1997).

What do we mean by debt?

Saved money should be used to pay credit card, overdrafts, which we can pay as soon as we like and have no repayment method. We must not forget that the debts grow at all times.

Does this plan simply 6-month savings for our goals works?

After 6 months, we can take a look at what we have achieved. Hopefully, it will be enough to encourage myself still continuing at this pace. In essence, the "belt tightening" is always worthwhile, if the financial situation is severe or terrible. However, this is not always enough. Whether debts may have reached the point where you can make even the minimum monthly payments, we should seek professional debt advice as soon as possible.

Meanwhile, the work of a financial adviser on the management of money that an individual[1] or a family earns per month does not end here with just a few tips on how to be more efficient with late payments or how to save more. This could be called just the beginning. Range that includes personal finance is very broad. In the following paragraph shall be treated some of the devices that this branch of finance deals and deeply affecting security and our economic stability (Hung, A., Parker, A.M., & Yoong, J., 2009).

Take as an example for our children's tuition fees. Regardless of each individual's social and economic position facing this urgent matter. All parents want to give their children the best in life, and for most parents, this means planning for their child's college education.

Financial pressures often make it seem like a decision that can wait, or it is too early to saving for your child's education, but the best time to start saving now! So what should you do as a parent aware of your budget for this? It is not too early to start planning how you will help our child pay for college education.

Education and other public institutions costs, being surrounded by budget cuts, have increased significantly in recent years and the payments in Albania. But despite good intentions, then the parents in our country do not think long term to set aside money later not weigh quality education for their children. This is because the level of socio-cultural indicators is still improving (Lyons, A. C., Hogarth, J., Schuchardt, J., Smith, T., & Toussaint-Comeau, M., 2003).

Parents still are not prepared for this time jeopardizing the safety and economic viability of their family when the time comes. If you are part of this majority, there is no need to panic. It is not too late to start saving for your child's education. As with other things in life, planning is the key to achieving your financial goals and making sure that your children will have the funds to attend the university of their choice when the time comes. To help we can serve the outlook for the development of a college savings plan, consulting with a qualified financial representative can help you create a strategy for university funding that will meet your goals (Higgins, David P., 1983).

There are a wide variety of strategies to fund your child's education in higher studies. We just need to find the right combination of investment opportunities that is right for we and our family. Scholars offer these important points that should be kept in mind while you make your savings plan for college: place an order. The first step of the planning process is to

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[1] Wilhelmson, K., Andersson, A., Waern, M. and Allebeck, P. 2005. Elderly people's perspectives on quality of life. *Ageing and Society*. Vol. 25, Part 4, faqe. 585-601

determine how much money our children will need for their university costs. Once we arrive in order to evaluate financing, we can develop a plan to help achieve it. Put our family's finances in order. Saving for higher studies should be part of our overall financial plan, is an end in itself. Our retirement plan, life insurance policy, and buying a new car, our investment should be a way to determine how savings and investments fit into our overall financial plans, not set aside money to education our son or daughter. Each of these financial options for university savings has advantages and disadvantages. A qualified financial advisor can help we evaluate the choices and select the ones that best meet your family's needs and goals. Do not forget about life insurance! This may not be the primary consideration on our part, when we think about saving for higher studies, but this is a very important part of our financial plan.

Permanent life insurance can play a role to pay for your children's education at the university in a number of ways. Most importantly, if we are not prepared when it comes time payments for higher studies, our child can use the proceeds of life insurance to fund his dream to attain a bachelor's degree and beyond (Borden, L.M., Lee, S., Serido, J. and Collins, D. 2008).

And depending on the type of policy and how it is structured, we may also be able to draw on the value of money to help to bridge the growing gap between financial aid and tuition costs. Be sure to check with a qualified professional in the financial advantages and disadvantages of borrowing from your policy. Do not forget to take them into account potential tax and financial implications with the help of each of your saving opportunities. Also, some of these accounts may affect future financial aid right for your child, while others will not help. Once again, we should ask a professional to help we evaluate these choices. Family should also be involved in saving for your child's expenses during college (Wilhelmson, K., Andersson, A., Waern, M. and Allebeck, 2005). Using some of the options listed above, including those that said, your children's grandparents and other family members can help contribute to university education if they wish. Having carefully considered all the possibilities of university funding, can we get a picture "great" to saving for your child's education gained a clear understanding of what will work best for our family.

Conclusions and Recommendations

- To organize our income mean to start a path towards a financial freedom. This does not mean that we can have a luxury life, but to adopt effective measures to achieve a comfort that we assigned.
- If people have problems with managing their finances they need to transform the process of management of the money. Individuals always should develop new strategies for their financial security.
- Most people are guilty of unplanned purchases. Individuals before they decide to make a purchase they should be rational and to determine if it is a worthy purchase or not. Should avoid impulse purchases.
- A good investment of the savings of individuals can give profitable returns in the future. Individuals should do preliminary research to decide where to invest, given their income and risk. They can invest in an asset in a business, or the stock market.
- One of the most crucial factors that determine the health of household finances is open communication between spouses. Spouses should be able to talk openly about daily expenses and purchases more expensive.
- Following a tight budget, individuals will be able to maximize their profits, by providing that spend money as long as they can afford and most importantly they will save money by fiddling expenses.
- Individuals should try to save at least 10% of monthly income, instead you spend for important purchases.
- For a better management of household finances is recommended to open a savings account. A savings account can help many families pay for future expenses, such as tuition fees, hospital bills, and other emergencies.

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Human Rights and Negative and Affirmative Aspects of Environmental Justice

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Abstract

After Second World War by establishment United Nation, to support of right of life, survives and peace for human, Universal Declaration of Human Rights was issued. In later years, second and third generations of human rights were established which respect for human rights is obligatory for member states.Environmental destruction as outcome of Progression of industry and technology, is another important problem which is outshining human life. In the second half of the twentieth century, several international conventions were formed in order to protecting the environment and preventing its destruction. On the other hand, in the United States, The civil rights movement in the 60s was the source of another movement called environmental justice. At the international level, In the 90s of the twentieth century coincided with the UN plan for sustainable development, the environmental justice movement arose. With the start of the twenty first century, environmental activists and followers of the environmental justice movement found out the common points of environmental justice and issues raised in the generations of human rights and attempts to link these two movements and beginning to find their common points. In the second half of twenty century. With increasing of activity of United Nation many conventions were ratified by countries that guarantee some rights of people but conventions about human rights and environment were separated. This article examines positive and negative characteristics governing environmental justice in comparison with the international documents.

Keywords: Environmental justice; Universal Declaration of Human Rights; Sustainable development; international conventions; United Nation

Introduction

The civil right movement in the 1960s in the United States of America was the origin of another movement which is known as environmental justice. The impact of the civil rights movement after the approval of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 in the United States has played a more prominent role in shaping the concept of environmental justice. Robert Bullard's work in the 90s; "Dumping in Dixie", act as a call for the environmental justice movement. In this work, the impact of the economic, health and environmental widespread differences between racial and socioeconomic groups which has intensified in the late 20 century is examined by Bullard. By discussing "The process of advent of the environmental justice movement is in search of to expand a common strategy as sponsor of sustainable American-African, colored people communities" Bullard analyses environmental justice. (Bullard, 2000). Expected with the assumption that the life, work and education, worship in a healthy environment are rights for all human, individuals with different race, religion and income enjoy a healthy environment and losses and problems resulting from technological advances equally distributed in human societies and people of color and low-income populations or ethnic minorities have a greater share of the impact of environmental devastating effects of progress and development. Bullard on the basis of social analysis gain access to the issue that most of these materials are stored or buried in the poor communities of color and weak more than the affluent suburban areas. Also in international dimensions has been observed inequality in access to safe and clean sources, Inequality in enjoying of healthy nature may be is the result of historical circumstances, trade and economic relations of the present age, or lack of adequate government regulation in this field even Some believe that environmental justice is not binding for populations

in trace or minorities whereas the aim of environmental justice is preventing the damaging effects of harmful materials even on small populations. The significance of topic is that the concept of environmental justice considered as a human rights Category and seeking to demonstrate the fact that environmental justice is not separate from human rights concepts and category. Therefore it is evident that article has doctrinal aspect and is looking for planning circumstances of an independent environmental legal system. The main question is that what is the negative and positive characteristics and effects of environmental justice in the legal system governing the international order? In short, despite the difference in the quantity, these features in terms of quality overlap with each other and the result of this overlap is a legal system based on international environmental justice.

Affirmative aspects of environmental justice

In view of the fact that environmental justice movement is resulting from civil law movement, takes into consideration some rights for people. In this regards Human populations who are victims of environmental injustice, have considered frame works as guide to action for establishment of laws in all countries. Accordingly, some principles are intended for environmental justice that some of them are as follows: *

 -Environmental justice emphasizes on holiness of motherland, environmental unity and the interdependence of biological species Also demands adopting public policies based on mutual respect and justice for all and devoid of all forms of discrimination and prejudice for people. The preamble of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, recognition of the inherent prestige and equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family which forms the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world, is part of the obligations of Member States and providing it, is enumerated as the obligation of countries which in Articles I and II of this Declaration, is explicitly emphasized that all member states are obliged to support it.on 15th March 2006, UN General Assembly by approving a resolution and replacing Human Rights Council instead of the Commission on Human Rights ,for help to United Nations Member States for supplying their needs in the field of human rights Through dialogue, capacity building and technical assistance , provide a more focused activities. This affair can help governments and public institutions in each country in order to create public policies to help implement this principle of environmental justice.

- The Principles of Environmental Justice were adopted by The First National People of Color Leadership Summit meeting in Washington D.C, 1991
- The ethical, balanced and responsibly take advantage of the endless resources of earth, in order to provide the interests of a sustainable planet for all humans and other living organisms on the planet

The international community, led by the United Nations has been developed extensive programs to protect the environment in such a manner that the establishment of the first United Nations Conference on Environment in 1972 , have attempted to conclude more than 300 international treaties and agreements related to a variety of endangered flora and fauna, marine pollution, destruction of the ozone layer, hazardous wastes, biological diversity, climate change, desertification, fisheries and fishing, and industrial chemicals and pesticides. In 1992, the United Nations Conference on Environment Development ("Earth Summit") which was formed in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, designed Agenda 21 to provide a comprehensive global scheme for a development suitable for environment. United Nations consider the circumstance of carrying out the agenda 21 and other agreements of "Earth Summit" by formation of development commission and by compiling of a collection of indexes of permanent development that are accepted by international point of view, examine achieved progresses in connection of execution of Agenda 21 and encourage states to assign targets and subjects for national permanent development. United Nations aid to countries for improving environment management by execution of environment program and supervise on health of earth by establishment of international reunion.

- Affirmation of the fundamental right to political, economic, cultural and environmental self-determination of all peoples is intended by Environmental justice.

 article 21 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights discusses about participation in administration of public affairs which is admitted as a right for individuals and in articles 18 to 20 is emphasized on individual and social rights of people in enjoyment of having belief and freedom to express their opinion which are underlined by environmental justice and this is pointed out that the universal society is serious in creation of the safe world. In this direction, United Nations in addition to promotion of human rights, defends of vulnerable groups by preparing and ratification of more than 80 conventions about political, civil, economical, social and cultural rights.convesion about infants rights 1989, convention about protection of

rights of migratory workers and their family 1990 and convention about omission of all kinds of discrimination to women 1979 which has ratified by 170 countries, are samples of United Nations measures.

- The right to participate as equal partners at every level of decision-making including needs assessment, planning, implementation, enforcement and evaluation for all racial, color, low-income groups and minorities is requested by environmental justice.

In addition to abovementioned items in article 18 to 21 of Universal Declaration of Human Rights, in article 27 is emphasized to the right to participation of individuals in cultural life and enjoyment of progresses in science, skills and arts. in 1992, Due to the presence more than one billion people in the world who live in minority groups and to fulfill the legitimate aspirations of national, ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities and to strengthen the protection of fundamental human rights, The General Assembly of the United Nations approved Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities for giving new power to the agenda of the UN Human Rights. In 1995, the Human Rights Commission with the approval of the establishment of the working group on minorities by its Sub-Commission has created a unique institution for the minority communities till through their representatives, can bring ideas and concerns to the attention of the United Nations.

- All workers have the right to a safe and health working environment and there shouldn't be any compulsory among the choice of unemployment or insecure life for them. Also all the people who work in their own homes should be safe from environmental hazards.

Approximately 2 million people lose their lives in accidents or work-related disease. About 160 million people suffer from work-related diseases and annually about 270 million people are facing with fatal and nonfatal accidents caused by working. The Suffering of work related diseases and accidents that take place to workers and their families are incalculable. The principle of protecting workers against diseases and injury job clearly has expressed in Statute of the International Labor Organization. Close to half of ILO documents directly or indirectly, are about the health and safety at work which In this regard; the International Labor Organization has ratified more than 40 standards and 40 regulations about the health and safety at work. ILO standards on safety and health in the workplace are essential tools for governments, employers and workers to provide maximum safety at work. In the ninety-first session of the International Labor Conference in 2003, Occupational Safety and Health Global Strategy was developed that has been involved the beginning of a preventative safety and health culture, the promotion anddevelopment of relevant tools, and technical assistance. In Article 8 of Convention No. 155 was adopted in 1981 and entered into force on 11 August 1983, All members for effectiveness of article 4 of the Convention on workplace health and safety, in consultation with the representative organizations of employers and workers, have obligated to compile legislations and regulations Or any other method, which includes the country's national conditions. In Article 9 of the Convention which has been ratified by 63 countries, is emphasized that for obligation to the listed laws and regulations, reasonable mechanisms for inspection and criminals' punishment should be considered. In article 11 is provided mechanisms to give effect to policies referred to in Article 4 of the Convention, which by helps of them the authority or competent authorities must become sure that these tasks are carried out gradually. To update the Convention 155, one protocol was ratified in 2002, which entered into force on February 2005. The protocol with refers to Article 11 of the Convention 155 is relevant to occupational accidents and diseases. And governments have been obligated to pass laws and regulations concerning the registration of work accidents and occupational diseases, as appropriate, dangerous events, discount events and suspected cases of occupational diseases and informing about them. (Protocol to Convention 155, Article 2) Convention No. 161 was adopted in 1985 and entered into force in February 1988 has been ratified by 31 countries. The aim of the Protocol is establishing the organizational services on health and workplace safety which undertake preventive and essential duties and are responsible to preserve a safe and healthy working environment in front of employers and employees and their representatives. With the aim of to put in circulation preventive safety and health culture and achieving to the safe and healthy working environment gradually, convention 187 compiled in 2006 and has ratified in 2009 which 33 states have ratified it till now. The convention is request from all countries in consultation with the representative organizations of employers and workers, to compile national policy, system and programming on the basis of principles inserted in article 4 of convention 155 and coinciding with principles of ILO, for development of safety and health in work places. In appendix of convention mechanisms that are adopted on principles of ILO is listed. National system must make possible necessary substructure for carrying out national policy and programs for safety and health of workplace like laws and rules, subjects and positions, acceptable mechanisms such as inspection systems and methods for creation of commitment. National systems must consist of timetable for measures to put in circulation safety and health

in work place and activating measurement of its progress. It is necessary to point out before this convention, from 1960 to 1990, conventions 162,148,139,115 and 170 have ratified for protection against special dangers in work environments.

- -Receive full reparation and compensation, as well as quality health care, are the rights of victims of environmental injustice

On the Third of April 1991, Nations Security Council in the frame work of Chapter VII of the Charter of the United Nations issued Resolution 687. This resolution, which was issued after the end of the occupation of Kuwait by the Iraqi government, was about the compensation created by the Government of Iraq. In paragraph 16 of the resolution, the Iraqi government under international law for environmental damage directly is recognized responsible and has emphasized that the Iraqi government is obligated to compensate the damage to aggrieved people or governments. Perhaps the only time that the international law has condemned a government to compensate for the damage to the environment and even individuals were subject to compensation. Of course, before that in 1981 the General Assembly of the United Nations issued Declaration of basic principles of justice for victims of crime and abuse of power. The main objective of the Declaration has been compensation and support for victims of criminal offenses and not mentioned to victims of environmental degradation.

- -Education for present and future generations with an emphasis on social and environmental issues, and understanding of diverse cultural perspectives is emphasized by environmental justice

In Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights has been emphasized on the right of individuals to benefit from an appropriate education. Environmental justice put under observation education as an essential element for protection of environment, and people's awareness of their environmental rights that create a suitable link between environmental justice and Fundamental human rights.

Negative aspects of environmental justice

Environmental justice in addition to consider rights for people, has defined assignments for governments and requested from the governments that to enact Effective and transparent legislation in internal area, and with mutual cooperation and specified treaties and conventions in international level, be active in direction of removal of environmental injustice. Topics of duties are specified for governments are as follows:*

- minimized and, if possible, be avoided from the effects of harmful and hazardous to human health as a result of destructive environmental practices as well as its social and economic impact on racial or color minorities and poor people which in this regard, in order to achieve rural and urban environmental policies for cleaning and restoration the cities and rural areas in equilibrium with nature, respect to cultural entirety of all societies and to provide possibility of righteously access to spread benefits for all, are in direction of environmental targets which all states are obliged to perform it.

Bamako are treaty that has been signed for protect the environment in Africa. The title of treaty is "Bamako Convention on the ban on imports and the control of transboundary movements of hazardous and contaminated materials management in Africa and inside it". Bamako Convention containing defensive measures to prevent the entry of contaminants into Africa. Bamako Convention and the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights emphasize on the implementation of environmental justice i.e. distributive justice, procedural justice, and social justice in Africa. Another convention in which the right to a healthy environment for the people is emphasized is Protocol of San Salvador. Additional Protocol to the American Convention on Human Rights in connection to Economic, Social and Cultural Rights was adopted in 1988. In Article 11 of the Convention, the right to a healthy environment is pointed. In total, in the various materials of this Protocol are emphasized to the public's right to access to social justice, including the right to health, right to education, the right to social security and the right to a decent job; And the public's right to access to distributive justice including national wealth and to provide the needs above mentioned which These are the elements of environmental justice.

- -Stopping the production of toxic and harmful materials and radioactive materials is another subject emphasized by environmental justice. Also all producers who produced this kind of materials or are producing them must be answerable about detoxification and controlling during the production. This means that the destructive operations of multi-national corporations must be opposed by adopting suitable laws. Also guarantee full and fair participation of all communities which potentially are affected by environmental injustice in the decision-making process regarding the transportation of pollutants and harmful materials.

Former UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan on 31 January 1999 at the World Economic Forum in Davos, Switzerland, asked world business leaders to help further protect human rights, work and environment standards join to international agreements. Also He requested from global business community following items on the environment:

A-Support cautious and preventive viewpoint to environmental problems

B- Promote acceptance of more responsibility towards the environment

C- Encourage the manufacture and use of appropriate technologies for environment

Fundamental Convention of United Nations on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and its Kyoto Protocol at the center of international efforts to address environment problems. These two treaties represent the international response to the compelling evidence that unfavorable climate change is happening .The activities of the international community are reflected in various conventions that one of them is Basel Convention. The Basel Convention is a treaty that references to environmental justice. The Convention, which was signed on 22 March 1989 in Basel, Switzerland, is about the control on cross-border transportation of Hazardous Wastes and their destruction. The convention is a kind of the United Nations treaties and the Secretary-General is the depositary and immediate ban on cross-border transportation of hazardous wastes to its permanent disposal is requested by supplement of convention. "Total prohibition" has applied as a choice for the transport of hazardous wastes and other wastes from developed countries to developing countries. The arrival of international community to a period that toxic waste could not to transmit from countries' borders under legal condition without performing control and supervision is the greatest achievement of the Basel Convention. Basel Convention is designed to reduce illegal trafficking of

* The Principles of Environmental Justice were adopted by The First National People of Color Leadership Summit meeting in Washington D.C, 1991 hazardous wastes and has been set to protect the world's poorest countries to become the burial ground of this material. Some of the key elements of the Convention are:

- -a ban on the export of hazardous waste to countries that are not Parties to the convention.
- Responsibility for countries that are involved in the transport of hazardous waste.
- The principle of non-discrimination in relation to exports.
- Prior notification and informed consent of the recipient countries and transit countries.
- Taking necessary measures for global protection against nuclear testing and protection against exploitation and production and disposal of toxic substances and waste which Threatening the fundamental human right of access to Healthy land, clean water and healthy food.

International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) as one of specialized organization of United Nations protects from peaceful usage of atomic energy and is against of use it as military targets. IAEA monitoring nuclear activities of countries to ensure to adherence of countries to obligations about lack of increasing of nuclear weapons Based on bilateral and international agreements and gain confidence about lack of deviation in utilization of nuclear materials and installations in direction of military targets. Commission for the comprehensive nuclear –Test-Ban Treaty Organization, CTBTO, is another specialized organization of United Nations which established on 19th November of 1996 to build a verification regime "to ensure that it is operational by the time the Treaty enters into force. The verification regime of the CTBT is designed to detect any nuclear explosion conducted on Earth – underground, underwater or in the atmosphere. The purpose of the verification regime is to monitor countries' compliance with the CTBT which bans all nuclear explosions on the planet." (www.ctbto.org)

- -Environmental injustices by states are equal with breach of international law, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and UN convention about genocide that environmental justice ask for effectual encounter of international societies against it. Military occupation, repression and exploitation of lands, peoples and cultures, and other life forms are other cases which environmental justice is opposed. United Nations as representative of all states can performance of a rule in these cases.

Genocide is one of horrific shape of crimes against human being .Actus Reus of any crime consist of criminal act and subject of crime. The subject of crime of genocide just as stipulated in Article 6 of the Statute of the International Criminal Court, are "national, ethnical, racial or religious group". Common Characteristic of four groups is spontaneous and unwanted belonging of persons to groups' i.e. These groups are stable and permanent assemblage the individual has No will to belong to them. The criminal act in genocide is destroy in whole or part of a national, ethnic, racial or religious group (article 6 of Statute of the International Criminal Court).destroy can take place by any of following acts:

- -Killing members of a group;
- -Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of a group;
- -Deliberately inflicting on the group condition of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part;
- -Imposing measures intended to prevent births within the groups;
- Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group. (Article 6 of Statute of the International Criminal Court)

Studies that have been done show that there are income inequality and racial discrimination not only in locating of foundations of Hazardous waste but also in execution of the rules of regulatory standards for air and water and waste.(Luke Cole & Sheila Foster,2001,54-58)

In The pattern of racial discrimination, ecological groups or small countries are deliberately targeted by environmental injustice. (R Bullard, 2nd Ed, 2001, 187-195)

The UN Environment Programmed estimates that about 440 million tons of annual production of toxic substances in the world, and about ten percent of the amount has been issued of international borders. (Hilary French, 2000, p.74)

A prominent environmental expert from a developing country has argued that developing countries, disproportionate shares of the environmental consequences of globalization are tolerated, and it is defined as environmental racism. (Vandana Shiva, Afsar H. Jafri, & Gitanjali Bedi, 1997)

Opinions of The expert have been supported by studies that recommended by the United Nations Development Programmer.(See Human Development Report 1998)

Illegal trade of pollutants is not the only subject that endangers the health of people in developing countries but also the expanding of legal trade of recyclable materials are Considerable factors.(J.R Kitt,1995,pp.485-488) Export detrimental materials to recover constitutes approximately 90% of total exports harmful material from developed countries(J.R. kitt,1995,pp.485-488) it seems to us knowingly export or import and burring the waste material to poor countries can defined as " Deliberately inflicting on the group condition of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part;" (Article 6 of Statute of the International Criminal Court) and it is breach of human rights and UN convention about genocide.

- Confirmation of authority and self determination for minorities, color people and low-income societies through legitimate relationship between people and governments in the form of agreements, treaties and promise, are emphasized by environmental justice.

In article 1 of International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights Adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations December 16, 1966 emphasizes on the right to self-determination for all people. Determination their political status; safeguarding of socio-economic development of nations and their culture freely, are obtained by this right. in article 2 all states are bound to guarantee the rights recognized in the present Covenant without any distinction as to race, color, sex, language, religion and belief political or other opinion, origin of national or social , wealth, birth or other status. Also in article 27 emphases on rights of persons belonging to minorities, ethnic, religious or linguistic in any countries which include enjoying their own culture and professing to their own religion and to practice in accordance with it or speak in their own language in community with other members of their group.

Conclusion

The lack of a legal framework governing environmental justice in the international system is visible. Environmental justice at the international level is associated closely with human rights and refers to the right to life, health and cultural integrity, the right to a healthy environment, the right to self-determination and the right to freedom from racial discrimination (Carmen G. Gonzalez2007, pp.583-626) therefore settlement of The people of the same race or ethnic group in places with higher pollution or storing toxic materials close to cities Or environments in which people of a particular race lives, are examples of racial discrimination. Environmental justice has a close relationship with human rights and international environmental law. Universal Declaration of Human Rights has been developed with emphasis on non-discrimination between the public and the right to food for all people. Therefore must attend to environmental justice as a Human Rights need. With attention to above subjects that however lack of independent legal system for environmental justice was concluded, but there are its

elements in Human Rights international documents in various forms. It can be concluded that necessity of an independent legal system for environmental justice is undeniable, especially this legal system has root in Human Rights concepts and category.

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The Fragmentation of the Ethnic Segments in Plural Societies –the Macedonian Case

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Abstract

In cases where different parts of society live in geographical proximity, but in social aspect separated, the appearance of segmentation is one of the characteristics. Establishing the segments is done mainly on the ethnic grounds, but there are religious, linguistic, and racial based cases as well. Such a social phenomenon is present in Macedonia, wherein this phenomenon is more reflected in the relation between two major communities, the Macedonian and Albanian communities. If merely on social indicators researched so far, we can conclude that the ethnic communities are fragmented to a very high degree, that the same have no common ground, especially the one of political – party common ground. The previous conclusion is the presence of ethno-party pluralism. In this paperwork, in practical terms, our aim is to prove the high degree of fragmentation of ethnic segments in political action plan, respectively that of political party, as well as to determine the lines of expectations of the process flow, in view of the partisan multi-ethnic interaction or inaction. The measurement level of the fragmentation of segments is done by two sociological surveys (with approximately 1,000 respondents) specific to this case, for both ethnic communities, having involved the other ethnicities as well. Meanwhile, apart from other age groups, a special approach is made to the youngest age group, defining the two target groups of 18-25 and 25-30 years. Other reasons influencing the stagnation of partisan inter-ethnic cooperation have been part of this treatment as well.

Keywords: plural societies, ethnic communities and segments, fragmentation, political party, multi-ethnic interaction or inaction

Introduction

In heterogeneous societies, influenced under ethnic differences and religious, cultural and linguistic, inside of it are created separate groups, among which each of them trying to save its own characteristics?[1] Because of the division in the respective bases, these groups live side by side, but differentiated within unit general political. This type of society presents a pluralistic society.[2]

Internal heterogeneity expressed in suitable form organizational defining common sign of pluralistic societies. Reasons for differences can be religious, ethnic, cultural, linguistic, etc. These differences are present in many countries at a lower level or higher. However, to achieve a pluralistic society it is necessary to organized communities to get involved and accepted as carriers of differences, to get accepted - of regarded as belonging to certain groups - "familia spiritus" which is politically organized political party or political movement. Pluralist society is structured by those political organizations, where each one defends the specific interests of its members. Even though despite the heterogeneity target different social groups are not organized politically then we are not dealing with a plural society. The Republic of Macedonia is an example of a plural society. On the one hand, as highlighted population includes various ethnic communities, and recognized by the Constitution. On the other hand any other ethnic community, again under the Constitution has the right to organize political parties. So in organizational plans, according to the Constitution the pluralistic political system is well organized.

The Republic of Macedonia is a typical pluralistic society. Divisions along ethnic, religious, cultural, linguistic, even racially, are present and combined in different combinations. This condition, to a certain extent, contributes to the segments although they are side by side, live in divided societies.

In demographic terms, the structure of the Republic of Macedonia is a multiethnic. Official data show that in 60 percent are Macedonian population, while over 25 percent Albanian population (the number of Albanian community accepted with reservation because always claimed to be much higher, 30 percent respectively), about 10 percent of Turks, Serbs, Vlachs, Bosnians etc. As noted above, the ethnic communities living in the center is not homogeneous, while the population in most

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[1] The definition for this research was born as a continuation of some research, mainly theoretical early on, which are published in several scientific journals Diskutime magazine, RM, RM Journal CRC, Ruse University Scientific Conference, R. Bulgaria 2008, 2009, 2014, Science Conference UNSS, R. Bulgaria.

[2] See. A. Lijphart, Democracy in plural societes; 1977, translation, publication in k. L.D. Macedonian Frchkovski, p. 17.

of the territory, in the settlements, is mixed. This mixture becomes even more complex when we consider that some ethnic communities belong to two or more religions.

Ethnic communities are fragmented to a high level. If added to the differences in religion between them, they have no meeting point between them. The degree of social division can be seen from the low (rather nonexistent rate) of the marriage bond between members of the segments. Segments have different schools, while in cases where it is common educational base they support learning in different shifts or school buildings are separated. Despite the physical separation there is high pressure, which often goes into massive physical clash.[1]

Segments also have various sports clubs and recreation. Heavy clashes between segments come exactly in sports and different games, where the main song (sports fans) is death and disappearance of the other segment. This choreography mostly ends with the burning of the national symbols of other segment.

The division of the segments most commonly reflected in individual plans. Similar to the case of Northern Ireland, the individual who accepts the decision (choice) political another segment, the party that belongs accepted as a man who has accepted ethnicity or religion of the other segment, which in this case is worse than to meet with Indeed another community.

Political parties in Macedonia

Political pluralism in Macedonia begins as a reflection of other federal republics of the former Yugoslav federation. In this direction, it should be emphasized that Macedonia ranks last among the republics of Yugoslavia, which split from the old one-party system, and after Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Kosovo[2] which in this period there wasn't the same status with other federal units.

The way for political pluralism in Macedonia, but also beyond in Yugoslavia, legally open changes in the Constitution of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (SFRY), respectively amendment 59, which allowed the creation and establishment of political parties. With such a decision, legally was removed the monopoly of League of Communists of Yugoslavia, Macedonia respectively. With this is established legal framework of party organizational pluralism. Despite this, the Constitution of 1974 continues to save the communist ideological monopoly, which appears as a basic factor for not developing political pluralism.

The organization of political parties in Macedonia begins to develop immediately after the declaration of political pluralism in 1990. Characteristic for the first parties in this former Yugoslav republic is that the first parties submitted lacks ideological profile. Unlike party communist successor party, the League of Communists of Macedonia, the Democratic Renewal Party (SKM - PDP), other parties try to be profiled according to alternatives needed for daily or through the current problems. This period corresponds to the nationalist policies of the actors in the Serbian political life, thus the destruction of the SFR Yugoslavia and the creation of the independent state of Macedonia. Under this influence, it conveyed nationalist reflection in Macedonia on a fairly high degree, so that political parties are oriented towards nationalistic policies. Under the pressure of the dissolution of the former federation and artificial circumstances created in the past, shows an excessive dose of distrust between ethnic communities, which earlier existed maybe not in the same proportions. Political elites, in the interests of raising and forming powerful political entities, embody this distrust, respectively use this moment as the main reason for the creation of new political parties.

Segmentations of political parties based on ethnicity

The first political parties in Macedonia are presented as "national defense". This trend is more present in political parties with Macedonian prefix. This is reflected even in their names or their abbreviations. The first political parties that appears in plural Macedonian are: Action Movement for All Macedonian (MAAK), Socialist Party of Macedonia (SPM), the Party for

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[1] Cases of beatings of students in secondary schools in Struga and Skopje, which occur for many years between Macedonian and Albanian students.

[2] It should be noted that the first parties in Kosovo, which appear before the destruction of the Yugoslav federation, do not operate within the system (period of ignorance of the Yugoslav system - Serbian) and as such in court as illegal party. These parties are not registered in the state bodies, bodies that have been controlled by Serbia. Consequently, various elections have been organized parallel bodies, outside the state system Serb - Yugoslavia.

Democratic Prosperity (PDP), VMRO-Democratic Party for Macedonian National Unity (VMRO-DPMNE), The Party for Democratic People (PDP), etc.[1]

By abbreviations parties before it is obvious that the Macedonian political block is clear tendency for the creation of political parties with ethnic prefix. As support in this direction is the nationalist rhetoric of the newly established party leaders, but partisan political programs, statutes and other propaganda materials. Such practices, at first glance is not peculiar to the Albanian block parties PDP and PDP, but if you see their staffing structures, political program or statutes, with minor exceptions, it is clear that the basis of political organization and goals these two parties are national issues (ethnic), which affect the Albanian community in the country (Macedonia). However, if we are inside the Albanian community problems, most of them are political, social, economic, cultural and educational spheres. Despite this, the two parties are in a high degree of citizen retain their character (civil), encouraging and supporting coexistence and stability in the country. Civil character is present in the leading structures attended the members of other ethnic communities, even the Macedonian community. This is present in lower structures and their local organizations in regions in which no citizen living Albanian ethnicity.[2]

Of all these can be concluded that the Republic of Macedonia in parallel with the development of political pluralism and pluralism ethno political party place. Additional argument for this is the existence of political parties established exclusively on ethnic and religious grounds.

The political organization of the Albanian population in Macedonia, the part of Albanian ethnicity were accepted as logical commitment in defense of the national issue (national) and for creating preconditions for a better future. "What is valuable for political organization is that Albanians in Macedonia understood the party organization as a struggle between ideas and programs, which means the strengthening of general interest themselves. Unfortunately such an attitude to political pluralism and to the Macedonians did not exist ".[3]

Unlike Albanian political space, to Macedonian politic in the first place in relation to political pluralism, which corresponds to the first moments of independence of the state, it is presented a sense of insecurity, which orients political organization strongly nationalist direction. Active political parties and their leaders, pluralism was understood as "war" to monopolize power, and consequently the state, the second community in terms of the total numbers of - Albanians.

"War" goes beyond ethnic borders after mixing of the Macedonian Orthodox Church (MOC), which supported the formation of the VMRO-DPMNE.[4] Unlike COM, the Islamic Religious Community (BIM) in the first years of political pluralism there is no more serious role in the political organization of parties. But this is not peculiar to the second decade where governance structure of this religious organization supports various political parties of the Albanians. Certainly, in this case, political parties have more influence during the election of the Islamic religious leader than himself BIM - the impact on political parties.

Ideological divisions as a pretext for suppressing ethnic division

"The party system in Macedonia has symmetrical bipolar form: the existence of a party in power pole also in the opposition. On the other hand, the same bipolar asymmetric shape: regular coalition ruling party with other opposition parties of the Macedonian and smaller parties of the smaller ethnic communities, and coalition after the election to one of the political parties. ".[5] But after 2008 a new informal practice is set by which the ruling coalition created by the winners of the two ethnic political blocks (Albanian and Macedonian).For this reason, the party system in Macedonia can be defined as' two half-polar system".[6]

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[1] For the Macedonian parties are being used the original abbreviations, which are being used also in ordinary life, as from media also by the citizens.

[2] See. Daily newspaper archives "Flaka"; Press Conference the PDP; date number 13. 05. 1990

[3] Etem Aziri; Political organization of the Albanians in Macedonia; 2004, Skopje, p. 82

[4] Г. Силјановска - Давков; Идеолошкиот профил на политичките партии во Република Македонија; Зборник на Правниот факултет "Јустиниан Први"; Универзитет "Св. Кирил и Методи "; 2010; Скопје; p.313

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Political parties in the Republic of Macedonia can be divided into several grounds: ideological, ethnic, religious, regional, etc.

Classification Euro-Western political parties based on political orientation and affiliation towards supranational groups is present also in the area and in the Macedonian political life. Mainly, the political parties in this country, which emerged from the former Yugoslavia, are divided into the left and the right and center parties. In the space of the right and left are focused on two main parties VMRO-DPMNE and SKM - PDP of re-branded later as the Social-Democratic Union of Macedonia (SDSM), while the existing political parties in Macedonia, the Democratic Party of Albanians (DPA) is calculated as the right party, while the Democratic Union for Integration (DUI) as a party of the left. With the right determination was the first Albanian party PDP. As a party of the center is designated National Democratic Revival and New Democracy, the new party on the political scene. And these parties and other parties existing smaller also defined themselves as conservative, liberal, socialist, social democratic, communist, agrarian, and environmental (green), the Christian-Democrat etc. In practice, political parties in Macedonia have ideological nature hybrid, combining ideologies respectively, as a reflection of current needs and general European trend. Elements of some bold ideologies (eg. Social and ecological) are present in most of the political programs of political parties existing in the country.

Despite denials by political elites, most of the political parties in Macedonia are organized on ethnic grounds, as to the existence and also for the operation. In this regard, most of the parliamentary parties in the history of 20 years of political pluralism have been ethnically pure party. With minor exceptions, it continues to work, and considering the current situation and circumstances, such a thing tends to continue in the future. Mainly there are two parliamentary parties political ethnic segments: segment Macedonian Albanian segment. Also other ethnic communities are organized along ethnic lines. Unlike the second community in number - Albanian him, other communities fail to lock their representatives in the legislative body - Parliament only through coalitions and mostly with Macedonian political parties.

Political party which unites two major ethnic communities almost does not exist. Rare are the cases where specific individual from each community are party member in another community. This is reflected in the confidence which I take parties by voters. Sociological research shows that it is very little chance that a Macedonian political party gets votes from members of Albanian ethnicity and vice versa - Albanian political parties get votes from Macedonians. This is expressed in the parliamentary elections, unlike the presidential and local elections. In local elections this phenomenon is not constant, because the ruling coalition's flat affect central government, particularly in municipalities where one is minority communities. This is expressed in the vote for Mayor and not on lists for municipal council's adviser.

There is some idea of trying to create a multi-ethnic political party, in which the member would join the two largest ethnic communities, Macedonians and Albanians. The idea first arose from the last representative of the Republic of Macedonia in the Presidency of Yugoslavia, Vasil Tupurkovski, who in 1998 founded the Democratic Alternative (AD). In this party besides known intellectuals, artists were included, athletes, singers, etc., who include some Albanian. This party, despite the successful introduction of the 1998 in parliamentary elections,[1] only after two years was divided into several smaller parties, while in the next parliamentary elections failed to get any seats for deputy.

The second attempt to unite the members of the two largest ethnic communities in a political party was the formation of New Democracy.[2] one thing comes into play especially during the nomination of the leader of the party in the presidential elections of 2009. The attempt of this party was oriented to take advantage of the Macedonian electorate vote through the campaign based on the election campaign of US President Barack Obama. To a certain extent such a thing had success while the ND leader Imer Selmani managed to take about 150 thousand votes, among which over 50 thousand in the regions where the Albanian population lives there. But, on account of this, in the next parliamentary elections the same party managed to get only about 20 thousand votes in mainline, while to Macedonian not that at all, not getting any deputy mandates in Parliament.

"Political parties across the political spectrum in Macedonia over all are really ethnic and very little in the form of nominal and fictitious they are ideological. Two main Macedonian parties have a basic ideology: in a very careful manner they cultivate Macedonism. SDSM, finally in a systematic way, by personality and institutionally, often quietly, secretly but safely. VMRO-DPMNE roaring, by pushing and continuously, visible and in the challenge way ... The difference between

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[1] AD in these elections took 12 deputies and was part of the ruling coalition for half terms with VMRO-DPMNE and DPA.

[2] New Democracy emerged as a fraction of the DPA, respectively several DPA deputies took the party and formed a new party.

the Albanian parties DUI and DPA, despite statements to the ideological orientation of the left and right, are just a mean and achieved results in the fight for the purposes of Albanianism in Macedonia".[1]

Fragmentation ethnic political party based on a concrete sociological research

To observe the phenomenon of ethnic-based party fragmentation, we realized a sociological research. In order to have easier processing we decided that research to be made by two questionnaires, one for citizens of the ethnic Albanian and one for Macedonian community and for citizens of other community. Despite the fact that in both questionnaires have stayed Graf smaller ethnic communities, in this case their results are not treated, because these are mounted on the two largest communities, the results of smaller parties will be subject to another treatment of a scientific paper. Also in this paper we share only part of the questions, while the rest remain to be addressed also to other works. They surveyed 665 Albanian citizens, and 660 Macedonian citizens. The survey was conducted electronically, initially exposed to the social network Facebook, and for adequate involvement geographic, ethnic, gender and age groups, was conducted via , using the address of citizens from different bases nongovernmental organizations. This sociological research has a potential degree of error of up to 3.5 percent.

About 10 percent of Albanians (9.8) would have voted for a political party to another ethnicity, the Macedonian case, while 3.2 said that it is highly likely to do so. Meanwhile, 15.5 percent are undecided on the issue, answering the option probably, but such a vote would depend on many factors to 18.6 percent. On the other hand the negative responses are more pronounced, where 30.8 percent responded that it would do so, while 22.1 percent are even expressed in their tendency stating that in no case would vote for one party of another entity.

And the possibility of voting in favor of a political party to another entity (meaning the Albanian ethnicity) Macedonian answered by 34 percent, adding 8 per cent is of the opinion that there is very likely to do so so. 16.4 percent said they would probably vote for a party other ethnicity, while 20.7 percent think such a thing depends on many factors. Negatively were answered in this question 16.9, while about 4 percent (3.8) stated that in any case they would not have voted for parties other ethnic community.

	yes	Very likely	Maybe	It depends on many factors	Not	No, never
Albanian	9.8	3.2	15.5	18.6	30.8	22.1
Macedonian	34.3	8	16.4	20.7	16.9	3.8

What is the main factor determining to vote a party of other nationality?

And as the main factors for the vote a party of other nationality to Albanian respondents ranked as follows below:

If there is no candidate from a party of my nationality	*6.2%*
If there are good political platform	*10.5%*
If there are good economic platform	*15.5%*
If it offers solutions to ethnic problems	*25.7%*
Ideological factor	*3.6%*
Other causes	*6.5%*
No, never	*32%*

Macedonian respondents to answer the question the same are:

If there is no candidate from a party of my nationality	2.8%
If there are good political platform	20.2%
If there are good economic platform	34.7%
If it offers solutions to ethnic problems	15%

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[1] П. Е. Митев, А. Желязкова, Г. Стойковски, Македония на кеърстопът, София, 2008 г. с. 76 и 77

Ideological factor	5.2%
Other causes	8%
No, never	14.1%

To come to the purpose of research, survey questions were submitted in several ways, filed at the same time even in a negative context. In this regard the question "Why do not vote for a party of other ethnic community (another nationality)?"

To Macedonian respondents questioned answers two questions early on. In this respect they give these answers:

Due to the established tradition (Albanians vote for Albanians, Macedonians)	**31.7%**
Because of mistrust created by the past	**29.9%**
Because of hatred towards other communities	**1.8%**
Due to fear that the other ethnic community will prevail over my community	**9.1%**
Because my community will consider as traitors with	**1.8%**
The vote of a party other ethnic communities consider as treason	**6.1%**
Due to fear that the other ethnic community will destroy the state	**19.5%**

Meanwhile, Albanians responses are as follows:

Due to the established tradition (Albanians vote for Albanians, Macedonians)	18.8%
Because of mistrust created by the past?	47.7%
Because of hatred towards other communities	6%
Due to fear that the other ethnic community will prevail over my community	11.4%
Because my community will consider as traitors with	3.6%
The vote of a party other ethnic communities consider as treason	7.8%
Due to fear that the other ethnic community will destroy the state	4.7%

Conclusions

From research conducted we can reach some conclusions, concrete issues. Although lacking sociological research on this issue, always starting from the reality in Macedonia, we can conclude that there is a negative trend in terms of fragmentation ethno party. In the base case outlined in this paper - the opportunities citizens to vote other political party from other community, we conclude that now we have an increase confidence of citizens of one community to another community for political parties. If for Albanians, such a thing reaches about 10 percent, to Macedonians passes over 34 percent.

Also, the number of undecided voters and those who are defined as having likely to support such a thing is quite high (15.5 or 16.4). However still dominates perception early on, especially in Albanian community for lack of confidence in the Macedonian political parties (about 53 percent would not have voted for Macedonian parties). This is justified by the fact that the Macedonian political parties enjoy a monopoly of power in the Republic of Macedonia, on the other hand have no influence on their political agendas or economic regions in which the Albanian population live. Also the creation of long-term belief discrimination Macedonian party continues to rule the Albanians.

In the absence of data in the past, namely the individual level of trust in political parties other ethnic community as the benchmark will take electoral concrete results. Given the results of the recent parliamentary elections, the results of the research are almost surprising, especially to the Macedonian community. The fact that in the regions of pure Macedonian population, votes for political parties are nonexistent, then create room for doubt in the fact that about a third of Macedonian citizens may have created confidence in the Albanian block parties. However, this question can fall with the results of the following questions, where especially Macedonian respondents, give answers that actually break down the results of the first question and restore the old traditional attitude to vote on ethnic grounds, and perhaps the answer to the question of The first may be a reflection of the creation of contemporary Macedonian citizen who is coexistence. If the second question for which reasons would have voted for a political party to another ethnic community cannot manage to draw concrete

answer, then so we can draw from next question "Why do not vote for a party other ethnic community (another nationality)?". Specifically we learn that about 32 percent of Macedonians are supporters of traditional beliefs do not vote for Albanian parties and 30 percent do not vote due to mistrust of the past. Also worth noting that the Macedonian community about 20 percent continue to think that if they had won an Albanian party then Albanians will destroy the country, or even the fact that 10 percent have fears of domination to the community. Meanwhile, there is also such a thing as a betrayal of its own people. In this case we might come to the conclusion that the Macedonian community continues to be fully expressed in tendency to remaining within ethnic lines, respectively, to preserve the monopoly of power. So that, at least in a faster future cannot expect changes in this regard. This let us understand that the Macedonian citizen fails to come off the traditional nationalist framework.

On the other hand, the Albanian citizens of the research trend slight increase compared to the last parliamentary elections. In view of that low possibility in terms of voting for political parties of other community can say that it is justified in some ways. Initially, though in small numbers in populated settlements with pure Albanian population we have seen, although very low, vote for the Macedonian political parties. Meanwhile, Albanians have regular voters for Macedonian parties. They can be divided into three groups:

1. Albanian voters that vote for the block of Macedonian political party, in parliamentary elections, to which living exposition settlements that in electoral map falls in one Electoral unit where Albanians could not bring not even one deputy . Those voters are election side three and four. Usually this number in both electoral (….) captured about 10 thousand Albanian voters.
2. Albanian voters that vote that Macedonian political party, in local elections, are the voters that lives in municipality where Albanians are minority and they mainly vote only for the Mayor of that Municipality, meanwhile Albanians vote for council of the municipality.
3. Albanian voters that vote Macedonian Political party, which in presidential elections are the voters that vote the Macedonian candidate in the second round of elections.

Also from observable sociological research you can see causes of ethnic party fragmentation. If to a Macedonian voter main reason for not voting the party of another ethnicity is traditional voting for the party of the relevant entity, to Albanians about half of respondents estimate they have lost faith in the past. Meanwhile Albanians show significant signs of derailing the community dominated by another, a feature very evident to the Macedonian community.

But given the complexity of this issue we can never have high degree of safety. Always in this regard it should be emphasized that in plural societies, in the case in Macedonia, only a single event can change the view on a large scale for problems of this nature. These companies are very sensitive and often react based on momentum.

In this regard there is a huge influence of interethnic incidents. Many are tests which claim that inter-ethnic incidents are fabricated because through their ethnic political blocs parties maintain their support to their ethnicities. However, despite indications, such a thing is not ever evidenced.

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Kosovo's Security Policy in Preventing and Fighting Trafficking of Human Beings 2009-2014

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Abstract

Development of policies for the prevention of every nature of organized crime from the security institutions of the Republic of Kosovo is an important element through which is aimed the coordination of works and prevention activities in order to respond to negative phenomena through taking precautions. Prevention means all activities that impact on halting and reducing crime as a social phenomenon, both quantitatively as well as qualitatively, through occasional initiatives (ad hoc). Advancing capacity to prevent crime is the need of the time and the challenge faced by the countries of the Western Balkans, especially Kosovo, because in this area there is still the old belief that only the police should be involved to prevent and fight trafficking of human beings. Nature and trends of trafficking of human beings have taken a direction in which the police as law enforcement agency cannot as such prevent these crime phenomena. Therefore, it is time imperative that in the field of crime prevention of human trafficking engage all relevant institutions with special emphasis on civil society and community in particular. To cope with the challenges of preventing and fighting trafficking of human beings, activities within state's territory are not sufficient, but it is vital that states align and coordinate activities at the regional level in real time, place and space identified for common actions. This paper aims to address this phenomenon not only in the case of Kosovo, but also in the Western Balkan region. The main thesis of this paper is the articulation of the problem in order to successfully prevent the phenomenon of trafficking of human beings through awareness of citizens, while from institutions is required opening of perspectives for new generations, for work and life, through economic development, fighting poverty, stimulating employment and preventing the migration in different countries. To successfully prevent crime, particularly trafficking in human beings, it is necessary that responsible institutions have sufficient human resources, specialized and equipped with technical tools and necessary technology, to have continuous specialized training and to deal with all phenomena of organized crime.

Keywords: prevention, fighting, crime, trafficking, capacity, training, technology, etc.

INTRODUCTION

Trafficking of human beings in Kosovo is a complex phenomenon and constantly shows changes in the form and manner of the performance. General nature of the crime of this act is hidden and victims are threatened, blackmailed, intimidated, deceived and systematically exploited by traffickers, therefore victims do not self-declare nor dare to speak about the situation in which they stand even if they talk to law enforcement personnel.

Current trends of human trafficking in Kosovo show that this criminal phenomenon is focusing more on internal trafficking (within Kosovo) and as a result the number of identified victims of trafficking is increasing, also in recent years there are more victims identified in locations/apartment/private homes than in night bars, which was not the case a few years ago.

The main form of trafficking, respectively the manner of victims exploitation still remain exploitation for the purpose of providing sexual services (forced prostitution) but also with some minor cases of forced begging.

Today, in the world, human trafficking in considered as modern slavery and, while one of the main goals of any democratic country which aims rule of law it is to combat human trafficking, as one of the most complex crimes, therefore through this research I tend to spread my knowledge associated with this offense that is prescribed by the Criminal Code of Kosovo, in particular highlighting the similarities and differences of the offense of trafficking with other similar criminal offenses, which essentially differ from human trafficking, as well as the position of human trafficking victim. By analyzing the causes and factors of human trafficking in our country, the applicable legislation in Kosovo, especially international cooperation, through

this paper will attempt to somehow present some essential elements of this negative occurrence with elements of criminal act punishable with our legislation as well as international legislation. It is a known fact that international factors have paid special attention to combating this phenomenon with the release of a series of measures and adequate laws, because this complex crime more and more has been growing in its entirety as a phenomenon, more complex methods are added to this crime and also have highlighted the weakness of the state towards the crimes of this kind. International and multilateral cooperation can play an important role in combating trafficking activities.

The definition of trafficking offenses under the laws of Kosovo

For its nature and its content, this offense is very close to the crime of smuggling people, because even with this offense human beings are treated as objects, where human dignity, the basic rights and freedoms are violated. Moreover, as Professor Kambovski asserts, human being is degraded and treated like an animal! (Kambovski V.,2011:1203). The name itself "human trafficking" quite clearly shows that this offense trades and alienates people, where the main goal is the realization of material benefits. Under paragraph 1 Types of actions which are conducted by this criminal act are determined alternatively and as such are numerous and complex. Consequently, as a form of commission of this offense is considered; recruitment, transfer, harboring or admission of trafficked persons (victims) with the aim of exploitation in different ways such as; sexual exploitation or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or removal of organs (illegal transplant of organ).

In paragraph 2, as a serious form of human trafficking offense is considered the case if the offense in paragraph 1 of this Article is committed in a circumference of 350 meters of a school or other locality which is used for children, or when the offense is committed against a person under eighteen years old. In paragraph 3 is foreseen a special form of this offense which is considered as such by the fact that someone has organized a group, or when there is a established group of persons for the purpose of committing the offense of human trafficking foreseen in paragraph 1 of this article (Salihu I.,2014:138). In paragraph 4 it is also foreseen severe form of human trafficking if the foreseen offense in three previous paragraphs is committed by an official by misusing official position. While in paragraph 5 as a severe form of human trafficking is considered human trafficking offense which caused the death of one or many persons.

The example of very severe form of human trafficking where death of people was caused was trafficking citizens from Albania to Italy across the Adriatic Sea by raft on January 9, 2004, which killed 28 people. Also very serious case of this offense was trafficking of Kosovars, where in October 2009, in the border between Serbia and Hungary, in the Tisa River drowned 17 people, among them women and children. All these forms of crime of human trafficking may be committed by any person, except this form of the offense foreseen in paragraph 7 of this article, which can be committed only by official person. This offense is considered to have been committed even when the passive subject (trafficked person) has given consent to be trafficked (paragraph 6, point 3). Regarding the guilt, all forms of this offense, can be committed intentionally. Sentences for the offense from paragraph 1 punishable by a fine and imprisonment up to twelve years, sentences for offenses from paragraph 2, a fine and imprisonment of up to fifteen years, sentences for offenses from paragraph 3, a fine of up to 500,000 euro and by imprisonment of seven to twenty years, for the first offense from paragraph 4 are foreseen different sentences, while for the offense from the paragraph 5, imprisonment of at least ten years or life imprisonment (Idem; Pg. 138).

Regional and international instruments which relate directly to trafficking and forced labor

Human trafficking is foreseen as a criminal offense with a relatively large number of international conventions. The most important international conventions prohibiting and punishing human trafficking are; Convention on the prohibition of the white slave trade 1910; Convention for the punishment of trafficking of women and children, 1921; Convention for the punishment of adult women trafficking of 1933 and the Convention on the punishment and prevention of human trafficking and their exploitation for prostitution of 1949 and the Convention on the prevention of human trafficking and exploitation of others 1950.

General knowledge and statistics on human trafficking in Kosovo

According to reports from international organizations, about 2 to 4 million people are trafficked worldwide each year, approximated by the United Nations. According to the National Crime Squad in the UK around 200,000 people are brought illegally to Europe every year, most of whom come for sexual exploitation. About 200,000 people are trafficked in Europe

every year; the majority is women and girls forced into prostitution. While, according to the State Department of USA, 80% of victims are trafficked into the international borders are female and 70% of them (women) are trafficked for sexual exploitation. An estimated 7-13 billion dollars profit is generated annually from trafficking. While, based on official statistics on the number of cases that are prosecuted in the courts of Kosovo during period 2009-2104, we find that there is not such a large number of them, compared with reports of various organizations, stating that there is a large number of cases of human trafficking, but which were not detected and investigated by the investigating authorities. Below, for comparative needs, I will present tables in which are presented the numbers of cases received in the district courts, from 2009 to 2014 (Police Reports: 2009-2014).

Table 1 Victims identified by age group - 2009

Age	14--17	18--22	23--25	26--30	31--35	36--40	41-50	Totali
Female	7	7	6	2	3	3	1	29

Table No. 2 Cases/offenses from 2009 to 2014

Cases by criminal acts	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Human trafficking	32	31	28	32	38	28
Provision of prostitution	4	8	11	26	18	24
Dealing with prostitution	11	14	17	30	15	21
Other acts	22	4	10	4	17	16
Total	69	57	66	92	88	89

Table 3. Arrests based on criminal offenses from 2009 to 2014

	2009	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**Totali**
Human trafficking	34	76	91	121	91	66	479
Provision of prostitution	3	13	39	39	35	35	164
Prostitution	9	27	50	61	26	49	222
Placement of slavery			1		0		1
Other acts	6	5	2	7	30	11	61
Total number of arrest	**52**	**121**	**183**	**228**	**182**	**161**	**927**

Table No.4 trafficking victims identified by nationality in Kosovo 2009-2014

	Kosovar	Moldovian	Albanian	Romanian	Bulgarian	Serbian	Pole	Other	**Total**
2009	16	8	3		1	1			29
2010	28	1	7			2	1		39

2011	35		1			3			39
2012	29	23	1					1	54
2013	44		7			1			52
2014	36		4	1		1			42
Total	**188**	**32**	**23**	**1**	**1**	**8**	**1**	**1**	**255**

Table No. 5 victims of trafficking identified by level of education in Kosova 2009-2014

Victims - level of education 2009-2014	Nr
Illiterate	23
Initial education	158
Secondary education	70
University	4
Total	255

No. 6 victims of trafficking identified by means of recruitment in Kosovo 2009-2014

Victims – manners of recruitment 2009-2014	Nr
Job offers/promises	141
Promise for marriage	75
Tourism	/
Other	39
Total	255

Table No. 7 Victims of trafficking identified in the manner of exploitation in Kosovo from 2009 to 2014

The form of exploitation of victims 2009-2014	Nr
Sexual exploitation/forced prostitution	190
Forced labor	31
Forced begging	16
Holding in slavery and servitude	18
Exploitation for organ removal	/
Total	255

Factors favoring human trafficking in Kosovo

The Kosovo war 1997-1999, is manifested in the economic and social consequences which largely affected people. Over 120 thousand homes were destroyed, family and economic situation in Kosovo especially that of the village came under the average level down to extreme poverty, demographic movement occurred, the population largely migrated from the villages to the cities. The unemployment reached high up to 70%. Many families had killed members in the war and were left without any source of existence. Many children from poverty had to leave school and look for work to support themselves and their families, all of which were prerequisites that networks of traffickers from different countries of the world, come to Kosovo to recruit local traffickers, but also for Kosovar trafficked victims.

Criminal activity of traffickers of human beings becomes even easier by the absence of its preventive mechanisms, such as the security institutions of the country and state institutions. Initially, immediately after the war of 1999 human trafficking began with victims from post-communist countries of Eastern Europe, but soon the local Kosovar victims too. As statistics show, the trend of trafficking of Kosovo victims has increased from year to year, but this figure is only of those who were identified and rescued from trafficking, because the number of trafficking victims is many times larger and under Kosovo Police reports, it can be around 2 thousand victims from 1999 onwards.

The legal basis for preventing and combating human beings trafficking in Kosovo is based on these laws, regulations and national documents as follows:

• The law on preventing and combating human trafficking and protecting victims

• Law on Foreigners

• The law on compensation of victims of crime

• National Strategy on Combating Trafficking of Human Beings and action plan 2015 to 2019.

• Standard operating procedures for trafficked persons in Kosovo

• Minimum standards for the care of victims of trafficking

• Long-term strategy for the reintegration of victims

To these general factors favoring human trafficking are also added individual factors of trafficked victims, as is the age of the victims, mainly between the ages of 14 and 18, which is the age of lability, education of victims (many victims are illiterate, with primary and secondary education), poor economic condition of the family of the victims, as well as the stability of their families (families with divorced parents or with presence of domestic violence). Increased number of victims assisted and rescued, presents the result of the work of institutions to combat human trafficking in our country. However, the largest number of local victims is trafficked to Western Europe, who are never rescued and continue to live as victims of human trafficking. The first cases of human trafficking in Kosovo are marked with victims of the Southeast European countries[1] which come from countries where unemployment is high and where traffickers deceive the victims with the promise of employment, but exploit them exclusively for practicing commercial sex. Foreign victims of trafficking are brought to Kosovo after the war, in order to provide employment in prostitution, whom would be used by international workers. Kosovo's new residents, who come from all over the world, have been and continue to be regular clients of sex workers. Immediately after the war, Kosovo was considered as a high risk country, so the international community would not allow its employees to bring their families with them, or many of them were unmarried. International workers were also advised not to enter in relationship with local women, because according to the traditions of the local population, it can be dangerous.

Protection and assistance for victims

Protection of victims of trafficking remains a challenge for the institutions of Republic of Kosovo despite the fact that progress has been made in creating adequate conditions for protection measures, housing and reintegration of trafficking victims. The cooperation and contribution of civil society organizations is of particular importance, especially those that provide specialized services and expertise in dealing with this sensitive issue. Government of Kosovo supports the issues

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[1] http://web.archive.org/web/20060222155531/http:/www.usembassy.it/file2001_04/alia/a1042405.htm

of protection and reintegration of victims of trafficking and in 2012 provided support to 43 victims of trafficking, while in 2013 provided support to 52 victims of trafficking[1].

A particular progress concerning the protection of victims of trafficking is the review of standard operating procedures to reflect changes made in the new criminal code, in particular for police officers and social workers about the referral of trafficking victims after their identification. The Ministry of Justice is drafting Law on Compensation of Victims of Crime by whom the program for compensation of victims of crime will be functional and will be in accordance with Council Directive 2004/80/EC of April 29, 2004, concerning the compensation of victims of crime.

The creation of safe conditions for repatriation and resocialization of victims

Proper protection and support should be extended to all trafficked persons without discrimination. However, victims are being saved from traffickers often face difficulties to reintegrate in society. In order to overcome this problem, legal and other material assistance should be provided to trafficked persons to enable them to realize their right to adequate and appropriate improvements. The needs of victims of trafficking can be different:

1) Basic needs and requests for accommodation, food, medical control, communication with family, etc. (Netkova, B;2009:152)

2) Health needs - headaches, anxiety, stress, anxiety, various diseases.

3) Legal needs - legal representation, counseling, representation from victim protection unit, etc.

Protecting witnesses from threats or intimidation has been and remains one of the greatest challenges for the judicial system in Kosovo. This issue has been repeatedly raised in the reports of various international organizations on justice. Incidents of witness intimidation continue to hamper the proper functioning of the justice system, especially in high profile criminal cases.

International cooperation with countries and international organizations in combating the phenomenon of trafficking

Trafficking is a regional and global phenomenon that cannot always be dealt with effectively at the national level, so strengthened national response can often result in the operations of traffickers elsewhere. International and multilateral cooperation can play an important role in combating trafficking activities. States should adopt appropriate legislation and other necessary measures to prevent and combat trafficking and its acts as: the adaptation of bilateral agreements aimed at preventing trafficking, protecting the rights and dignity of trafficked persons and support their welfare; provision, on bilateral basis or through multilateral organizations, technical and financial assistance, countries and relevant sectors of civil society in order to aid the development and implementation of anti-trafficking strategies based of human rights; implementation of regional and sub-regional treaties on trafficking, using the Palermo Protocol and relevant international standards of human rights as a starting point and framework; adoption of labor migration agreements, which may include provision for minimum work standards, model contracts, modes of repatriation, etc., in accordance with existing international standards.

Conclusions

One can conclude that the 1999 war in Kosovo is associated with direct impact on the welfare of the population. Over 120 thousand homes were destroyed, family and economic situation in Kosovo especially that of the village came under the average level down to extreme poverty, and demographic movement occurred, the population largely migrated from the villages to the cities. The unemployment reached high up to 70%. Many families had killed members in the war and were left without any source of existence. Many children from poverty had to leave school and look for work to support themselves and their families. Most of the victims are rural origin, have lived their childhood in a poor economic situation, have been

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[1] http://ec.europa.eu/enlargement/pdf/key_documents/2013/package/ks_rapport_2013.pdf

unable to attend school, or lived in families with divorced parents and did not see any perspective for their lives, and therefore are easily misled by traffickers. The survivors of trafficking are not well received by the social and family circle, state institutions do not offer anything for re-integration into society, and they do not offer accommodation, food or employment for them to live independently. They live in safe houses which IOM offers, but their life is isolated, as if they were prisoners, with controlled freedom of movement. The victims have dilemmas about their lives. Clients of trafficking victims (which are used for prostitution), are mainly people who are rich, are married and have children, but visiting commercial sex workers, because according to them, they are beautiful and attractive.

Therefore trafficking has affected Kosovo families by stimulating and causing adultery. These clients of sex workers think that "prostitutes" are immoral along with their clients, excluding themselves, but in reality they are within this circle. Today, however small, only 95, the number of internal trafficking victims, represents a layer of contemporary Kosovar society, which must face our society and institutions, to integrate and to enable a normal life, as already has been saved. However, this number has a increasing trend and institutions of the country and our society must face, prevent and combat this phenomenon, in order not to mark an enormous increase which would become unbearable for our society. This phenomenon, if not fought now by local institutions, risks spreading even more and affecting the whole structure of Kosovar society.

Recommendations

At the core of this continuous and uncompromising struggle should be:

– Measures for judiciary reform. They must be accompanied by completing the legal framework according to international standards and specific conditions of our country.

– Full identification and strict punishment of the human trafficking organizers and their helpers.

– Specialized assistance to victims and their rehabilitation, starting with medical and psychological treatment and then create the conditions for employment at home and abroad.

– Increase of awareness to the public, particularly information of minors and young people about this ugly and inhuman phenomenon.

– Reduction of poverty and political tensions with social and other harmful consequences.

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Health Care Human Resources' Planning and Programming Act as a Necessary Tool for the Effectiveness and Strengthening of the Health Care Sector

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Abstract

The efficient planning and programming of human resources has a number of benefits for the organization, such as improved workforce management policies. Indeed, maintaining a healthy population has a positive impact on the productivity and competiveness of a country but it very much depends on the sustainability of the health care system and hence on the efficiency and effectiveness of its health care units. Health workforce planning and programming is a challenge for health care decisions makers as they aim to satisfy the needs of the system and secure a sufficiently sizeable health care workforce (medical doctors and nurses) in every geographical area and type of hospital. In the last five years, due to the severe economic crisis, the public health care sector in Greece has experienced a number of negative implications such as a freeze on the recruitment of health care employees, workforce imbalances, a reduction in health care expenditures and the merging of health care units. Based on the above, this study investigates the level of satisfaction of the health care workforce regarding human resource planning and programming in Greek health care units. Moreover, this study examines whether or not the personal characteristics (such as age, etc.) of medical doctors and nurses have any impact on their attitude. Based on the findings, recommendations are made to policy makers for possible improvements to the system.

Keywords: health care sector; workforce; human resources planning; personal characteristics

Introduction and Aims of the Study

It is true that in recent decades there have been tremendous changes in the standard of living as well as developments in technology and in the fields of politics and the economy. Together with globalization, they have impacted significantly upon modern public management. But it is also true that any improvements and progress in the organizations are likely to occur only when management successfully adapts to the environmental changes (Bloor & Maynard, 2003; Bouradas, 2002; Dussault & Dubois, 2003; Polyzos, 2014).

Management in the health sector is a relatively new global scientific issue. The first major steps towards international cooperation in health care began with the establishment of the World Health Organisation in 1948 and gathered momentum during the latter half of the 20th century. Such developments were a response to severe problems in health care.

The implementation of modern management in the health care sector may be considered as crucial since the priority in this particular sector is the achievement of ongoing effectiveness. According to Polyzos (2014, p. 39) all the actions linked with health care units focused on: a) *strategic planning b) total quality management and c) e-governance.*

The main aim of health care organizations is the satisfaction of all user groups and health care employees while the target of every hospital is the maximisation of the qualitative health care services through the effective use of the available resources (Bloor & Maynard, 2003; Carignani, 2000; Dussault & Dubois, 2003; Liaropoulos, 2007;).

Management in health care deals with a unique good with a form of its own. Its specific characteristics determine the organization and functioning of the health care unit, the coordination of many complicated activities, the continuous readiness for confronting urgent matters and crises, as well as the continuous demands and expectations of society (Buchan, 2000; Carigniani, 2000; Dussault & Dubois, 2003; Lanara, 2003; Niakas, 2004)

As open systems hospitals consist of different sub-systems such as departments, human resources, substructure, etc., that are interrelated and interdependent not only between themselves but also with the external environment. Moreover, the inputs of the health care system (i.e. human and material resources) are elaborated through a process and produce outputs (health care services) for society. The feedback mechanism gives the hospital the opportunity to monitor its outputs, its aims and its adjustment to the environmental conditions.

Clearly, any change in the subsystem affects the functioning of the remaining subsystems and the health care system in general. Hence, it is necessary for the management in health care units to find solutions that achieve a balance between the subsystems. (Bouradas 2002; Chen & Stroup, 1993; Chen, et.al., 2004; Dussault & Dubois, 2003; Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972).

The planning of human resources, as a major management tool and shaper of the system, requires targeted determination and future planning actions in relation to environmental changes (Bloor & Maynard, 2003; Buchan, 2000; Parry & Tyson, 2008; Walker, 1976; Zurn, Dal Roz, Stilwell & Adams, 2004). It is a continuously flexible managerial process that interacts between the system and the staff, whose numbers are adjusted to the organization's needs and possible environmental changes (Bloor & Maynard 2003; Dussault & Dubois, 2003; Hitiris, 2006; Walker, 1976)

Any plan should be adjusted based on the current and future needs that can result in new specializations in the medical and the nursing staff (Eitzen-Strassel et al, 2014; Dussault & Dubois, 2003).

Thus, the main aim of healthcare staff planning is the achievement and the sustenance of the required number of capable health care staff so that the unit is in a position to deliver health care services in the best possible way - an aim that is adjusted over the years. Moreover, planning aims to attain and sustain the improved development of the employees' skills and have the ability to predict all the administrative problems that stem either from an over-supply or a shortage of staff (Armstrong, 1984). However, health workforce planning and programming is a challenge for health care decision-makers due to great employee diversity and the complicated functioning of the health care sector. For this reason, the planning of human resources in this sector cannot follow the same process. In particular, regarding the estimation of human resources in the health care sector, there appears to be an interrelation between demand and supply. Due to this relationship, the challenge is to achieve a balance between supply and demand (Buchan, 1994, 2000).

The demand for health care staff stems from the user groups in terms of size, expectations and income distribution while supply stems from income, the status of the professionals and the relationship between different healthcare professions (Bloor & Maynard, 2003).

Another obstacle in health care sector planning is the analysis of the current situation and its assessment. Planning is assessed continually so that the necessary adjustments can be made in a rapid response to environmental changes. Hence the aims can be fulfilled only by determining sufficient targets and by monitoring the process (Dussault & Dubois, 2003; Merode, Groothuis & Hasman, 2002).

In the last five years, due to the severe economic crisis, the public health care sector in Greece has experienced a number of negative implications such as a freeze on the recruitment of health care employees, workforce imbalances, a reduction in health care expenditures and the merging of health care units. And if one adds employees' diversity, technological development, the continuous progress of therapies, the increased demand of civilians for improved health care services and the heavy bureaucratic culture of the system, then clearly Greek public health care units face many problems and difficulties (Halkos & Tzeremes, 2011; Liaropoulos, 2007; Mossialos, Allin, S. & Davaki, 2005; Notara, et.al., 2010; Polyzos, 2014).

Based on the above, this study investigates the level of satisfaction of the health care workforce regarding human resource planning and programming in Greek health care units. Moreover, this study examines whether or not the personal characteristics (such as age, etc.) of medical doctors and nurses have any impact on their attitude. Based on the findings, recommendations are made to policy makers for possible improvements to the system.

The Greek health care workforce: planning and programming

The central responsibility for the planning of health care staff in Greece lies with the Ministry of Health and Social Security. However, health care staff planning in the lower administrative levels of the system, such as hospitals and medical departments, is effectively limited to details in strategic planning. It appears that the decisions made about the planning of health care staff merely addresses the current needs of the system without any long term plan (Mossialos, Allin & Davaki 2005; Notara, et.al., 2010; Plati, et.al. 1998; Polyzos, 2014).

In recent years an attempt has been made by the Greek State to update the health care information system. Indeed, after many years of a time-consuming manual system, a computer database was created that now allows the process of monitoring the health care workforce to be managed electronically. More specifically, statistical data is recorded monthly in the information system of Ministry of Health Care and Social Security (www.esy.net) in order to maintain an up-to-date record of the health care staff in each hospital (Polyzos, 2014). In fact, each hospital updates the system monthly with quantitative data not only about the health care staff, such as the number of medical doctors and nurses, but also other information regarding the functioning of the hospital, such as the number of beds in the intensive care unit.

Quantitative statistical data is submitted by the senior management of hospitals once a year (which is compulsory) together with the recommendations of the upper hierarchical management of their services or departments (medical, nursing, administration, etc.). Also, according to the Greek Law 3580 / 2007, staff unions should be consulted for staffing requirements i.e. how many nurses and medical doctors the hospital plans to hire for the year, either on a permanent basis or fixed contracts.

When the above process is completed then, within the framework of a wider government policy, the Ministry of Health Care (in cooperation with the Ministry of Internal Affairs and according to their financial budget for health care staff) may coordinate the planning of future needs for all public Greek hospitals. In this way, if the policy makers decide to recruit health care staff, an announcement is made by the Minister of Health Care and Social Security for the recruitment of staff in specific specialised areas. This invitation is usually for permanent staff and published in a special issue of the Official Government Newspaper (Greek Law 3580 / 2007).

However, due to severe economic problems, Greece has already signed two memorandums that have had a tremendous impact on recruitment in the health care sector. As such, according to health care staffing policy (Greek Laws 3845 / 2010 and 3833 / 2010), in order for one person to be hired in the sector there must be five retirements (or withdrawals). Furthermore, the sector has experienced serious reductions in the number of contracts for both temporary and permanent jobs (medical and nursing staff).

Although health care staffing is recorded yearly and the Greek State has an overview (in numbers) of the health care units, the health care sector is under huge demands and is vulnerable to seasonal fluctuations: there are times during the course of the year when an increased health care workforce is needed, for instance during the summer when many health care employees are on holiday, resulting in a shortage. It should be mentioned though that shortages can occur throughout the year and that this has been a frequent phenomenon over the last five years (due to the financial crisis) and may be attributed to: a reduction in hiring; a shortage of specific medical specialisations; retirement and long-term leave; detachments and staff mobility, etc.; with shortages affecting both medical and nursing staff.

With regard to the nursing staff, three times a year all the health care regions of the country call the hospitals under their supervision and responsibility so that the needs for supplementary nursing staff can be submitted. Such staff can be hired on temporary fixed-term contracts (usually six months) (Greek Law 3580 / 2007) by the health care regional authorities and the hospitals. Regarding medical staff, at least twice a year and after the proposal of the senior manager of the hospital and a ministerial decision, summary tables are prepared at the central services of the Ministry of Health Care Sector for the recruitment of supplementary medical staff. The employment contract of the supplementary medical workforce is again for a limited period, usually six to eight months and in case of extreme shortages there may be a further extension. Such medical staff can be hired by the Ministry of Health Care in cooperation with the health care regional authorities.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that when needs in health care staff cannot be fulfilled through the regular process of supplementary health care staff recruitment then the hospitals usually cover those needs with medical interns and nurses – students that are gaining practical experience in order to graduate.

The above findings seem to suggest that the priority of the Greek State is only to satisfy short-term needs, with absolutely no plan for a long-term strategy, which leaves the health care system lacking direction. Indeed, there does not appear to be any evidence of planning with regard to health care staff in order to ensure a balance between supply and demand. As a result, there is an over-supply in health care staff with a lack of absorption by the system that leads to unfulfilled needs, and yet balancing the supply and demand of health care staff is a necessary element for the effective delivery of the services.

The lack of systematic analysis and of a decision-making framework has blighted the health care system for years but now leaves the system facing complicated and difficult problems of a more acute nature (due to the economic crisis) that can only result in stagnation and lead the system to murky waters.

Methodology

In this study the primary source of the data used was gathered through anonymous questionnaires that were distributed to the health care workforce of the Greek public hospitals during the years 2012-2015, out of which 529 were sufficiently complete for the analysis. The present research analyses only a part of a broader study that took place during the same period using the same statistical tool, and concerns the planning and programming of health care staff. The statistical methods used in the study were: descriptive statistics, factor analysis and correlation tests. The health care staff in question were asked to rate their degree of agreement to a number of statements regarding the planning and programming of the health care workforce (including personal and professional characteristics) by using the following scale: 1 = disagree very much, 2 = disagree moderately, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree moderately, 5 = agree very much. In the statements that concerned the planning and programming of health care staff, the factor analysis was reduced to a number of factors that were rated by respondents.

Findings

Respondents were asked to reply to 7 statements that expressed their perceptions concerning the planning and programming of health care staff. With reference to the statement "The senior management of the hospital (where I work) plan the recruitment of health care staff" the most popular response (36.1%) was negative (little or not at all), 32.5% moderately agreed and 31.4% agreed moderately or very much. For the statement "The hospital's planning of health care staff adapts to current and future needs", 39.1% agreed moderately or very much, 34.8% agreed little or not at all and 26.1% moderately agreed. Three statements were noted for their negative responses, namely "Medical interns contribute to the smooth functioning of the hospital", "Nurses (students that are gaining practical experience in order to graduate) contribute to the smooth functioning of the hospital" and "Current medical staffing levels are sufficient for the smooth functioning of the hospital" - 43.3%, 44% and 35.7% respectively. Two statements yielded mainly positive responses (agreeing moderately or very much): "Nurse levels are sufficient for the smooth functioning of the hospital" (48.4%) and "When the hospital experiences a greater need for health care staff (due to a reduction in hiring, a shortage of specific medical specialisations, retirement & long-term leave, detachments & staff mobility, etc.) then the senior management of the hospital reacts in a timely manner to cover those shortages with supplementary staff" (44.2%).

The application of factor analysis resulted in the extraction of two factors that have an Eigenvalue greater than 1. Of these, two factors were selected (see Table 1) which account for 62.23 per cent of the total sample. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was 0.552. Based on the empirical findings, the following factors were extracted:

❖   The *first* set of factors concerned the long-term strategy planning of human resources. These were: The hospital's planning of health care staff adapts to current and future needs, The senior management of the hospital (where I work) plan the recruitment of health care staff, When the hospital experiences a greater need for health care staff (due to a reduction in hiring, a shortage of specific medical specialisations, retirement & long-term leave, detachments & staff mobility, etc.) then the senior management of the hospital reacts in a timely manner to cover those shortages with supplementary staff, Nurse levels are sufficient for the smooth functioning of the hospital, Current medical staffing levels are sufficient for the smooth functioning of the hospital

❖   The *second* set of factors concerned the short term planning of human resources. These were: Medical interns contribute to the smooth functioning of the hospital", Nurses (students that are gaining practical experience in order to graduate) contribute to the smooth functioning of the hospital

The correlation t-Test between the first factor and the total years of service in public health care of the respondents namely the range 5 – 15 years, indicated a statistically significant positive relation (t = 2.430, df = 71, 2-tailed p = 0.018 <0.05), suggesting that as the years in public health care are getting increased, then respondents are more satisfied with the long term planning and programming of human resources. Moreover, the correlation T-Test between the gender of the respondents and the second factor indicated a strong positive relation (t = 3.428, df = 527, 2-tailed p = 0.001 <0.05), suggesting that women are more satisfied with the short term planning of health care staff.

Discussion

Based on the above analysis, the managerial tool of planning and programming is absolutely necessary for every social organisation but is of particular importance in health care where "imbalances in the staff are a major challenge" (Zurn, et.al. 2004, p. 1). The sooner that the aims are determined, the problems and opportunities identified and strategic actions developed, then the more fortified the health care system will be to secure the qualitative and quantitative delivery of services.

According to the results, respondents identified long-term planning as the factor that significantly affects their satisfaction levels. This stems from the fact that all statements included in the first extracted factor, as Table 1 shows, have high loadings for 44.42 per cent of the total sample. This result is consistent with the view of the World Health Organisation (WHO), which believes that planning and human resource policies in health care contribute to the development of vision and to the determination of a series of processes that need to be implemented in order to achieve both short- and long-term aims (WHO, 2001). In fact, a number of researchers (Buchan, 1994; Dussault & Dubois, 2003; Eitzen-Strassel et al, 2014; Parry & Tyson, 2008; Skroubelos et.al. 2012) have suggested this important process is the only way that hospitals can be manned with the right combination of capable staff, both qualitatively and quantitatively, and hence constitutes the investment in human resources necessary to satisfy the system's needs.

Research in the field (Bloor & Maynard, 2003; Cartmill et al, 2012; Chen, et.al., 2004; Kopanitsanou & Brokalaki, 2009; Sarafis, Malliarou. & Sotiriadou, 2010; Swansburg, 1999; Zurn, et.al., 2004) has converged on the conclusion that the best possible composition of appropriate health care staff - capable medical doctors and nurses - can give the hospital its best chance of a competitive advantage.

Moreover, the results showed that as the years of service in public health care increase then there is more likely to be greater satisfaction with the long-term staff planning. This result can be attributed to the fact that those with longer service in public health care are permanent employees so they enjoy job stability and relatively higher salaries than their younger counterparts. Indeed, there is no surprise in the fact that a younger health care workforce may feel high levels of insecurity in Greece, especially during the last five years as financial restrictions have increasingly tightened due to the country's mounting debts, resulting in tremendous reductions in the number of job contracts. As the Greek economy has struggled to find a way out of recession, the Greek State appears to be addressing only short-term needs as it hastily attempts to satisfy users' demands and expectations. While covering short-term needs may be a necessary step towards sustainability, the success of a system equally requires an emphasis on planning - a word that seems to be outside the vocabulary of the Greek health care system.

In addition, the results revealed that female health care staff are more likely to be satisfied with short-term planning. Given that the majority in the sample were women while the vast majority were nurses, the result cannot be considered surprising. According to Greek law 3580 / 2007, three times a year hospitals can hire nursing staff on temporary fixed-term contracts to cover any shortfall. Perhaps this could provide a better employment opportunity for women with experience of child and family care, as over half of the sample was married. Indeed, the role of supplementary nursing staff provides women with the flexibility "….to combine work and non-work commitments…" (Buchan, 2000, p. 204) and is a primary benefit for nurses in many countries.

Interestingly, there were mainly positive responses to the statement "when the hospital has an increased need for health care staff (due to a reduction in hiring, a shortage of specific medical specializations, retirement & long-term leave, detachments & staff mobility, etc.) then the senior management of the hospital reacts in a timely manner to cover those shortages with supplementary staff". This result indicates that hospitals do indeed take the necessary action to cover current needs or shortages. However, its role in this process is only functional since the final decision is taken by an upper administrative level, namely, the regional authorities. Subsequently, while hospitals may be reacting in a timely manner to shortages by initiating their administrative procedures for the recruitment of supplementary staff, any delay in the process may be attributed to inflexibilities in the system's human resources policy. Hence, a substantive element in staff planning must be the effective use of time. Furthermore, as Bloor & Maynard (2003) indicated, unexpected variations are minimized for greater success only when the hospital establishes a means of modelling and estimating critical environmental changes.

Conclusions

It is true that it is not easy to establish a smooth link between the past and the future when making long-term plans for the future actions of a health care unit since an organization cannot predict all eventualities. On the other hand, in order for a hospital to accelerate any qualitative improvement in health care services, it should develop productive methods, models or practices for an improved anticipation of future needs. Certainly, the key to improving predictions is through data collection and information analysis.

The human resource planning process is a key indication of total quality in the system (Jabnoun & Chaker, 2003). However, Bloor & Maynard (2003) have indicated that, for many countries worldwide, a major obstacle to the development of integrated and systematic health care staff planning is the political environment. In the particular case of Greece, relevant studies such as Halkos & Tzeremes (2011) and Mossialos et.al. (2005) have emphasized that political forces and clientelistic relations inhibit the efficiency and the quality in the public health care system. This distracts the Greek healthcare system away from equipping itself with the tools necessary to foresee future changes and make estimations about the environmental changes. As a result, the healthcare system lacks the proper planning and programming of human resources that would facilitate a sustainable correction of imbalances in health care staff. The frequent imbalances in Greece's health care workforce show that the Greek system is failing to overcome this major difficulty in the sector. Certainly the attempt of a country to bring improvements to the health care sector demands respect but a one-sided focus either on short- or long-term needs does not bring the desired results. Therefore, for any country that wishes to put a strong emphasis on health care staff policies and establish quality in the system, there is one path to the solution: the planning and programming of staff. The implementation of all steps in human resource planning should be free of political pressures so as to allow the system to deliver higher quality services.

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Site

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Tables

Table1: Factor Loadings

	Factors	
	1st	2nd
The hospital's planning of health care staff adapts to current and future needs	.839	
The senior management of the hospital (where I work) plan the recruitment of health care staff	.766	
When the hospital experiences a greater need for health care staff (due to a reduction in hiring, a shortage of specific medical specialisations, retirement & long-term leave, detachments & staff mobility, etc.) then the senior management of the hospital reacts in a timely manner to cover those shortages with supplementary staff	.824	
Nurse levels are sufficient for the smooth functioning of the hospital,	.760	
Current medical staffing levels are sufficient for the smooth functioning of the hospital	.497	
Medical interns contribute to the smooth functioning of the hospital		.797
Nurses (students that are gaining practical experience in order to graduate) contribute to the smooth functioning of the hospital		.855

Macroeconomic Trends in the Economy of Bosnia and Herzegovina

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Abstract

The economy of Bosnia and Herzegovina is in a pretty bad position. The main „culprits" for such position of economy are ineffective government, bad laws and corruption. Global recession has also given its contribution to bad moments of Bosnian economy. The key problems are: low level of production, high level of unemployment, wrong structure of export, borrowing money of International Monetary Fund, insufficient use of resources, mismatch (gap) between labor market and education sector, low level of direct foreign investment. The inflation rate is stable and that is a positve characteristic of analysed economy. There is no adequate economic policy and it is also a problem that needs appropriate treatment. There is a trade deficit because of higher import than export level. It is necessary to work on developing of new export products in Bosnia and Herzegovina and carry out adequate export promotion. It is inevitable to continue with the consistent implementation of economic and political reform and harmonization of legislation with the European Union. Each step requires support of all relevant state institutions. It is the only way to acomplish some visible improvement. Social dialogue between social partners can bring some benefits and serious steps towards better economy and family of democratic European economies.

Keywords: macroeconomics, economy, Bosnia and Herzegovina, production, unemploymnet, inflation, export, reform.

1. Introduction

In the last decade Bosnia and Herzegovina has a pretty stable and dynamic economic growth, but considering the low starting base and the questionable sustainability of economic growth, it is still insufficient to comply with EU Member States. Especially because of fact that mentioned "Dynamic growth" is the result of foreign donations and transfers from abroad (aid-driven economy) rather than successful implementation of structural, institutional and economic reforms

Privatization revenues, international economic aid and remittances from abroad have contributed to the relativly high pre-recession "dynamic growth".

During the post-war period Bosnia and Herzegovina is facing highly adverse structural trends; on the one hand there is problem of unemployment and on the other reducing of employment which significant reduced effects of "dynamic" economic growth and macroeconomic stability in the country.

There is a large imbalance of the external sector which means high deficit in the current and trade balance of payments. Public (government) spending is also a great problem because it takes high percentage of GDP.

2. Short outline of the main macroeconomic indicators

Key macroeconomic goals of all economies are: high level of production, stable infaltion rate, low unemployment rate and foreign trade. In this part some of most important macroeconomic indicators will be shown and analyzed.

Table 1: Som (certaine) macroeconomic indicators (2008 – 2012)

Indicator	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Inflation (%)	7,4	-0,4	2,1	3,1	1,8
Foreign excange reserves (millions)	6.296	6.212	6.458	6.424	
Export (millions)	6.847	5.634	7.294	8.430	8.184
Import (millions)	15.933	12.032	13.329	15.126	14.938
Balance of trade (millions)	-9.573	-6.398	-6.036	-6.696	-6.754
External debt (millions)	4.240	5.234	6.285	6.660	

Source: www.komorabih.ba

Looking at this table, it can be seen that inflatio rate is pretty stable and the reason for that is exsistance of currency bord as a form of central bank. Export is much lower than import and this situation should gradually be change in favor of export. Trade deficit was the highest in 2008 and after this period was decreasing. During the period of 2014. trade deficit was 6.849.296,00 BAM which is for 9,45% higher compared to previous year.[1] In the first trimester of 2015, there was an increase in exports, a decline in imports and reduce the trade deficit, which amounted to KM 1.44 billion, and was reduced for $ 122.15 million compared to the same period in 2014.[2] It is necessary to work on developing of new export products in Bosnia and Herzegovina and carry out adequate export promotion.

Table 2: Nominal GDP, GDP p/c and real GDP growth rate (2009 – 2013)

Indicator	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Nominal GDP (millions)	24.307,0	24.879,0	25.772,0	25.734,0	26.297,0
GDP p/c	6.325,0	6.474,0	6.712,0	6.709,0	6.862,0
Real GDP growth rate (%)	-2,7	0,8	1,0	-1,2	2,5

Source**:** www.cbbh.ba

In the analyzed period nominal GDP has been increased (except 2012) which is a positive characteristic of our economy. But its growth must be faster to enable better quality of economic development. GDP per capita has also been increased in this period (except 2012) and that is better indicator of living standards. In general, economy is fairly undeveloped, people are dissatisfied, unemployment rate is very high, implementation of reforms slow. Real GDP growth rate oscillates but during the 2013. year experienced significant (substantial) increase.

Table 3: Average net salary (2009 – 2013)

Indicator	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Average net salary	790	798	816	826	827

Source: www.bhas.ba

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[1] „Trade deficit in Bosnia and Herzegovina was 6.849.296 BAM in last year"; www.avaz.ba

[2] „Council of the Ministers: The trade deficit decreased to $ 122.15 million"; www.trt.net.tr

Average net salary has been increased in the period between 2009. and 2013. as it can be seen in previous table. But the increase was not significant. In the first quarter of this year amount of the average net salary was 833 BAM.[1]

Table 4: Unemployment (2011 – 2013)

Bosna I Hercegovina (february)	2011	2'012	2013
Unemployment / end of period	527.667	543.647	554.489

Source: www.bhas.ba

In February 2013 the number of registered unemployed in BiH amounted to 554.489 . If we take 2011 as a base year (2011 = 100) and compare February 2013 with the same month of 2012, we will notice that the number of unemployed increased by 2,1 index points, or in absolute terms the number of people registered as unemployed increased by 10.842 . It should be noted that the number of unemployed persons cannot be compared with the number of unemployed persons obtained through the Labour Force Survey.

Table 5: Macroeconomic indicators and sreenings of Bosnia and Herzegovina Economy (2015-2017)

	2015	2016	2017
GDP	3,4	4,3	4,6
Index of industrial production	5,7	6,5	6,8
Export	7,8	8,0	7,9
Import	3,0	3,6	3,5
Growth of unemployment rate	-1,0	-1,8	-2,0
Growth of employment rate	1,0	1,5	1,7
Nominal rate of average net salary	2,3	2,9	3,2
Consumer price index	1,1	1,0	1,2

Source: www.fmf.gov.ba

It can be seen tjhat growth od GDP is expected that is a good, positive news. Index of industrial production is also on the rise in given period of time. This is encouraging information for employment. There is no much variation in export nor in the import. Unemployment rate should be lower and employment rate is going to be higher which is connected with the increase in level of GDP. Net salary is expected to rise in future period but it depends on many factors. CPI is, as usual, quite stable thanks to currency board.

3. Economic policy

Key economic policy measures include: 1. Reduction and control of public expenditure 2. Reduction of workload 3. Labor market reforms 4. Improvement of business environment 5. More efficient use of resources 6. Economy and supporting economic activities 7. The fight against corruption 8. Social policy

Reduction and control of public expenditure – Public consumption makes 46,6% of GDP which is a very high percentage for small economy such as Bosnian. Public administration reform must be completed. It is also necessary to adopt the

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[1] www.bhas.ba

education system to labor market needs. Government should act in accordance with the principles of a restrictive fiscal policy. The focus should be placed on the program of restructuring of public enterprises, which operate at a loss. Material costs must be minimized.

Reduction of workload - The informal sector of economy is very present and that is a serious problem of Bosnian economy. In order to reduce the informal sector labor taxes and contributions should be lower. This can be achieved, in some way, by expending the tax base (abolish the fees that have no wage character and incorporate them in salary).

Labor market reforms – The labor market is very rigid and it is necessary to make it more flexible. New Labor Law, which would introduce more flexibility in labor relations, is required. The fund for disposal of those who have lost their jobs must be increased.

Improvement of business environment - We have a very unfavorable business environment. It is necessary to make the business environment more attractive for foreign as well as for domestic investors.It is necessary to increase the level of collection and payment of existing public revenues. It is very important to simplify the procedure for registration of companies.

More efficient use of resources - Our country is very rich in natural and other resources, but it is necessary to activate them in order to create conditions for significant economic activity and development.

Economy and supporting of economic activities – Agriculture is the sector of the economy that is underused although there are significant funds in the budget planned for the development of this sector. We should encourage the placement of domestic agricultural products. The energy sector represents our competitive advantage and it must be used in the right way. Road infrastructure is crucial for economic development and that's why the funds for its further development should be provided.

Sector SMEs is faced with huge problems of availability of financial resources necessary for its development despite the fact how important it is. The construction of technology parks and industrial zones must be increased.

The fight against corruption - we have to establish effective judicial framework and strong prosecution. Support of international community is very important during the fight against corruption.

Social policy - The reform of social benefits is inevitable.

4. Some features of Bosnia and Herzegovina society and economy

4.1. IMF and Bosnia and Herzegovina

IMF funds had to be used because of the huge public spending, as well as the inadequate and inappropriate social policy. Borrowing money is not a problem, many countries use money of the Fund during the crisis, but the level of IMF aid needs to be limited. Despite these measures, some other that would bring savings in the budget needed to be applied also. Due to necessity of repayment, investment spending is limited and that is a barrier for faster economic growth. It is desirable to minimize the use of IMF resources, to avoid greater independence about them. The question is: "Can we manage it?" Every new tranche is conditioned by implementation of some reforms. As long as there is corruption it will be difficult to function without the help of the Fund.

4.2. Effects of ecomomic crisis

The first effects of the recession were manifested by the end of 2007. and beginning of 2008; there was a sharp decline in exports and foreign cash inflows (in the preview years accounted for 10-15% of disposable income, but during the recession time experienced a decline of approximately 9 %). There also was presented a problem of raising bank interest rates.

Consequences of the recession were manifested in the following way: cutting down of industrial production (11,6%) and employment (0,5%), the decline in the value of construction works (16.4%), reduction in retail (10%) and increase of unemployment rate (4.7%).

4.3. Labor market and EU accession

The labor market and successful social policies are among the most important challenges of transition countries in their approach to the European Union and achieving faster economic development. In order to join the European integration, it is necessary to harmonize existing legislation with the EU legislation, which refers to the labor market. It means that Bosnia and Herzegovina must make some adjustments to European standards. The problem of the labor market is particularly pronounced because of disunited and fragmented market which is the result of complex administrative and legal system of the state. Normal functioning of the labor market is largely disabled by informal sector because it is not impossible to determine the actual level of unemployment. High unemployment is the most important feature of the labor market in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In addition to high unemployment (especially youth) and the informal sector, the labor market of Bosnia and Herzegovina is characterized by the lack of mobility of workers and mismatch between the labor market and the education system. Social partnership and social dialogue have become important in reducing unemployment and promoting employment, especially in the EU.

5. Conclusion

In terms of the European perspective, the country is characterized by the absence of real and structural convergence, especially when it comes to the existence of the functional market economy and its competitive ability. Market transformation of Bosnia and Herzegovina is reduced to macroeconomic stabilization and threfore country enjoys only the so-called stability of nominal economic indicators (stability and convertibility of the local currency, fixed exchange rate and a low inflation rate).

Real economic indicators show the economic backwardness of the country (a constant high unemployment rate, high deficit of trade and payments balance, sustainability of external debt with international assistance and transfers and low economic growth rate.

Approaching to the EU requires higher economic growth than the previous in order to bring our economy more competitiveness among the countries in Southeast Europe. The relevant institutions in BiH have prepared the 2015 National Economic Reform Programme (NERP 2015). This Year's programme is the first one to be submitted to the European Commission. The 2015 National Economic Reform Programme is an enhanced version of thw existing Economic and Fiscal Programme (EFP) submitted by potential candidate countries.

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The Implications of the Recent Economic Crisis on Fertility in Greece

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Abstract

A systematic review of past economic recessions occurred in developed countries confirms that social and economic crises often have serious effects on fertility while, beyond national differentiations, these effects have certain characteristics, e.g.a weak effect on generational fertility;an postponement on the timing of first birth, closely related to a late marriage or union;a close relationship between unemployment and age-specific fertility. The sensitivity of fertility behavior to economic crises is less marked in countries with longstanding family policies and strong social security systems. The recent social and economic recession in Greece took place under different social conditions than many recessions in the past. More women than ever are participating in the labor market, most couples use reliable contraception that enables them to postpone childbearing, while social security and health costs are burdened from the rapidly expanding numbers of elderly. All these factors can affect reproductive decisions and potentially aggravate the negative effects of the recession on fertility. This work, using the latest available official data of Greece, provides an investigation of the impact of the current economic crisis on fertility levels, as well as the evolution of these levels through time.

Keywords: Social and economic recession, fertility.

1. Introduction

The relationship between economic conditions and fertility is a classic research question in demography. The literature often mentions that fertility follows the cycles of the economy, while in times of economic downturn and uncertainty in the labor market, people are led to postpone childbearing, to adjust their family planning. (Goldstein, et al., 2013; Adserà, 2004; Sobotka, Skirbekk &Philipov, 2011; Hofmann & Hohmeyer, 2012; Schmitt 2008 and 2012).

From a theoretical point of view, the issue that fertility 'react' positively in times of economic growth and "negative" in economic recessions has been discussed for over two centuries. Originally, Adam Smith in his work the "Wealth of Nations" in 1776, links the economic growth with the population growth. Becker (1960), studies the relation between fertility and income level.Easterlin (1973, 1976) considers fertility as a function of the economic environment of the younger generations, based on the experience they had during childhood years, living in the parental household.

In contrast of the above theories Butz and Ward (1979a, 1979b) analyzing data for the US fertility of the first half of the decade of 70s, introduces the theory that fertility follows the opposite trend compared to the cycles of the economy.Considering the increasing participation of women in the labor market, he claims that the acquisition of a child in economic good times increases the "opportunity cost" for a woman. However, Macunovich (1996) argues that fertility remains linked to the cycles of the economy, while the negative effects of high unemployment during economic downturns are greater than any benefits of the reduction of '' value '' of women's work.

Nowadays, with the onset of the economic crisis in 2007-2008 in the US and the subsequent dissemination of European countries, the interest for exploring the relationship between economic crises and fertility is revived.

2. The current economic crisis and its background

The literature suggests that economic downturns have an effect in changing fertility calendar, i.e. postponement of births, which results in reducing the total fertility rate and the number of children (Rindfuss, et al., 1988; Andorka, 1978; Sobotka, 2008; Cutright & Shorter, 1979; Morgan, 1991 and 1996).

However the current economic crisis is characterized by significant differences compared with the previous ones. First of all, it is the most intense and longest crisis than all the previous ones, while the current conditions are significantly different in comparison to crises of previous decades (in 20s or even in 70s). Particularly in the late 2000s, the welfare state is much more developed than it was for 50 or 100 years ago, the percentage of women in the labor market and their educational level are significantly higher than in the past decades, contraception tends to be generalized, and the mean age of the first childbearing is much higher than before.In most European countries is as high as 28 to 29 years, that is four to fivetimes, higher than in the 70s, allowing limited further postponing of childbearing for a woman. In a variety of countries, the economic crises are accompanied with simultaneous significant changes of the pension systems, e.g. reduction in the purchasing power of pensioners and increase of the upper age limits, that leads to a reduction of job opportunities for younger people and clearly lower salaries.

At the same time, the current crisis occurred at a time at which many countries have extremely low fertility levels, while in a part of them a small rise of these levels have been observedin recent pre crisis years (as for example Greece). The increase in fertility in Greece had started since the early 2000s, stabilized in 2009, decreasing thereafter from 1.55 children / woman in 2009, to 1.3 in 2014, while a same reversal is recorded in other countries (Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Hungary, Romania, Spain, Italy, Portugal).

The differential intensity of the possible effects of the crisis in fertility levels can be attributed to the fact that before the crisis some countries had highly developed social safety nets and very strong family support policies resulting to minimize the effects of economic recessions (Thévenon, 2011; Fagnani, 2012).

The economic recession obviously affects first of all the younger part of the population that of reproductive ages. The unemployment rates at these ages reach extremely high levels, as a consequence of the crisis, and therefore this is highly likely to affect the reproductive behavior of young population. Usually, in this case a postponement of births is observed. The connection between economic recession and fertility seems to be strong in the southern countries, as well as in Eastern and Central Europe, whereas in the countries of Western and Northern Europe, where the impact of recession on the unemployment rates is limited, the current crisis and the slight rise of unemployment do not appear to have significant impact on fertility (Goldstein, et al. 2013).

 Numerous studies referring to countries of central-eastern Europe confirm the above (UNECE, 2000; Philipov & Dorbritz, 2003; Sobotka 2004 & 2008a,b; Frejka, 2008), emphasizing the relationship between the effects of the economic recession and public policies of family support. These studies emphasize that the relationship between work (career) and fertility are less confrontational in social democratic and former socialist countries due probably to the strong institutional support to working mothers. In the "classic" social democratic welfare state of Nordic countries the combination of employment and motherhood does not pose particular problems not only due to high benefits and long parental leave but also because of the wider positive attitude / behavior towards working mothers (Matysiak & Vignoli's, 2008). Finland had an exemplary policy that led to an increase in cross-sectional fertility in deep economic crisis (early 1990s). The introduction of a subsidy in the mid 1980s for parents who stay at home (child home-care allowance) for the care of their child (until the age of four) has considered as an attractive alternative to unemployment and limited job prospects for many women in the years of crises (Vikat, 2004).

Government policies can be effective in order to minimize or even to reverse the negative effects of the financial crisis in fertility according to Hoem (2000).

3. The implications of the current economic crisis on fertility in Greece.

3.1. Data and methods

The investigation of the potential impacts of the current economic crisis on the fertility levels of the population in Greece is based on analysis of the empirical data, provided by the Hellenic Statistical Authority (ELSTAT). These are,

• Number of births by five-year age group of mother,

• Number of births by five-year age group of mother and order of birth,

• Mean population sizes of women in reproductive ages by five-year age groups.

Although we have long time series for our analysis, we should note that the period from the onset of the crisis and beyond is relatively short (five years only, 2010-2014), while not yet available by ELSTAT data on births of 2014. This does not facilitate the investigation of potential impacts of the crisis on fertility.

Using the empirical data as described above, simple and complex classical demographic indicators are calculated, those are,

1. Fertility rates by age of mother,
2. Fertility rates by age of mother and order of birth,
3. Total annual fertility rate (synchronic analysis),
4. Mean age of mothers of childbearing (for first births and for all births).

3.2. Results

3.2.1 The evolution of fertility in post war Greece (1956-2013)

 From the end of the civil war (1949) until 1967, the number of births (Chart 1, Table 1 in Appendix) fluctuates at high levels. Specifically in 1949 births was 139.108, while the very next year (the first after almost a decade of war status) will amount to 151 134 and the next 17 years will stay around 150000-155000 to record in 1967 its highest value (162.839). The next seven years its trend is downward (at 1973 equals 137 526), while during the first postwar period this number will increase from 144 069 at 1974, to 148 134 at 1980. But the following years it will significantly decline to 101 167 in 1989 (32% reduction since 1980), followed by a decade of relative stabilization at very low levels (around 100,000 per year), despite the strong migratory flow from the former Eastern European countries. Finally, the first decade of 21st century births will have an increasing trend (118 302 in 2008, that is 17.5% higher compared with 1999). However this trend that will halt thereafter.While in 2009 births exceeded 110,000 from 2010 onwards will be progressively reduced, falling by 20% over the four last years.

Figure 1: Greece, 1951-2013, Births (absolute numbers) και Crude Fertlity Rate (0/00)
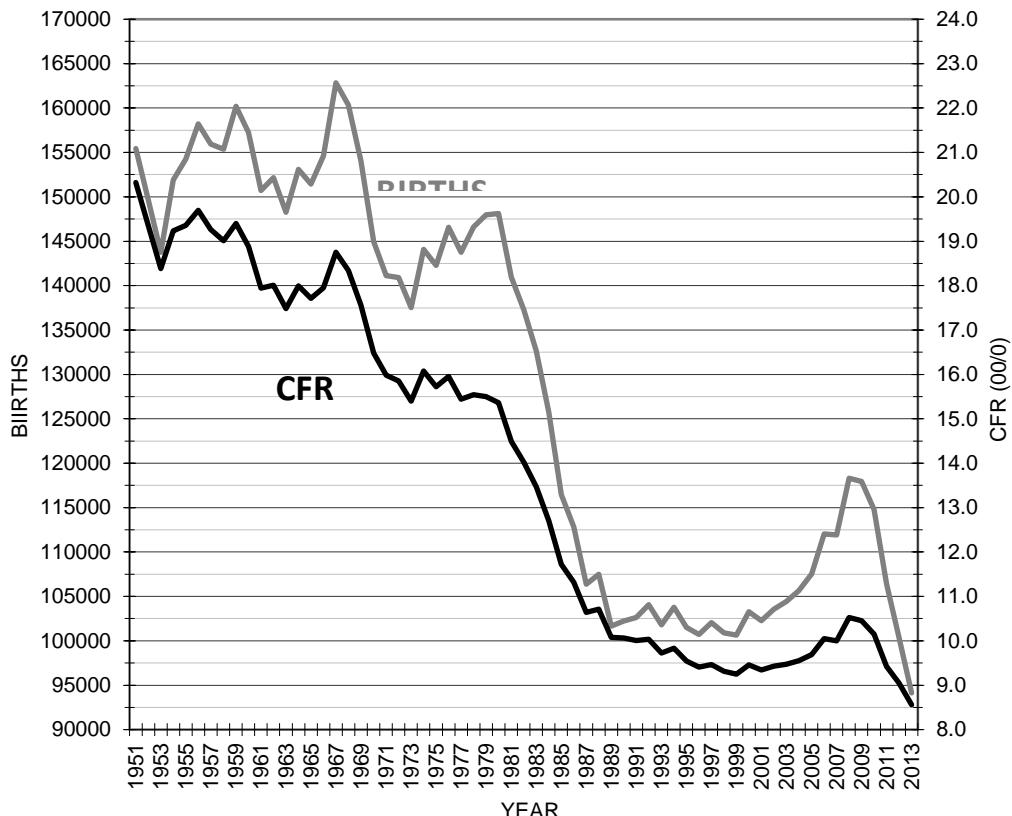
3.2.2   Total Fertility Rate

The Total Fertility Rate (TFR) indicating the average number of children per woman, (Figure 2, and Table 2, in Appendix), the first 30 years, until the early 1980s, recorded relatively high values (among the highest in European countries, namely 2.2-2.4 children per woman). In particular, at the beginning of the examined period TFR equals 2.31 children / woman and remains stable for a decade at levels higher the reproduction limit although with slight fluctuations since in 1967, when it reaches its highest value (2.45). Then, after 1980, in a first period, TFR will record a rapid decline (at 1989 equals 1.40 children / woman), resulting in the inclusion of Greece in the group of low fertility countries. The downward trend will continue clearly and slowly during the following decade, so in 1999 TFR takes its lowest value (1.24 children / woman), leading to the accession of Greece, in accordance with the international bibliography, in countries with very low fertility (Lowest-Low Fertility). From the early years of 21th century TFR begins to recover (in 2005 will exceed 1.3 children / woman and 2008-2010 will roughly exceed 1.5 children/woman). However the increase of TFR will not further continue, while in 2013 its value will be significantly lower (1.3 children / woman).

3.2.3   Mean age of childbearing

The mean age of childbearing in both all births as well as for first births, is characterized by considerable fluctuations (Table 2 in Appendix). The mean age for all births is high and relatively stable during the first postwar years while it declines from the early 1960s (decrease by 2.6 years between 1960 and 1981). This drop is obviously a result of continuous increasing of the age-specific fertility rates for younger reproductive ages (<25 years) and the simultaneous decline of the

corresponding rates in mature reproductive ages. But after a short time (until 1985) of relative stability the mean age will start to slowly increase at the beginning, but faster in following years, resulting togrow by about 5 years between 1985 and 2013 (26in 1985 to 30.9 in 2013). This increase is mainly due (up to the mid-1990s) to reduce of the age-specific fertility rates at younger ages, and from the late 1990s onwards, the increase of mean age at childbearing can be contributed to the increase of the age-specific fertility rates in mature reproductive ages.

Figure 2 (Mean age and TFR) capture the above described situation as it combines the intensity of the cross-sectional fertility with its calendar. The vertical drop of the curve from 1956 to 1981 and marks a period where the average age is constantly decreasing and the intensity of the cross-sectional fertility remains stable with slight fluctuations over the reproduction level (2.1 children per woman). Then for the four-year period 1981 – 1985 there isa heavy fall of TFR and a stability of the mean age of birth and then for a longer period (1985 - 2001) the mean age of birth constantly increases while TFR constantly declines. From 2001-2010 there is an increase both in the mean age of birth and of TFR, while from 2010 the average age of birth increases and TFR falls.

Figure 2: Greece, **Total Fertility rate versus mean age of childbearing (all births) 1960-2013**
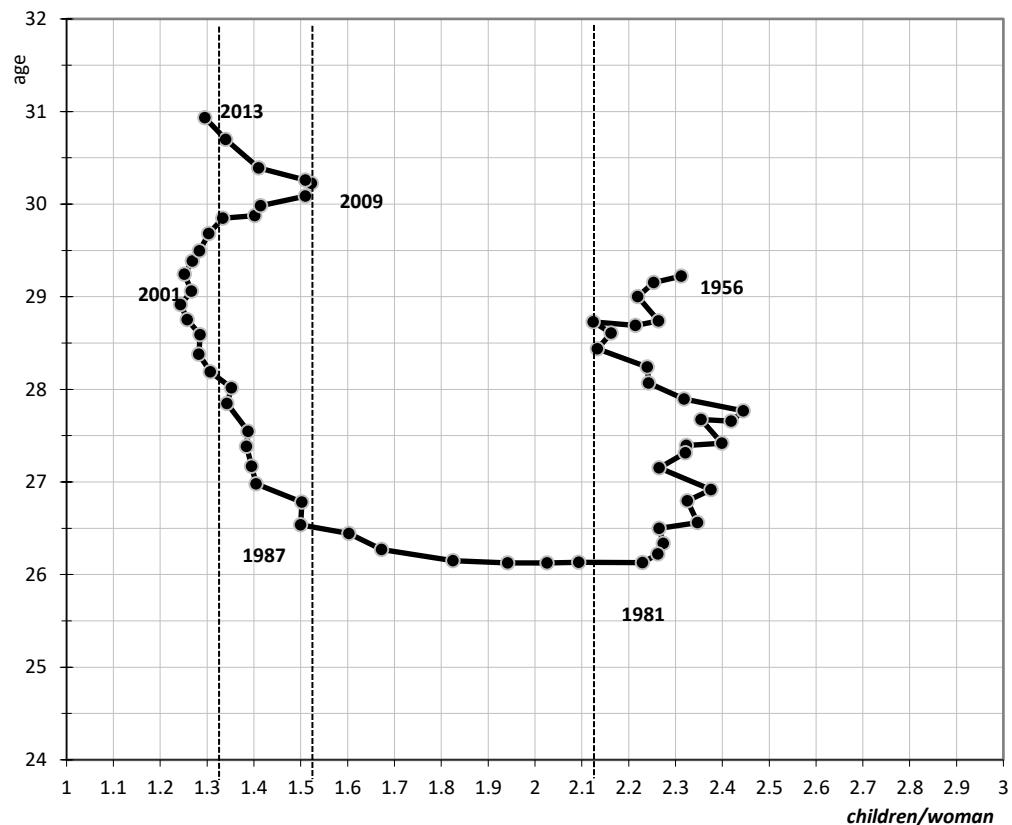
3.2.4 Age Specific Fertility Rates

Figure 3 illustrates the progress of the age-specific fertility rates. A first view of the figure shows that the rates in the younger reproductive ages (years 15-24) exhibit an upward trend until the beginning of the 1980s, a trend that will be

reversed in the next twenty years, leading them to collapse. The decline will halt temporarily for a short period (the 2000s) and will start again after 2010. Unlike the development of the age-specific rates of younger reproductive ages, the corresponding one for the later reproductive ages (> 30 years) will move initially downward, at the beginning of first decade of 21th century and then upward.In recent years, however, coinciding with the onset of the economic crisis in Greece, it is becoming a common trend: the rates in almost all ages significantly decline.A special behavior and diversified development follow the rates at ages 26-29. These rates follow an upward trend (as those of ages below 25 years) but they strongly fail during the decade of 80s, while they exhibit some temporary signs of recovery in later years.

Figure 4, which illustrate the completed fertility in successive ages, show that the completed fertility in the age 25 until the late 70s is increasing. Thereafter it is decreasing in all age groups. Figure 5 also confirms our previous conclusions, namely that the rise of TFR since 2000 - and in particular the differentiation in 2009 compared with 1999 is solely due to the increase of fertility levels of ages greater than 30. The figure also clearly reflects all changes of fertility levels throughout the period considered, especially those of the last fifteen years, and also confirm that the increase of TFR since 2000 is solely due to declining fertility of younger ages and thatthe fall of TFRthereafteris due to declining fertility of all ages. Moreover it becomes obvious that though the high values of TFR until 1980 is due to young ages, their subsequent reduction is almost entirely due to the same ages, while this reduction does not offset until the late '90s by increasing fertility of ages greater than 30.

Figure 3: Greece. Age-Specific Fertility Rates (1960-2013)
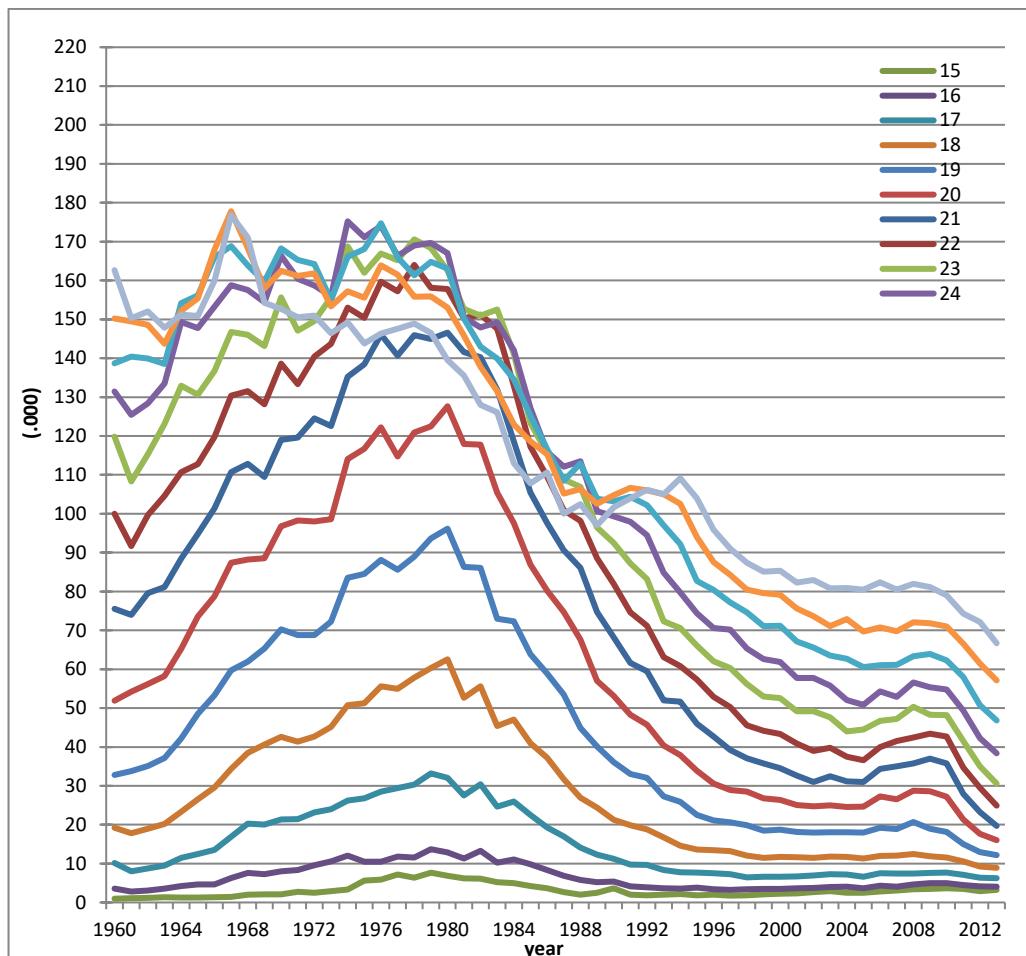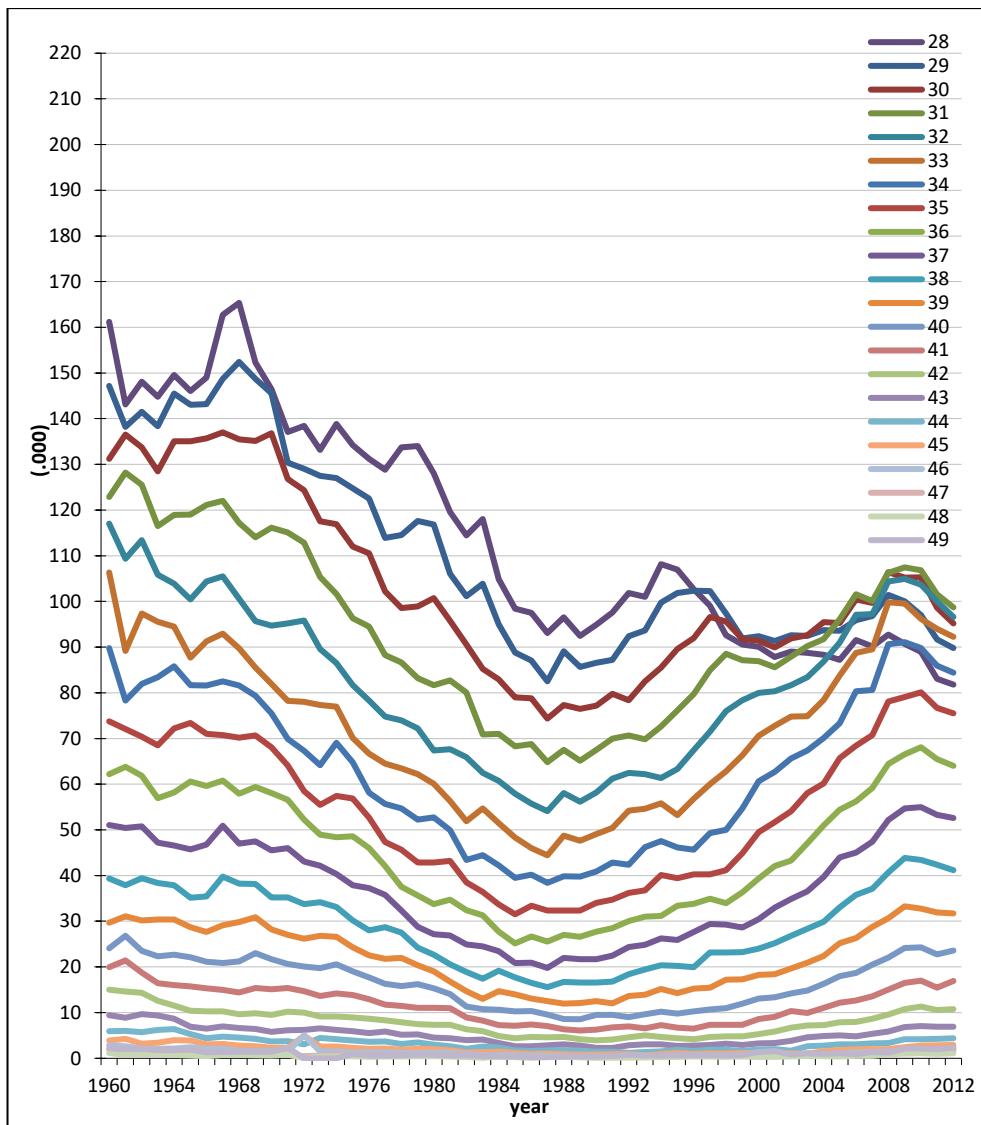
Figure4: Greece, completed fertility in successive ages for chosen years.
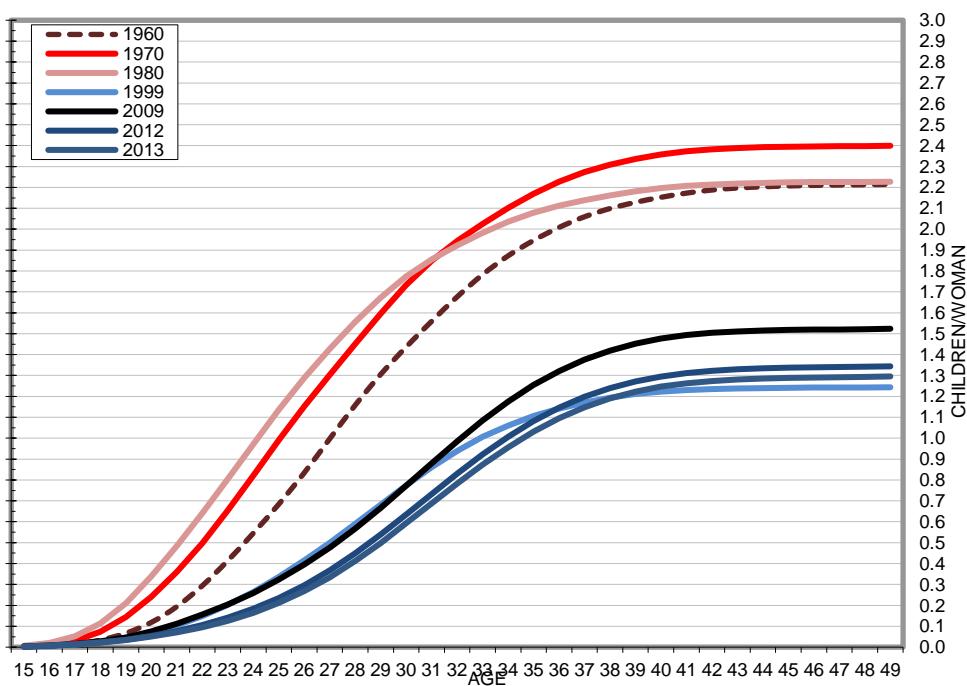
3.2.5. Fertility by birth order

Analysis of fertility by birth order allows to consider a) whether -and to what extent, the reduction in cross-sectional fertility after 1980 resulted from the reduce of total births and whetherthere are signs of changing family patterns , particularly regarding childlessness and b) to formulate some hypotheses for the most recent periodafter 2009 (years of crisis).

Examining the evolution of births in the postwar period (Figure 5 and Table 3 in Appendix) we first find that the first order births steadily increase. In particular, the first births being 40% of total births in the 50s, now (in 2013) represent 51% of the total, while the latter have risen slightly by the end of the 70s (from 32-33% to 38%) to then they stabilize. The steadily increasing participation of births of 1st and 2nd order clearly reflected in the figure, while in 1960 they are 73% of the total, from the mid-1970s they are 80% of total births, while inthe late 90s they exceed 85% (89% in 2013) of total births.

 Births of 3rd, 4th or higher orders exhibit a relatively smooth progression and fewer fluctuations in relation to the first two classes by following, though with differentiated rates, a rough downtrend (faster decline of births of 4thor higherorders in relation to those of 3rd order). Specifically, unlike the first two births orders, 3rd order births reduce slowly (from 15% in the 50 to 9% recently), and those of 4th or higher orders are collapsing (from 13% to 3%). It is worth noticed that in the 50s births or 4th or higher orders was around 20,000, whereas those of 2013 just exceeded 3,000.These trends are consistent with the apparently shrinking and gradual disappearance of large families.

Figure 5 : Greece. Distribution of births by order (1960-2013)
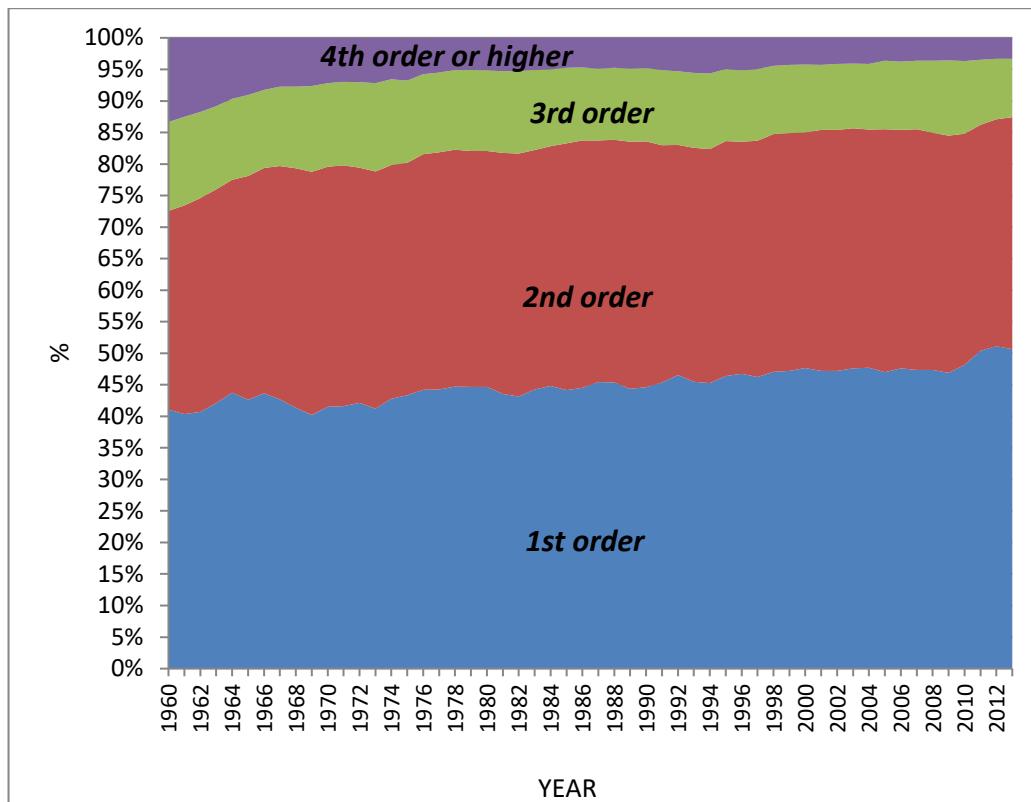
3.3.6   Total Fertility Rates and Mean Age at Childbearing by order of birth

First order TFR will experience a rapid growth in the beginning of the period (between 1960 and 1964) from 0.89 to 1.00. In the next period (1964 -1980) it will stabilize more or less around the unit, while during '80s it will significantly diminished by 40%, (0,98 in1980 and 0,62 at 1989). During the 90s it will stabilize around 0.6 children/woman, followed by the mid-2000s rise (2010 = 0.75 children/woman) while it will exhibit a small decline in the first years of the crisis (2011-2013).

Close if not identical progression- will follow TFR of 2ⁿᵈ order. This indicator after a rising period (0.69 children / woman in 1960, 0.92 in 1970), it will stabilize in 1970 to collapse then during the 1980s (0.55 children/woman in 1989). The fall will continue at a milder pace than during the 90s (0.47 children / woman in 1999) will be stopped thereafter while it will begin an upward trend after 2010.

Figure 6: Greece, Total fertility rates differentiated by birth order (1960-2013)
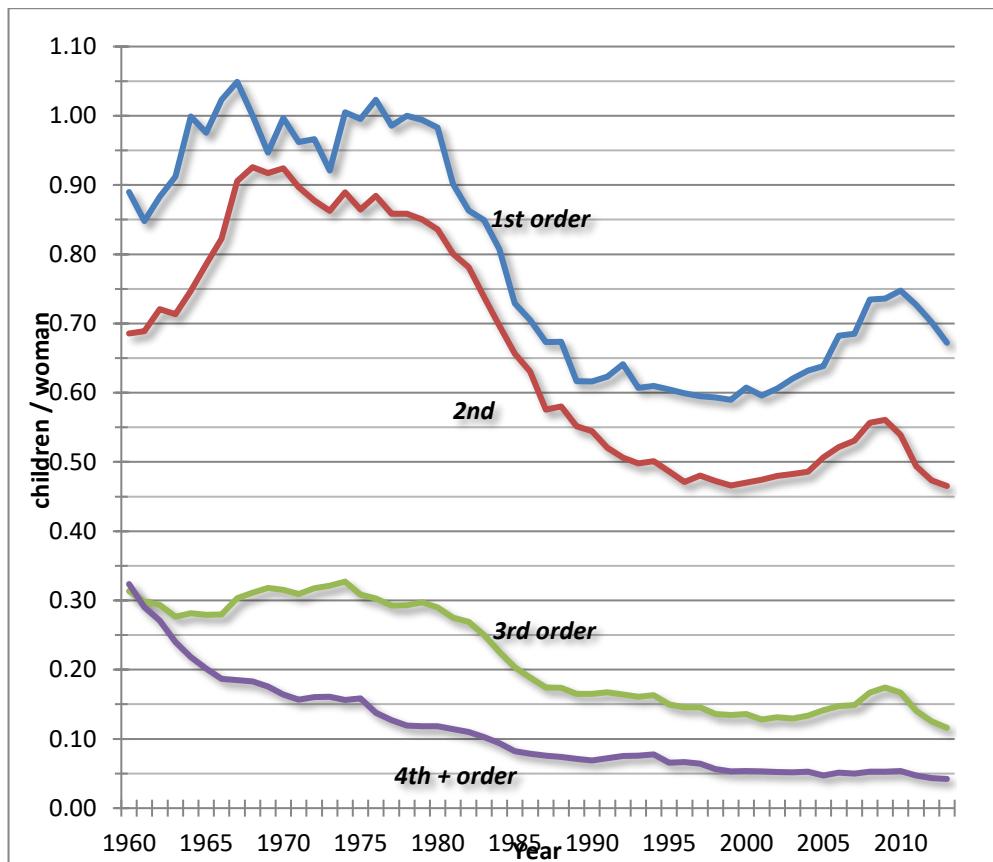
Unlike TFR of 1st and 2nd order of births, that of 3rd order will remain constant for about twenty years (around 0.3 children), thereafter it will be 50% lower between 1980 and 1989 (0.16 children), while it will stabilize thereafter around the value of 0.14 and it will slightly raise after 2005 (0.17 in 2010). Finally as regards TFR of 4th class and above these will follow an uninterrupted downward trend throughout the period considered (0.32 in 1960 and 0.04 in 2013).

Our analysis shows that while the collapse of the total TFR during the 1980s is due to all orders of birth, the most significant "responsibility" have the indicators of 1st and 2nd orders. In particular, the reduction of TFR between 1980 and 1989 is due almost half (45%) to the collapse of 1st order TFR and secondarily the diminishing of 2nd order TFR (participation 35%). By extension, the declining values of indicators of 1st and 2nd order can be attributed almost by 80% to the reduction of the total cross-sectional fertility during the first period of its rapid collapse. Similarly, the increase in total TFR between 1999 and 2009 is by 52% due to the increase in 1st order TFR, 34% to the increase 2nd order TFR and only 14% to the increase of the 3rd order TFR. Finally, the reduction of the total TFR between the years of crisis (from 2010 and 2013) is solely due to the reduction of the corresponding TFRs of the first two orders.

Changes to mean age at birth by birth order are depicted in Figure 7 and Table 4 in Appendix. The average age drops to all orders of birth until the early-mid 1980s to reverse then for the births of 1st , 2nd and 3rd order. Thus, the average age at 1st order birth increases by 5.7 years between 1983 and 2013, while the average age of 2nd birth increases by 5.3 years during

the same period. These rises suggest an important change in the calendar of fertility of generations, i.e. a postponement of childbearing which is strongly associated with less total births.

Figure 7: Greece, Age of Mother by birth order (1960-2013)
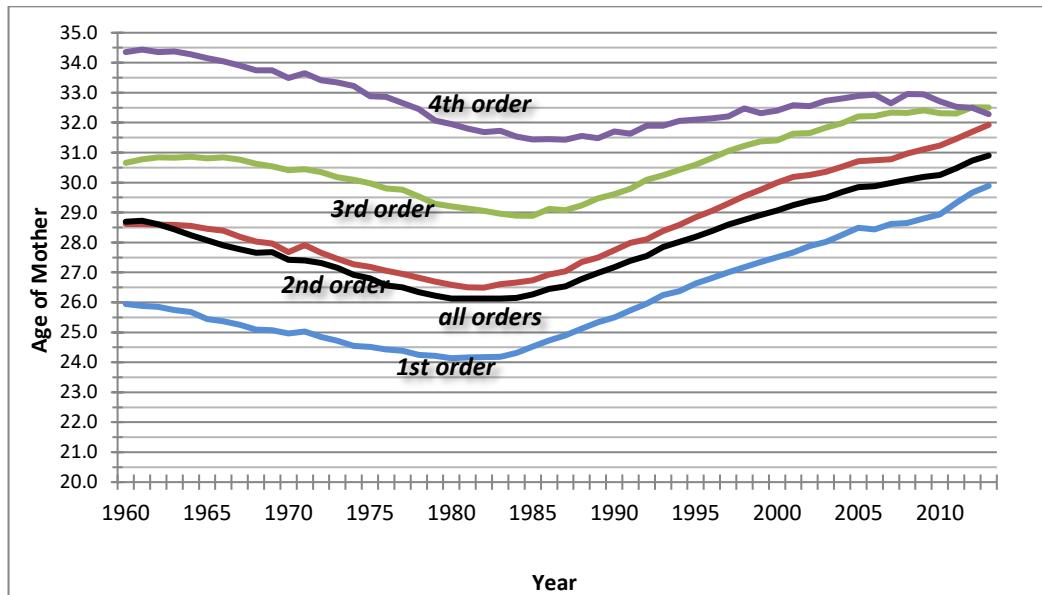
4. The impact of economic crisis to fertility, first conclusions

Our analysis shows that the collapse of the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) in Greece during the 80s was mainly due to the change of the women's fertility calendar as all generation until 1975 will record a TFR > 1.7 children / woman (at least 4 decimal points higher than the lowest value of TFR noted in 1999). The growth of this indicator in the 2000s is solely due to a compensation of the postponement of births in the previous two decades and absolutely not to an increase of the average number of children in the younger generations. The recent reversal of the upward trend of TFR coincides indeed with the emergence of the financial crisis, however it cannot be attributed solely to it.

At the same time, in Greece, the available data indicate that the recent economic crisis is affecting in priority women under 30 years old (extreme high unemployment). However, this crisis coincided with a previous trend of increasing the mean age at the childbearing, started in the mid '80s). This trend has resulted at 2013 to an extremely high average age at childbearing (30 years for the first child). Therefore, any continued postponement of childbearing to higher ages during the years of crisis (probable on the basis of international experience) will possibly lead to unavoidable fall of fertility of younger generations (i.e. those who were born after 1985) as, even if women of those generations aim to acquire one, two, three or more children, a part of them will not succeed it (any replacement is problematic as child conception is a function of age and decrease rapidly after 30 years old).

It should also be pointed out that childbearing occurs in Greece within marriage (the percentage of non-marital births is the lowest in Europe). Simultaneously, the mean age at first marriage follows the last thirty years an ascending course (from 23.2 years in the mid-1980s to 29.2 years in 2013). Based on the above, the mean age at first marriage and the mean age at first child birth are, directly correlated. Therefore, in a country like Greece, where childbearing occurs almost entirely within marriage with both partners employed, it was important for most women of these generations to have a relatively stable work before their first marriage and their first child acquisition. Given the extreme high unemployment rate in the age groups 20-35, this fact is not valid for a part of this population group, resulting to the collapse of the first marriage rates in

recent years. As a direct result, we observe a further increase both of the percentage of unmarried women in younger generations and also of the average age at the first marriage. Both of them (the second in combination with the postponement of marital births) will inevitably lead to a further decline of the total fertility rate of younger generations of women (those born after 1985).

In conclusion, according to the international bibliography, in countries with strong social policies and especially policies supporting family and childbearing the negative effects of the crisis are diminished. In Greece, at the beginning of the crisis, the welfare state was not particularly developed and, at the same time, it was extremely inefficient. In this context, family and childbearing aid measures were very limited, focused almost exclusively on the large families (>3 children) and in some cases these measures were inefficient (see for example retirement criteria for mothers with a minor child). The recent measures (those adapted in the first half of the current decade) were usually horizontal, while available policies resources shrank significantly while their rehabilitation is not expected in the near future. All these facts does not allow some optimism concerning the reversal of fertility decline of younger generations which, as expected, that they are going to spend a significant part of their reproductive life in crisis conditions.

APPENDIX

Table 1: Greece, 1951-2010,Number of births and Crude Birth Rate (CBR)

Year	Births	CBR ($^o/_{oo}$)	Year	Births	CBR ($^o/_{oo}$)
1951	155422	20,32	1983	132608	13,47
1952	149637	19,35	1984	125724	12,70
1953	143765	18,39	1985	116481	11,73
1954	151892	19,23	1986	112810	11,32
1955	154263	19,35	1987	106392	10,64
1956	158203	19,70	1988	107505	10,71
1957	155940	19,26	1989	101657	10,08
1958	155359	19,01	1990	102229	10,07
1959	160199	19,40	1991	102620	10,01
1960	157239	18,88	1992	104081	10,04
1961	150716	17,95	1993	101799	9,73
1962	152158	18,01	1994	103763	9,83
1963	148249	17,48	1995	101495	9,54
1964	153109	17,99	1996	100718	9,40
1965	151448	17,71	1997	102038	9,47
1966	154613	17,95	1998	100894	9,31
1967	162839	18,75	1999	100643	9,25
1968	160338	18,34	2000	103267	9,46
1969	154077	17,56	2001	102282	9,34
1970	144928	16,48	2002	103569	9,43
1971	141126	15,98	2003	104420	9,47
1972	140891	15,85	2004	105655	9,55
1973	137526	15,40	2005	107545	9,69
1974	144069	16,08	2006	112042	10,05
1975	142273	15,73	2007	111926	10,00
1976	146566	15,95	2008	118302	10,53

1977	143739	15,44	2009	117933	10,45
1978	146588	15,54	2010	114766	10,15
1979	147965	15,50	2011	106428	9,42
1980	148134	15,36	2012	100371	9,05
1981	140953	14,49	2013	94134	8,56

Table 2: Greece, Total Fertility Rate (TFR) and mean age at childbearing (i) all births (ii) 1st order births (1960-2013)

Year	TFR	Mean Age	Mean age of mother of 1st order births	Year	TFR	Mean Age	Mean age of mother of 1st order birth
1956	*2,31*	*29,2*		1985	1,67	26,3	24,5
1957	*2,25*	*29,2*		1986	1,60	26,4	24,7
1958	*2,22*	*29,0*		1987	1,50	26,5	24,9
1959	*2,26*	*28,7*		1988	1,50	26,8	25,1
1960	2,21	28,7	25,9	1989	1,40	27,0	25,3
1961	2,12	28,7	25,9	1990	1,40	27,2	25,5
1962	2,16	28,6	25,8	1991	1,38	27,4	25,7
1963	2,13	28,4	25,7	1992	1,39	27,5	26,0
1964	2,24	28,2	25,7	1993	1,34	27,8	26,2
1965	2,24	28,1	25,4	1994	1,35	28,0	26,4
1966	2,32	27,9	25,4	1995	1,31	28,2	26,6
1967	2,45	27,8	25,3	1996	1,28	28,4	26,8
1968	2,42	27,7	25,1	1997	1,29	28,6	27,0
1969	2,35	27,7	25,1	1998	1,26	28,8	27,2
1970	2,40	27,4	25,0	1999	1,24	28,9	27,3
1971	2,32	27,4	25,0	2000	1,27	29,1	27,5
1972	2,32	27,3	24,8	2001	1,25	29,2	27,7
1973	2,27	27,2	24,7	2002	1,27	29,4	27,9
1974	2,38	26,9	24,5	2003	1,28	29,5	28,0
1975	2,33	26,8	24,5	2004	1,30	29,7	28,3
1976	2,35	26,6	24,4	2005	1,33	29,8	28,5
1977	2,27	26,5	24,4	2006	1,40	29,9	28,4
1978	2,27	26,3	24,2	2007	1,41	30,0	28,6
1979	2,26	26,2	24,2	2008	1,51	30,1	28,7
1980	2,23	26,1	24,1	2009	1,52	30,2	28,8
1981	2,09	26,1	24,2	2010	1,51	30,3	28,9
1982	2,03	26,1	24,2	2011	1,41	30,4	29,3
1983	1,94	26,1	24,2	2012	1,34	30,7	29,7
1984	1,83	26,2	24,3	2013	1,30	30,9	29,9

Table 3: Greece, Births by order.

Year	1st order	% 1st order	2nd order	% 2nd order	3nd order	% 3nd order	4nd + order	% 4nd + order
1960	64553	41%	49577	32%	22104	14%	21005	13%
1961	60805	40%	49888	33%	21157	14%	18866	13%
1962	61958	41%	51518	34%	20776	14%	17906	12%
1963	62357	42%	50284	34%	19527	13%	16081	11%
1964	66952	44%	51706	34%	19686	13%	14765	10%
1965	64594	43%	53671	35%	19430	13%	13753	9%
1966	67520	44%	55232	36%	19146	12%	12715	8%
1967	69496	43%	60218	37%	20543	13%	12582	8%
1968	66284	41%	60893	38%	20779	13%	12382	8%
1969	61955	40%	59424	39%	20930	14%	11768	8%
1970	60141	41%	55155	38%	19240	13%	10392	7%
1971	58744	42%	53832	38%	18727	13%	9823	7%
1972	59336	42%	52571	37%	19087	14%	9897	7%
1973	56646	41%	51753	38%	19256	14%	9871	7%
1974	61633	43%	53393	37%	19547	14%	9496	7%
1975	61681	43%	52428	37%	18539	13%	9625	7%
1976	64798	44%	54756	37%	18534	13%	8478	6%
1977	63577	44%	54087	38%	18182	13%	7893	5%
1978	65541	45%	55015	38%	18530	13%	7502	5%
1979	66056	45%	55330	37%	19067	13%	7512	5%
1980	66169	45%	55396	37%	18934	13%	7635	5%
1981	61360	44%	53879	38%	18258	13%	7456	5%
1982	59192	43%	52884	39%	17967	13%	7232	5%
1983	58686	44%	50302	38%	16827	13%	6793	5%
1984	56312	45%	47832	38%	15314	12%	6266	5%
1985	51436	44%	45566	39%	13926	12%	5553	5%
1986	50233	45%	44236	39%	13017	12%	5324	5%
1987	48344	45%	40724	38%	12139	11%	5185	5%
1988	48770	45%	41372	38%	12237	11%	5126	5%
1989	45102	44%	39826	39%	11748	12%	4981	5%
1990	45588	45%	39833	39%	11914	12%	4894	5%
1991	46583	45%	38558	38%	12262	12%	5217	5%
1992	48450	47%	37947	36%	12166	12%	5518	5%
1993	46276	45%	37771	37%	12094	12%	5658	6%
1994	46978	45%	38478	37%	12429	12%	5878	6%
1995	47056	46%	37828	37%	11564	11%	5047	5%
1996	47067	47%	37068	37%	11396	11%	5187	5%
1997	47176	46%	38228	37%	11562	11%	5072	5%
1998	47450	47%	38048	38%	10910	11%	4486	4%
1999	47525	47%	37915	38%	10901	11%	4302	4%
2000	49229	48%	38536	37%	11131	11%	4371	4%
2001	48268	47%	39078	38%	10566	10%	4370	4%
2002	48900	47%	39543	38%	10841	10%	4285	4%
2003	49729	48%	39696	38%	10709	10%	4286	4%
2004	50389	48%	39884	38%	11036	10%	4346	4%
2005	50528	47%	41434	39%	11682	11%	3901	4%
2006	53323	48%	42350	38%	12128	11%	4241	4%

2007	*52981*	*47%*	*42712*	*38%*	*12171*	*11%*	*4062*	*4%*
2008	*55995*	*47%*	*44484*	*38%*	*13536*	*11%*	*4287*	*4%*
2009	*55328*	*47%*	*44322*	*38%*	*14042*	*12%*	*4241*	*4%*
2010	*55296*	*48%*	*42002*	*37%*	*13235*	*12%*	*4233*	*4%*
2011	*53632*	*50%*	*38117*	*36%*	*10997*	*10%*	*3682*	*3%*
2012	*51317*	*51%*	*36085*	*36%*	*9639*	*10%*	*3330*	*3%*
2013	*47675*	*51%*	*34614*	*37%*	*8715*	*9%*	*3130*	*3%*

Table 4: Greece, 1960-2013, TFR and mean age at childbearing by birth order

	TFR				Mean age at childbearing			
Year	1storder	2ng order	3rd order	4th or higher order	1storder	2ng order	3rd order	4th or higher order
1960	0,89	0,69	0,31	0,32	25,9	28,6	30,7	34,4
1961	0,85	0,69	0,30	0,29	25,9	28,6	30,8	34,4
1962	0,88	0,72	0,29	0,27	25,8	28,6	30,8	34,4
1963	0,91	0,71	0,28	0,24	25,7	28,6	30,8	34,4
1964	1,00	0,75	0,28	0,22	25,7	28,6	30,9	34,3
1965	0,98	0,79	0,28	0,20	25,4	28,5	30,8	34,2
1966	1,02	0,82	0,28	0,19	25,4	28,4	30,8	34,0
1967	1,05	0,91	0,30	0,19	25,3	28,2	30,8	33,9
1968	1,00	0,93	0,31	0,18	25,1	28,0	30,6	33,7
1969	0,95	0,92	0,32	0,18	25,1	28,0	30,5	33,7
1970	1,00	0,92	0,32	0,16	25,0	27,7	30,4	33,5
1971	0,96	0,90	0,31	0,16	25,0	27,9	30,4	33,6
1972	0,97	0,88	0,32	0,16	24,8	27,7	30,4	33,4
1973	0,92	0,86	0,32	0,16	24,7	27,4	30,2	33,3
1974	1,01	0,89	0,33	0,16	24,5	27,3	30,1	33,2
1975	1,00	0,86	0,31	0,16	24,5	27,2	30,0	32,9
1976	1,02	0,88	0,30	0,14	24,4	27,1	29,8	32,9
1977	0,99	0,86	0,29	0,13	24,4	27,0	29,8	32,7
1978	1,00	0,86	0,29	0,12	24,2	26,8	29,5	32,5
1979	0,99	0,85	0,30	0,12	24,2	26,7	29,3	32,1
1980	0,98	0,84	0,29	0,12	24,1	26,6	29,2	32,0
1981	0,90	0,80	0,28	0,11	24,2	26,5	29,1	31,8
1982	0,86	0,78	0,27	0,11	24,2	26,5	29,1	31,7

1983	0,85	0,74	0,25	0,10	24,2	26,6	29,0	31,7
1984	0,81	0,70	0,23	0,09	24,3	26,7	28,9	31,5
1985	**0,73**	0,66	0,20	0,08	24,5	26,7	28,9	31,4
1986	0,70	0,63	0,19	0,08	24,7	26,9	29,1	31,5
1987	0,67	0,58	0,17	0,08	24,9	27,0	29,1	31,4
1988	0,67	0,58	0,17	0,07	25,1	27,3	29,2	31,6
1989	0,62	0,55	0,16	0,07	25,3	27,5	29,5	31,5
1990	0,62	0,54	0,17	0,07	25,5	27,7	29,6	31,7
1991	0,62	0,52	0,17	0,07	25,7	28,0	29,8	31,6
1992	0,64	0,51	0,16	0,08	26,0	28,1	30,1	31,9
1993	0,61	0,50	0,16	0,08	26,2	28,4	30,2	31,9
1994	0,61	0,50	0,16	0,08	26,4	28,6	30,4	32,1
1995	0,60	0,49	0,15	0,07	26,6	28,8	30,6	32,1
1996	0,60	0,47	0,15	0,07	26,8	29,1	30,8	32,1
1997	0,59	0,48	0,15	0,06	27,0	29,3	31,1	32,2
1998	0,59	0,47	0,14	0,06	27,2	29,5	31,2	32,5
1999	0,59	0,47	0,13	0,05	27,3	29,8	31,4	32,3
2000	0,61	0,47	0,14	0,05	27,5	30,0	31,4	32,4
2001	0,60	0,47	0,13	0,05	27,7	30,2	31,6	32,6
2002	0,61	0,48	0,13	0,05	27,9	30,3	31,6	32,6
2003	0,62	0,48	0,13	0,05	28,0	30,4	31,8	32,7
2004	0,63	0,49	0,13	0,05	28,3	30,5	32,0	32,8
2005	0,64	0,51	0,14	0,05	28,5	30,7	32,2	32,9
2006	0,68	0,52	0,15	0,05	28,4	30,7	32,2	32,9
2007	0,69	0,53	0,15	0,05	28,6	30,8	32,3	32,6
2008	0,73	0,56	0,17	0,05	28,7	31,0	32,3	33,0
2009	0,74	0,56	0,17	0,05	28,8	31,1	32,4	32,9
2010	0,75	0,54	0,17	0,05	28,9	31,2	32,3	32,7
2011	0,73	0,49	0,14	0,05	29,3	31,5	32,3	32,5
2012	0,70	0,47	0,13	0,04	29,7	31,7	32,5	32,5
2013	0,67	0,47	0,12	0,04	29,9	31,9	32,5	32,3

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Should a Human Right Discourse be Applied to Labour Standards?

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Abstract

Whether a rights discourse should be applied to labour standards, entails addressing two issues. Firstly, what are the philosophical grounds for labour rights and whether they are human rights at all? Even if they cannot be regarded as human rights, should they be applied strategically?   While, there is no single comprehensive theory identified to provide sufficient grounding for all labour rights, this paper argues, firstly, that labour rights certainly lack characteristics of universal human rights since they are time-bound and place-bound. Secondly, while recognising the relatively large strategic turn to human rights discourse by labour scholars and labour organisations, this paper argues that this is not a universally applicable strategy and in fact in some contexts application of human rights discourse is counterproductive. The paper, thus, concludes that not only deploying human rights approaches when it comes to countries authoritarian contexts are not effective, but also it is highly likely to be counterproductive, since human rights discourse needs public rights awareness public and authoritarian contexts lack this awareness.

Keywords: Labour rights, Human Rights and Human Rights Discourse,

Introduction

Answering to the question whether a human right discourse should be applied to labour standards entails addressing three different but relevant questions. Firstly, whether Labour standards are rights, secondly whether it is then valid to conceptualize labour standards as human rights. Thirdly, whatever the response to the previous question might be, should the human rights discourse be applied in order to serve worthwhile ends?

 The aim of this paper would accordingly be threefold. In the first part, two plausible philosophical foundations for labour rights would be addressed. It would be argued that labour standards are rights, but there is no single doctrine providing a comprehensive grounding for all labour rights. Subsequently, in the second part the question whether labour rights are human rights would be addressed arguing that while some labour rights are human rights, they certainly lack some characteristics of universal human rights since they are time-bound and place-bound. Finally, in light of the recent turn to the human rights discourse, the paper would then turn to this noticeable question whether the human rights discourse should be applied, arguing that developing a human rights discourse does not necessarily warrant worthwhile ends, and especially in some contexts it would be harmful for labour movements.

Labour rights as trumps?

To begin with, there are a number of theories for labour rights.[1]Historically, as H. Collins has identified there are two justifications.[2] One of which mainly tries to address market failures and employment contracts through special regulations (i.e. efficiency-based justifications) and the second one provides grounding for consideration of fair dissemination of wealth known as social justification[3]. Yet, these justifications have not been without their critiques. The former have been challenged based on the way they could be implemented and its danger of dismantling special labour employment rules and the latter has been criticized based on lack of merits as well as possibility of using other less intrusive governmental measures like taxes for achieving social justice.[4]These challenges share a common perspective: that these justifications

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[1] Eg H Spector, 'Philosophical Foundation of Labour law' (2006) 33 Florida (2006), State University Law

[2] Collins.H (2011) 'Theories of Rights As Justifications For Labour rights' in Davidov.G & Lanhille.B(eds) Oxford University Press, P.137.

[3] Collins 'Theories' PP. 137-138.

[4] Collins 'Theories' P. 138.

are downplaying the role of obligatory employment standards and safeguards for ordered and organized labour.[1]Hence, Collins suggests that if we can develop a strong theory of rights to elevate status of labour demands to the rights position then their values cannot be overridden and they will trump over any other sort of considerations, principals or policies.[23]Of different existing theories of rights providing ground for labour rights, two of the most plausible and palatable of them would be presented in the following.

One of the most famous theories of rights is Rawls' theory of justice. Drawing on his theory of veil of ignorance, Collins[4] has tried to reformulate his theory in order to justify grounding for social and economic rights. He argues that behind the veil of ignorance no body knows their position in the market economy e.g. whether he or she would be employer or employee. However, a rational person, for example, identified, as a worker will have the basic income to support himself or herself and his or her family by taking a job behind this veil of ignorance. He therefore tries to pint out to "the potential of this method for providing foundation for a system of labour law."[5]The drawback of this theory, however, is that behind the veil of ignorance, nobody knows "his or her interest might be served or hampered by collective bargaining or whether his or her political belief might be favourable or hostile towards trade unions. Moreover, fundamental rights involving civil and political rights have been prioritized over other rights (e.g. through judicial decisions). Thus "fundamental rights would only serve the purpose of guaranteeing some aspects of labour law"[6] i.e. they secure individual interests of workers rather than, for instance, the right to collective bargaining.

Another theory known as 'Dignity', which is to be addressed here, is related to values like 'dignity' and 'autonomy'. The idea of autonomy suggests having both negative and positive freedom within itself.[7] Similarly, the idea of dignity could be interpreted in such a way that it carries the suggestion of decommodification of labour.[8]The particular emphasis on individual dignity necessitates inclusion of both civil/ political rights as well as social/ economic rights into fundamental rights. Therefore, without social/ economic rights, civil liberties' value are considered as little and individuals dignity as not secured.[9]Unlike the former theory mentioned above, this latter theory would meet the need for, for instance, collective bargaining to be considered as rights, since one important assumption is that "If civil liberties have to be protected as rights, necessary conditions for enjoyment of those rights, too, must be defended as rights."[10]

Evidently, these two sets of arguments, provides philosophical grounds for applying a right discourse to labour standards, go hand in hand like pieces of a puzzle to contribute to the body of what is regarded as the international labour law system. But should they be regarded as human rights, too?

Labour rights as human rights?

The best source and reference for addressing "internationally recognized worker rights", is the ILO declaration of 1998 in which the four sets of core labour standards (CLS) have primarily been focused on and prioritized[11] as 'principals' rather than rights.[12] Of several competing explanation offered regarding why there has been emphasis on calling them 'principal', the most reasonable is that the relevant principals could not be referred as rights in so far as there were other states who had not ratified the specific International Labour Conventions regarding those four set of CLS. [13]

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[1] Collins 'Theories' P. 139.

[2] Collins 'Theories' P. 139.

[3] R Dworkin, 'Taking Rights Seriously' (1977) Harvard University Press Ch 12.

[4] Collins 'Theories' P. 146.

[5] Collins 'Theories' P. 150.

[6]Collins 'Theories' P. 151.

[7] C McCrudden, (2008) in id P. 151.

[8] Collins 'Theories' P. 151.

[9] Collins 'Theories' P. 151.

[10] Collins 'Theories' P. 153.

[11] V A Leary 'The Paradox of Workers' Rights as Human Rights' in L A Compa and S F Diamond (eds) *Human Rights, Labour Rights and International Trade*, University of Pennsylvania Press, P. 28.

[12] Available at: www.ilo.org/ilolex/cgi-lex/convde.pl?C087 (15/12/2011)

[13] Philip Alston, 'Labour Rights as Human Rights: The Unhappy State of the Art' in P. Alston (ed) *Labour Rights as Human Rights*, OUP, 2005, P. 3.

However, Philip Alston believes that "This explanation overlooks the fact that each of the relevant principals is recognized as human rights in the UDHR, in the ICESCR, which is binding upon 149 states and in the very body of other international legal standards."[1]Yet, what could soon be understood is that there are two conflicting point of views arguing whether labour rights are human rights or merely a set of principles.

One very straightforward and positivist way of putting labour rights as human rights is to say because rights such as the right to freedom of association [2]has been incorporated in the UDHR 1948, therefore, this can provide a solid grounding for labour principals to be regarded as human rights.[3] It is on the same track that V. Leary regards "the rights included in the basic human rights convention of the ILO, as "internationally recognized workers' rights""[4], looking at them from a different angle. She calls attention to the too narrow focus given to the both concept of workers' rights and human rights with the latter being narrowed to the exclusion of the social rights (including workers rights).[5] Accordingly, while accusing labour advocates of failure to address worker rights as Human rights[6], she states that perhaps the reason for regarding worker's rights as "merely claims" (largely in the United States) is the difficulty involved in protecting such rights.[7]She concludes that this failure is because of disregard of "the context in which the ILO and international labour standards were originally created", particularly 'the link between workers' rights and peace'.[8]Therefore, the aforementioned nexus between the two, should be reemphasized and in this regard "human rights cannot exist without social justice"[9]and the right of workers, thus, should be seen as essential to the issue of human rights. In fact, she tries to remind the emphasis on the dignity of the individual, which have been expressed through rights in the Universal Declaration, to serve as a foundation for freedom, justice and peace.[10] Hence, by the very fact that Civil and Political rights as well as Social and Economic rights have been incorporated in the Declaration, it could be understood that definition of human rights is big enough to answer to the "urges in favour of conditions of social justice" involving workers' rights.[11]

However, apart from the complex arguments as to universality of human rights and its roots in natural law, into which we are not here to delve, the aforementioned arguments as to calling labour rights as universal human rights have been challenged by some scholars like Kevin Kolben and Hugh Collins. Kolben draws a contrast between these two, asserting:

 "In contrast to human rights, which are universal and possessed by all human beings by virtues of their humanity, labour rights can be defined as the set of rights that human beings posses by virtue of their status as workers."[12]

Moreover, drawing on Waldron's argument, Collins[13] identifies three more contrasts between universal human rights and labour rights in addition to what Kolben has presented. Firstly, labour rights unlike human rights do not present an urgent and compelling moral imperative, to be applicable universally. In this regard, it would suffice for one to compare the right not to be tortured with the right to a paid holiday. Secondly, unlike the respect for liberty and dignity, which are regarded as minimum standards below which no government should fall in operating, affordability matters in consideration of labour rights. What we regard as a fair pay or reasonable holiday is by large contingent upon the degree a country can afford. Lastly, whereas human rights are conceived as everlasting fundamental demands, labour rights evolve according to the way a government produce its wealth and are subject to "progressive implementation"[14]. In other words, they are very much time-bound and place-bound.

[1] Alston 'Labour Rights' P. 3.

[2] Article 20 UDHR

[3] Tonia Novitz and Colin Fenwick, 'The Application of Human Rights Discourse to Labour Relations: Translation of Theory into Practice' in T. Novitz and C. Fenwick (eds) *Human Rights at Work: Perspectives on Law and Regulation*, Hart, 2010, P.3.

[4] Leary 'The Paradox' P. 28.

[5] Leary 'The Paradox' P. 42.

[6] Leary 'The Paradox' P. 25.

[7] Leary 'The Paradox' P. 26.

[8] Leary 'The Paradox' P. 43.

[9] Leary 'The Paradox' P. 43.

[10] "Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights…is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world…"

[11] Collins 'Theories' P.142

[12] Kevin Kolben, 'Labour Rights as Human Rights?' (2010) 50 *Virginia Journal of International Law* P.453.

[13] Collins 'Theories' P. 142

[14] J. Fudge, 'The New Discourse of Labour Rights: From Social to Fundamental Rights?' (2007), *Comparative Labour Law and Policy Journal*, 29, P.36.

The latter arguments seem to be rational for two reasons. In the first place, labour rights cannot be regarded as universally absolute in the sense we use these characteristics for human rights mainly because they are very much place-bound and time-bound (though important and vital) and, furthermore, affordability of states matters when it comes to defending labour rights.

Additionally, the mere existing of social rights in black and white on the Declaration does not lend itself to be a potent reason for considering labour rights as human rights. Especially at least historically, it is identifiable that many labour standards were reformulated to the language of rights primarily as a response to atrocities committed by oppressive states rather than for values like dignity or being primarily fundamental absolutes.

3- Strategic turn to human rights discourse

Having mentioned that at the philosophical level, arguments providing ground for labour rights to be regarded as human rights are not potent (at least not for all of them), this question remains to be responded that whether human rights' language could be or should be invoked and applied even if labour rights cannot be recognized as human rights.

K. Kolben[1] has identified that there has been a large strategic turn to human rights discourse by labour scholars and labour organizations. He believes that human rights discourse has such hegemonic status that labour activists would like to take its advantage and "relative effectiveness". In fact, he points out to two important points: firstly, it is the value of the human rights and rights as trumps and secondly, there is then a practical side i.e. that is the relative effectiveness of some human rights' advocacy strategy, what he calls the hegemonic status of the human right's discourse. Many activists, he believes, use human rights discourse to gain public support for labour rights campaigns as a much more powerful way of attacking and criticizing multinational enterprises.[2]

Moreover, In line with these campaigners and in light of the fact that using human rights strategically has served labour activists very well in many issues and lawyers have been successful and found it conducive to advance certain claims by invoking the rights contained in Bills of Rights, H. Collin believes that:

"Any weakness of philosophical underpinnings for labour rights should not deter lawyers from adopting these legal strategies in order to serve worthwhile ends."[3]

However, Kolben asserts that even though the strategy adopted by labour campaigns and activists have been highly effective in pushing the states for achieving certain goals, yet it could be less efficient and in fact incapacitating for labour rights actors that chiefly functions in the private economic sectors.[4] He goes further by saying that legalism, elitism; individualist and philanthropic features of human rights approaches do not necessarily benefit labour movement.[5] He explains that:

"The international human rights movement is not fundamentally committed to examining and questioning fundamental economic relationships in society, nor it is committed to direct action as a method- or workplace as a goal- to same extent as the labour movement."[6]

Furthermore, in response to what Collins has prescribed as a valid approach to invoke human rights' hegemonic status, this paper would argue that deploying human rights approaches when it comes to countries like Iran or any other authoritarian contexts not only are not effective, it is in fact counterproductive since public supports could be gained by labour rights campaigns only where there is a public rights awareness. For instance, in Iran military service is compulsory for every man after being 18 years old for the period of up to two years. Ironically, during the last 36 years many Iranian men, in the name of serving to their country has been employed to work under such titles as "soldier teacher" or "tasked soldier" to do basically anything for a very small amount of money or non.[7] This is regarded as forced labour either by the

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[1] Kolben 'Labour Rights' P. 451.

[2] Kolben 'Labour Rights' P. 453.

[3] Kolben 'Labour Rights' P. 453.

[4] Kolben 'Labour Rights' P. 484.

[5] Kolben 'Labour Rights' P.453

[6] Kolben 'Labour Rights' P. 453.

[7] Mesdaghi. I (2010) 'The ILO at a glance, Violation of Fundamental rights of workers in Iran (1ˢᵗ ed) ALFABET MAXIMA, P. 23.

ILO or the UDHR. The point that here is being made is that in absence of minimum right awareness; there is not such a thing as human rights hegemonic status. On the other hand, eastern authoritarian governments, perhaps with the contribution of some anthropologists, have achieved a relative success in making popular[1] the claim that human rights ideas are relative, Western[2], and not applicable in, for example, Islamic societies. Therefore, in absence of hegemonic status of human rights discourse and public rights awareness implementation of human rights discourse appears to be debilitating for labour activists. Hence, what is to be avoided, is in fact, the so called strategic implementation of human rights language when it comes to those countries in which culture and power are proxy[3] in the way of achieving worthwhile ends. This is where we come to this conclusion that it is the context that, contingent on the time and place, determines whether applying of the human right discourse is conducive.

In conclusion, whether a human right discourse should be applied to labour standards entails addressing firstly, capability of these standard to be regarded as rights or human rights, secondly, capability of the context in which these standards/rights are going to be promoted. In the first part, two famous theory of labour rights was examined in this paper namely, the theory adopted by Collins based on Rawls theory of justice and the Dignity theory. While the former theory provided grounding for more individualistic set of workers' rights, the latter gave rise to the rights like the right to collective bargaining. As a result, it was concluded that there is no single comprehensive theory identified to provide sufficient grounding for all labour rights. Thus, each of these theories contributes to constitute part of this body of international labour law system. In the second part, the question whether labour rights could be regarded as human rights has been addressed arguing that labour rights because of their very nature- that are time-bound and place-bound- they do not have capability of being called universal human rights. Finally, in the last part this recent turn to human rights has been analyzed arguing that using the language of human rights in two respects could be debilitating for labour movements in some contexts. Firstly, with respect to what Kolben has identified as conflicting characteristics between human rights and labour rights on the one hand and human rights movements and labour movements on the other, they do not necessarily benefit from each other. Secondly, with respect to those countries, mainly eastern and Islamic countries, that culture and power is considered as a proxy in the way of human rights promotion, strategic employment of human rights language would certainly not be recommended since the hegemonic status of human rights, does not apply in a country such as Iran where citizens are not able to scrutinize the actions of their state by reference to human rights discourse. In short, care should be taken as regards strategic usage of human rights discourse as the contexts plays an important on success and failure of such approaches.

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[1] It is obvious that a popular argument does not necessarily possess a valid and potent philosophical ground.
[2] Karen Engle, 'Culture and Human Rights: The Asian Values Debate in Context' (2000) 32 New York University Journal of International Law and Politics P. 329.
[3] Engle, 'Culture' P.329.

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Social Media as a New Form of Public Sphere

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Abstract

The public sphere is a concept widely studied from many different disciplines such as political sciences, sociology, dhe communication sciences. It is crucial for the well-functioning of democracy, to have a well-structured process which creates the public opinion as a synthesis of individual thoughts acting for the common interest. The concept public sphere in itself and its formation process has gone through a lot of changes since the time where the german scholar Jurgen Habermas brought for the first time its definition. The appearance of the new medias and the development in the communication technology have brought huge transformations even in the conceptual term of public sphere and public discourse. Web communication, especially the communication handled in the dixhital environment is a completely new reality which needs to be explored. Social Media like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Youtube etc, are a new communication field being used from the public factors to communicate with the audiences. The technical opportunities that these platforms offer make it possible for the transmitter and the receiver of the message to communicate in a higher level. In contrast, virtuality serves as an inducement mean for the users in the social network to be near the participators in the process of communication.

Keywords: Public sphere, political communication, social media, cyberspace, e-participation

Introduction

Public Sphere according to Habermas

Media have an important role in the social changes by powering the public sphere. Seen from the historical context different scholars have agreed that media plays a really important role in shaping our own ideas and establishing our position in society. The german sociologist and philosopher Jurgen Habermas in his book "The structural transformation of the Public Sphere", argues that the press have contributed in the democratization of Europe by creating an environment suitable for discussion and agreements between the citizien involved politicaly. The political freedom should be accompanied with an educated civilized society and socially aware to discuss events that are related with the public's interest. Similar to the masmedia case, internet and especially the social media, allows the individuals to discuss and express their thoughts in public regarding events which have a wide public interest (Shirky, 2011)

Habermas in his book opposes, according him the feudal domination of involvement in the public communication. Habermas put against this concept the public communication with two-direction, that of equality and the one oriented toward the consensus which would be able to create a real (possibility) and relevant public space for politics. For the civilian public sphere presented from Habermas as public discussion arena, informed and resonating, the independent press based on the free market has an important significance. This press should be accessible for a large amount of people and inside it should be involved different arguments and point of views as a part of rational discussions. Inside this public space are discussed even the governmental politics which are part of critical thinking. According to Habermasit after the second half of the 19 century in the capitalist societies, the situation was completely different, where the realization of the representative democracy was quite impossible due to the dominion of the public sphere from the strong and widespreading state and due to the press which represented the economic interests. Medias from the position of being a part of public sphere and racional disution are becoming a part of refeudalisation process of public sphere, where state, industrial corporates and media control the public sphere. According to Haberman in these societies medias are turned into a deceiver tool by turning the public into a passive consuming audience. The public space in theories involving participations is characterized from the equal acceptance of the factors that dicuss, from the reciprocal connection of communication and through a structure which offers possibilities to be involved in a discourse and does not exclude in a structural manner certain thoughts or certain complex themes. (Habermas, 1991, p. 31).

Despite what it is stated above, the theory of Habermas for the rational public sphere and opinion was criticized a lot form the critics who bring new arguments. The main criticism is related with the fact that the concept of the public sphere is an

elite concept and most propably utopian that have never existed. Meanwhile another criticism comes from the feminist movement which states that Habermas creates a public sphere that does not include all the components of the society such as: women or representatives form the lowest class of society. (Papacharissi, 2002, p. 11).

Cyberspace and the internet as the new forms of the public spheres.

The development of new technologies such as communication and the arousing of the new media based on Web 1.0 and Web 2.0, brought another new dimension in the discussion of the public sphere. The public sphere or the public space where takes place debates that have a wide interests in public and where is developed a critical reflections toward the governmental policies is strictly related with the media and technology. Starting from the time when the newspaper in the United Kingdom expand their functionality by adding opinions, criticism and comments beside the news, facilitating in this way the debate between the bourgeoisies and the educated class of society and up to our days where the social media as the newest product in the revolution of the communication technology, "Public sphere" and "public opinion" are both terms that are strongly related with the functions of media and the democratic representative theory. (Mecnair, 2009, p. 32) (Boyd, 2011, p. 53). After the innovation of internet, the scholars brought to attention a differentiation of the public sphere and public opinion from their classical meaning and a new notion " networked public sphere", where the public opinion is shaped through exchanges in the online platforms. Cybersecurity space known different as "cyberspace" currently is a new public space.

Internet as a new public sphere can facilitate the discussion that promotes the exchanging of new ideas and opinions. (Papacharissi, 2002, p. 11). The exchanging of ideas and the interaction between the individuals has reached the higher level thanks to the using of social media platforms like facebook, twitter dhe youtube. These users can communicate freely with each-other and consequently can come together for a certain theme. Communicating online means to publish online which on the other hand refer to be connected online with other people. The published content in the social media is reachable from anyone throughout the world eliminating in this way the physical and infrastructure obstacles which means that the freedom of the speech is now the freedom of the press and as a consequence the freedom to gather together. (Fuchs, 2014, p. 185). It was never as easy as it it is now for the people to come together and be organized to express their criticism or to contradict a certain matter that concerns a certain community.

The Albanian environment (context) offers a wide variety of examples that shows that the users of the social media thanks to the opportunities to build virtual communities and use virtual communications, have the possibility to be organized and discuss, debates and oppose a certain political action or a certain wrong decision. The well-spreaded news about the dismantling of the chemical weapons of Syria will tool place in Albania caused a strong reaction in the public opinion. Taking into consideration that the televisions or the newspaper were not giving the necessary importance to this matter, purposely or not, a community in Facebook organized a campaign which made together a huge number of people. Within a short time the Facebook page against the Dismantling of the Chemical Weapons in Albania reached a big number of followers. This profile served to organize the opponency grouping in the protests held that time.

Such protests case against the chemical weapons is a pure example for showing how the social media make it possible to develop e public discussion by serving as an alternative public sphere where is shaped the public opinion. As e result this opinion has reached the higher level of acceptance from a wide class of society. The government was forced to reject this project due to the strong opponence from the public opinion in order to refuse the request made from the American government to dismantle these weapons in the albanian territory. The official profile of the Albanian primeminister in the facebook network was so full of comments and criticism which were related with this matter that forced the primeminister to pay a bigger attention to clarify the users on the facebook than the ones who spoke in the television.

The social capital and the "Community" effect in creating the public sphere.

Marius Rohde Johannessen in his study "Social media as public sphere" argues that the communication thorugh the social media can contribute in developing the discussion and the public debate. According to him, the creation of the public sphere becomes easier from the "social capital" and the building of community (community building) in the social media. These communities facilitate the communication between the individuals who have come together due to the common

interests, despite the fact that they can share different opinions for other matters which are not part of this community creation in the social media. (Johannessen, 2013, p. 79)

The social capital is related with the connection between the individuals and the social networks and the mutual credibility and norms that comes as a consequence. In contrast, the social capital evokes the financial and human capital dimension but it is mainly focused in the relation between the individuals. The previous studies have discovered a direct connection between the social capital and the usage of the social networks (Ellison, Lampe, Steinfield, & Vitak, 2011, p. 128) (Stutzman, Vitak, Ellison, Gray, & Lampe, 2012, p. 330). The social networks give the opportunity to the individuals to maintain some connections that in reality might be weak and in the "offline" reality would be quite impossible to hold and manage. For example, Facebook gives the opportunity to the individuals to communicate and interact virtually with "the friends of the friends", by expanding in this way their communication network

It is important to mention that the social capital is very complex to be measured. In most of the cases the measurement or assessment of the social capital is related with the level of credibility the involved institutions or individuals have in the public sphere. At the same time, exists a proportional report between the social capital and the participation in the context of the public sphere. The high level of the social capital serves to increase the participation or the e-participation as in the case of the social media and the high level of participation produces more social capital. (Johannessen, 2013, p. 99).

The theory of e-participation is the one that bounds the networked public sphere with the social media. In one report from the United Nations Organization in 2010 for "e-government" emphasize the importance that the e-participation has in all its aspects: e-information, e-consulting and e-decision. This report assess the way how the governments interact with their individuals using the blogs, SMS, and social media like Twitter and Facebook. According to the same report, web 2,0 and the social media have created a new environment where the public institutions can create a better interactive connection with the public. (Pereira, Rocha, & Popli, 2012, p. 492)

The necessity to reinforce the social capital and the necessity to communicate within the community are two main reasons that stimulate the users of the social media to build what is called the dimension of the public sphere in the social media. The users of the social media are likely encouraged to express freely their thoughts and opinions in a virtual community stimulating in this way the public debate which produces the public opinion which it in itself compounds the final product of the communicating process within the public sphere.
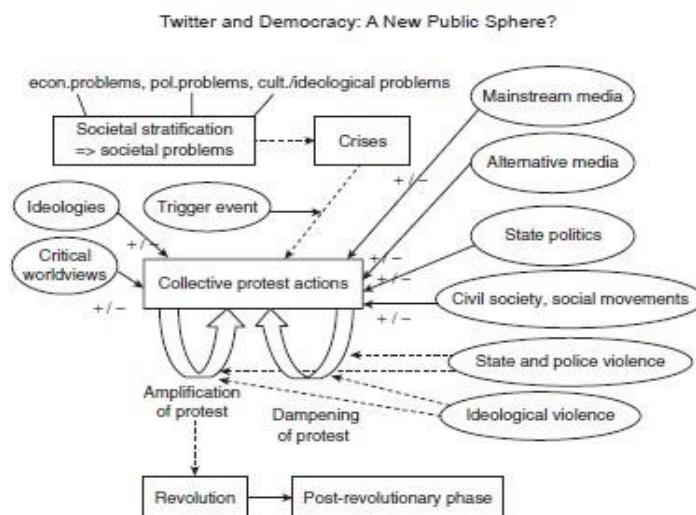

Figure 6. Christian Fuchs Model

Social Media's shades as a new public sphere in the Albanian reality.

In most of the cases, the studies related with the creation of the public sphere refers to the post-communist era which begins with the falling of the dictatorial regime and the beginning of the political pluralism in 1991. If we follow the Habermas concept on the public sphere as a space where is formed the opinion public, then it is very difficult to speak for a real public sphere in the communist era. The freedom of speech,- the freedom of the press are basic concepts that in case they are missing we can not discuss for having a public space or public sphere. After the falling of communism, the Albanians started to express freely their thoughts and opinions related to the social and political development and the important factors included in these developments.

The arousing of the free press, create the opportunity to speak up the critical thinking. The scholar Artan Fuga describes this situation as a noisy beginning after a long public silence. He emphasizes the fact that Albanians after the fall of communism discovered that "the other person" was not dangerous to speak to. This discovery made an important change in the mentality of Albanian society. According to Fuga, this is the moment where the "oral taboo" of the past are broken and is surpassed the border of the "allowed discussion" (Fuga, 2008, p. 20).

On the other hand, the scholar and sociologist Fatos Tarifa sees that after the 1990 begins to create a liberal and modernise public sphere. The free exchange of the ideas and opinions accompanied with a wider space to publish these new ideas in the uncensored press has created a better normal process to shape the public opinion. Tarifa notices that creating a liberal public sphere, informal and discoursive aroused in the higher level the interest of the Albanians for the public cases. According to him, Albania and other neighbor countries which suffered the post-communism era share similiarities in creating the public sphere with the same public sphere created in Europe during the 18 and 19 century. The new public sphere created a space for forming the autonomus organization acting together as one group which made the essence of the civil society (Tarifa, 2014, p. 48)

Starting from the fact that the liberal public sphere in Albanian is smiliar to the one created in Europe in the 18 and 19 century, shows that the Albanian society has made no progress in the past and it is necessary to implement a fast rhythm to recuperate the lost time. It took many centuries to the Europe to transform the civilized society into a bourgeois system (Kabo, 2006, p. 236). In Albania, there was no such patience to wait for such a long time, so the development in the communication and the public sphere was in its higher rhythms. Even why this anticipation brought in itself a lower quality during the transformation period, the development of the Medias and the communication spaces were hand in hand. At the beginning, the Albanians were eager to be informed from new and "free" sources. They have just gone through a big isolation and the necessity to be informed without censure and to express themselves in the same way was the major characteristic in those years after the communism era. This big appetite of the Albanian society served as the prefect environment where a large number of media will arouse. Starting from the first opposition newspaper"Rilindja Demokratike" on January 4, 1991, with the creation of the first private televisions like "Tv Sijak" and later with "Tv Klan" in 1997. With the passing of the years, to the list of the television were added numerous nonpublic operator which created a very liberal picture in the world of Albanian media. In 1998 there were 31 television stations all over Albania including here local station placed in different cities. (Fuga, 2008, p. 50). It has not passed almost one decade when to the Albanian public was introduced the first web informative portal named "balkanweb"

The online media registered an important development regarding the public discourse. From now on we dealt with new factors in the political communication and the public space was enlarged. In the second decade, after the political pluralism, we encounter a huge development in the field of media and communication technology. The number of the online medias was very high and without noticing their importance and impact, we saw the arousing of the social media with facebook in 2004 and twitter in 2006. The Albanian again hurried to try the benefits that these new Medias brought. In a very short time the number of the users who used the social network counted "hundred & thousand". Taking into consideration such situation we have a reposition of the public discussion. Nowdays the politicians and the other public actors have understood the benefits offered from "cyberspace" which added to the public discourse the "virtual" element. From a fast observation made in the social media results that the official profiles and pages of the politicians are the ones which are the most followed. They use these new spaces to communicate with the public, voters, followers and groups of interest.

Table 1 The statistic data of the four politician profiles most followed in Facebook.

Politician	Nb. of followers

Sali Berisha	991056
Edi Rama	879247
Lulzim Basha	546990
Erion Veliaj	245480

In the same way, the political campaigns are transferred from gathering grouping in the squares toward question-answer sessions in Facebook, Twitter and Youtube. Lulëzim Basha campaign in 2011 for the local election in Tirana was based in the social media. He built a successful campaign in Facebook achieved to engage a considerable audience from the young users who used such networking.

The main important items of the program were released in Facebook and a particular team analysed the numerous comments and questions that were made in the democratic candidate profile. In this way, they build an effective interaction communication with the active individuals in this network

This new style of communication and the effective usage of the social media can't be considered as Albanian invention. In politics similar to the many other fields, the model to be followed is taken from United States of America. The campaign of the president Barack Obama in 2008, srved as a model and showed the importance of using the social media for building a public communication with an audience who had changed its address from that of the squares to the computers and "smarphone". The studies shows that the social network has rised the participation in the political debate and consequently the political process, because through them is lowered the cost of the political information and the infrastructure to share this information with the others is facilited in its highest level (information share). (Johnson, Zhang, Bichard, & Seltzer, 2011, p. 191)

Conclusion

If we compare the countinous increasing number of the users in the social networks around the world with the countinous declining of the newspaper circulation or the traditional media audience in general, it is clear that now we are living in a new era of information and communication. The social media and in general the virtual sphere is drawing more and more people, which on the other hand has a direct impact on their behavior in the non virtual reality. The communication of the political messages is now communicated mainly through virtual environment. This new trend seems for the moment to be satisfactory for both parties, the one who is producing this information and on the other side the consumer of this information (its user). Thanks to the social media the borders between the provider of the information and the consumer of this information are completely invisible. Meanwhile, on the other hand, this new phenomenon has made the communication more democratical by empowering the simple people who were very passive in the past. The Albanian reality shows that the politic and public discourse is taking place in a virtual environment. But it is important to emphasize that the later studies should be concentrated in studing the possible negative effects of this transformation.

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Online Banking in Albania

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Abstract

In nowadays society, in the globalized economy, the new economy also called internet-economy has become one of the major issues of economic and technical literature. The spread of information and communications technologies, the increased use PCs, facilitating internet connectivity, as well as a wide spreading of mobile phones, have drawn attention of banks towards internet banking. Main reason that made profitable use of this channel was the need to minimize costs and to increase efficiency of banking services and at the same time to achieve customer satisfaction. Internet banking was firstly introduced in the 80s, but only in the mid-90s it was widely spread and since then, it has advanced a lot. Over the past decade, e-banking transactions have grown dramatically. E-banking in Albania was firstly used in 2002 only by American Bank of Albania (now ISP Bank). Years after there have been efforts by other banks and now the number of banks using online banking in Albania has increased. Therefore, the internet-economy, with the use of IT systems constitutes a new paradigm of business and development.

Keywords: Information Systems, Online Banking, Electronic commerce

INTRODUCTION

The banking system has a very important role in the development of a country`s economy. For this reason it has received a great interest in recent years, by making a lot of studies and researches by different authors of different countries. It has been now recognized that the banking system plays an important role to generate boom and bust cycle in the economy by expanding and contracting credit flows. More importantly, banks' balance sheets tend to be a mirror image of the economy especially when the balance sheets of the whole economy are not readily available (Villar, 2006).

The first mission of all banks is to achieve customer satisfaction and customer retention. In order to fulfill this, during the last few years banks over the world started to introduce online banking systems which facilitates the transactions and saves time to the customers. Banks invest billions in the internet infrastructure, developing simple banking web sites into comprehensive e-banking portals offering a great variety of services in addition to traditional bank products and thereby enabling customers to gain financial advice from merely one source. Profitable e-banking requires a strong focus not only on the acquisition of new customers but also on the retention of existing customers (Reibstein, 2002; Reichheld and Schefter, 2000). In order to enhance customer loyalty, portals are required to put a strong emphasis on their customers' quality demands, which are steadily increasing over time due to the growing competition in the internet banking industry (Jun and Cai, 2001). Customer loyalty has been recognized as a key path to long-term profitability.

Online Banking is nowadays offered by almost every bank. It has benefits for both parties making the contract. Through online banking people can access to their account and perform online transactions without visiting the bank. This innovative feature firstly was not considered except few people, but after some time others also came towards and these days banking is mostly done online. There are a number of benefits to banks through online banking. Online banking has both, advantages and disadvantages. For most of the people online banking is a great benefit and for some feel that it has made life more complicated.

This study is structured as follows: starting from an introduction about the banking system in Albania and the creation of banking online portals. The second part is a literature review on e-banking portals, starting from explaining the definition of OBS, history and its characteristics. Next part is the historical of online banking in Albania. The paper ends with conclusions.

HISTORY OF ONLINE BANKING

Online banking (OLB) is an electronic payment system offered by financial institutions which gives its customers the possibility to conduct financial transactions by using internet. Such institutions can be a retail bank, virtual bank, credit union or building society. Online banking is also referred as Internet banking shortly written as e-banking, virtual banking etc.

In order to access and use a financial institution's online banking website, a customer with Internet access would need to register with the institution for the service, and set up a personal password for its verification. Financial institutions now routinely allocate customers numbers or names, whether or not customers have indicated an intention to access their online banking facility. Customers' numbers are normally not the same as account numbers, because a number of customer accounts can be linked to the one customer number. The customer can link to the customer number any account which the customer controls, which may be cheque (check), savings, loan, credit card and other accounts. Customer numbers will also not be the same as any debit or credit card issued by the financial institution to the customer.

To access online banking, a customer would go to the financial institution's secured website, and enter the online banking facility using the customer number or name and password previously setup. Some financial institutions have set up additional security steps for access to online banking, such as sending a verification code on the customers mobile phone each time he tries to enter the website.

The term 'Online' became popular in the late '80s and referred to the use of a terminal, keyboard and monitor to access the banking system using a phone line. Online services started in New York in 1981 when four of the city's major banks (Citibank, Chase Manhattan, Chemical and Manufacturers Hanover) introduced online banking services using the videotex system (Cronin, 1997). Because of the commercial failure of videotex these banking services never became popular except in France where the use of videotext (Minitel) was subsidized by the telecom provider and the UK, where the Prestel system was used.

When the clicks-and-bricks euphoria hit in the late 1990s, many banks began to view Web-based banking as a strategic imperative. The attraction of banks to online banking are fairly obvious: diminished transaction costs, easier integration of services, interactive marketing capabilities, and other benefits that boost customer lists and profit margins.

In the 1998s the financial industries greatly expanded with banks' customer bases. Following this, banks looked to the Web as a way of maintaining their customers and building loyalty. A number of different factors are causing bankers to shift more of their business to the virtual realm. While financial institutions took steps to implement e-banking services in the mid-1990s, many consumers were hesitant to conduct monetary transactions over the web. It took widespread adoption of electronic commerce, based on trailblazing companies such as America Online, Amazon.com and eBay, to make the idea of paying for items online widespread. By 2000, 80 percent of U.S. banks offered e-banking. Customer use grew slowly. In 2001, Bank of America became the first bank to top 3 million online banking customers, more than 20 percent of its customer base. In comparison, larger national institutions, such as Citigroup claimed 2.2 million online relationships globally, while J.P. Morgan Chase estimated it had more than 750,000 online banking customers. Wells Fargo had 2.5 million online banking customers, including small businesses. Online customers proved more loyal and profitable than regular customers. Today, many banks are internet only banks. They differentiate themselves by offering better interest rates and more extensive online banking features.

TYPES OF ONLINE BANKING

Currently, there are three basic kinds of Internet banking that are being employed in the marketplace:

    1. Information

This is the most basic level of Internet banking. The bank has marketing information about its products and services on a stand-alone server. This level of Internet banking service can be provided by the bank itself or by sourcing it out. Since the server or Web site may be vulnerable to alteration, appropriate controls must therefore be in place to prevent unauthorized alterations to data in the server or web site.

    2. Communication

This type of Internet banking allows interaction between the bank's systems and the customer. It may be limited to electronic mail, account inquiry, loan applications, or static file updates. The risk is higher with this configuration than with the earlier system and therefore appropriate controls need to be in place to prevent, monitor, and alert management of any unauthorized attempt to access bank's internal network and computer systems. Under this system the client makes a request to which the bank subsequently responds. Works on the same principle as the e-mail.

3. Transaction

Under this system of Internet banking customers are allowed to execute transactions. Relative to the information and communication types of Internet banking, this system possesses the highest level of risk architecture and must have the strongest controls. Customer transactions can include accessing accounts, paying bills, transferring funds, etc. These possibilities demand very stringent security.

USAGE OF E-BANKING PORTALS IN ALBANIA

Banking system in Albania was composed of only one bank, Central Bank of Albania, which was established in 1946 during the communism period. It played the role of both monetary and credit authority of the economy. While its role as a financial intermediary was rather limited since the system was centralized.

As part of the economic reform started in 1992, the reform of the banking system started by change of the legal provisions. The Assembly, in April 1992, adopted the Law "On the Bank of Albania" and the Law "On the banking system in the Republic of Albania". The banking system recorded a change from one level system, to two levels banking system. On the basis of these laws it was started the process of licensing of new private banks. After that the banking activity in Albania has been expanding, even slowly, by reaching about 46% of the GDP in 1996 and 50% in 2003 (Ibrahimi and Salko, 2001). Nowadays there are 16 commercial Banks in Albania (Bank of Albania, 2015).

Most of the products offered by commercial banks in Albania are part of the traditional services: deposits, accounts, transfers. Deposits were the best known product by the public, but in recent years, efforts to minimize cash transactions (channeling employees' salaries through banks) led to a rapid development for other products (can mention loans, overdrafts, cards, etc.). A part of the users, initially mistrusted such products and tried to stay away from them, but gradually, with increasing amount of information about the advantages of these products, their usage is becoming a routine. Banks played an important role in informing the public regarding these products.

After familiarization with the above products, it was time of introducing internet banking in Albania. The first bank that has offered this product is the American Bank of Albania in 2002, with the introduction of ABAflex. There have been efforts by other banks to provide such services, such as Raiffeisen Bank, via MultiCash, which provides transfers. But this service was only for a limited number of companies "neglecting" individuals.

Following them Credins Bank and National Bank also began with e-banking which initially offered only account information. The above facts speak for internet banking in its infancy in Albania. Although in the Albanian market there are banks that have the support of powerful groups of foreign banks, this service has not yet been developed as in developed countries. The main reason is the cost – revenue ratio.

Nowadays various banks in Albania use internet banking offering all possible services.

According to Christian Canacaris, Director of Albanian Association of Banks (AAB), in 2015, 12 out of 16 banks in Albania offer internet banking, 7 of them have introduced banking via phone (mobile banking), while there are also other services offered as MultiCash, SMS banking, and collaborations with non-banking institutions that offer payment via mobile phone, such as M-Pay and EasyPay. To be more precise, only in 2014 were carried out more than 1.2 million transactions via the Internet, with a total value of more than 164 billion Lek (1,171,428,571 euro). (Canacaris, 2015)

Given the performance of all this products, internet banking in Albania will possibly be in a rapid development in the future. However, this will depend primarily, from the security of the service that banks will offer and secondly, transparency with clients about the costs.

ADVANTAGES OF ONLINE BANKING

1. View your transactions

It has made easier for customers to keep track of their daily transactions by just logging into their online bank account. Online banking allows you to access your account history and transactions from anywhere. This is the quickest way to check and see if a transaction has cleared your account.

2. Transfer money between accounts

Online banking also allows you to transfer money between accounts much more quickly. You can save a trip to the bank so save your time. When you apply or set up your online banking, be sure that all of the accounts you have at the bank are listed. This will make it easier to transfer money and make loan payments online. You also have the option of transferring money between different banks online. This will not happen as quickly, since the money still needs to go between financial institutions, but it is much more convenient then running to the bank.

3. Pay the bills online

Online banking can be used to pay the bills. Most banks will have a section in which we set up payees. You will need to fill out the information once, and then you can simply choose that profile every time you pay a bill online.

4. Protect Yourself Online

It is important to be careful when banking online. You do not want your safety or privacy to be breached. It is important to be careful if you are at a public computer. Additionally, you need to make sure that your password is long enough to prevent it from easily being hacked. Never give your online account information to someone who is not an authorized signer on your account. These steps should protect you from identity theft.

CONCLUSIONS

Internet banking in Albania is on the rise. Offering of this service during 2015 from 12 out of 16 banks in Albania is a very positive signal for the future of internet banking in this country. When internet banking is viewed as different channel, its benefits are modest. However, when integrated with other channels, Internet banking becomes a powerful tool for improving customer satisfaction and increasing cross-selling opportunities. But at the same time banks must keep in mind that, every electronic channel including the Internet has its short falls which can have major consequences.

Keeping track of the ever changing banking industry and the latest update in Internet technology, banks need to equip themselves for the competition. After a review at e-banking portals in Albania, it can be seen that at most of them there are different problems with the functionality and security, and in some banks also problems with design, compatibility among different browsers and user interface.

Even though there are enormous opportunities and virtual banks are on the rise physical banking and transactions should not be neglected or relegated to the sidelines. This is because there are numerous aspects of banking which cannot be currently accomplished by electronic impulses.

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The Upper Karabakh Predicament from the UN Resolutions to the Mediated Negotiations: Resolution or Hibernation?

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Abstract

Despite the third party efforts of the significant international and regional organizations, such as the UN and the OSCE, the Upper Karabakh problem remains unresolved for over 20 years. Neither the four resolutions related to Armenia's invasion of Azerbaijani lands adopted by the UN SC in the early 1990s have worked, nor the formal negotiations over this conflict that have taken place under the auspices of the OSCE Minsk Group for more than 20 years have reached any tangible results. These facts give rise to questions about effectiveness of the role of this institution in reaching a resolution to the conflict. The ceasefire regime is in effect since May 1994 without changing the situation, in which Armenia still keeps about 20 percent of Azerbaijani lands under invasion and is effectively involved in building a new state over the invaded lands. This paper analyzes the effectiveness of UN resolutions in liberating Azerbaijan's invaded regions, both within and outside of Upper Karabakh, as well as the OSCE mediation efforts to resolve this conflict. It also discusses effectiveness of the negotiation process, and raises a question about impartiality of the mediators and usefulness of the mediation institution of the OSCE in general. It argues that the OSCE Minsk Group has failed to successfully establish and lead the process of negotiations, thus expecting a fruitful yield is not realistic.

Keywords: conflict, Upper Karabakh, UN, OSCE, territorial integrity, mediation, transformation, resolution, management, negotiation

Introduction

The annals of the complex history of the Upper Karabakh region of Azerbaijan are replete with claims to the lands by both Azerbaijanis and Armenians. Fortunately, it is generally accepted that historical accounts have no or trivial value for international law (Shaw, 2003). Nevertheless, the historical annals cannot be underestimated, as they help us understand how the violent protracted conflict between Armenians and Azerbaijanis has developed.

The last cycle of the violence in Upper Karabakh started in 1988, three years before the collapse of the Soviet Union, which developed into a civil war with the Soviet state. A latent conflict for decades, the confrontation in Karabakh took an overt form when the Gorbachev administration failed to calculate the possible consequences of this conflict for the Soviet Union. The Kremlin's initial faltering Karabakh policy shows that Moscow maintained senseless hopes that the conflict would rapidly deescalate from its overt form and return to a dormant state, again. Indeed, Soviet rulers knew that the problem was not new, as Armenians had claimed these lands several times in the past. The latest attempt to wake up the latent conflict was made in August 1987 when the Armenian Academy of Sciences prepared a petition asking for the transfer of the Upper Karabakh and Nakhchivan regions of Azerbaijan to Armenia. The Kremlin's loose approach to the claims contributed to the conflict's move into violence, although the early skirmishes were local and moderately important. Nevertheless, the Kremlin's decision to create a special rule over this region in early 1989 was a critical point in enlarging the conflict, as an emergence of the new legal situation complicated the problem further. At the same time, Armenians perceived the Soviet policy as a green light for them to continue demanding what they sought, the Upper Karabakh region. Later, the process acquired extra complexity in line with enhancing dynamics of the conflict.

Arguably, the Armenians had planed the secession of Upper Karabakh from Azerbaijan long before the conflict initiated publically. Weapons were distributed to Armenian militants in Karabakh as early as 1986 (De Wall, 2003). A few significant events contributed to the escalation of the conflict but arguably nothing had more impact than the expulsion of Azerbaijanis living in Armenia who, at the time, numbered about 300,000. The Azerbaijanis were forced to flee the Armenian Soviet Socialist Republic (SSR) as a result of the growing anti-Azerbaijani sentiments, Armenian mass demonstrations, and Armenian attacks in 1988 (Kruger, 2010). Then, Armenian clearing of Baku and other Azerbaijani towns and villages started and the process ended in 1990. The Kremlin's policies contributed to the rapid escalation of the conflict. In July 1988, Arkadi

Volsky was named as the representative of the central committee and Supreme Soviet in Upper Karabakh. On January 12, 1989, Mikhail Gorbachev, the head of the Soviet state, appointed him leader of an eight-member committee of special administration for Upper Karabakh, which had worked against the interests of Azerbaijan. Highly incapable of settling the dispute, Volsky and his team left the region after the massacre in Baku on January 20, 1990. From 1988 to 1991, the clashes in Upper Karabakh between Armenians and Azerbaijanis were local and mostly covert. Soon after the break up of the Soviet Union in late 1991, Armenia and Azerbaijan openly went to war over the Upper Karabakh region of Azerbaijan. Armenia has managed to invade seven surrounding administrative regions of Azerbaijan beyond Upper Karabakh, some of which provided the reason for adoption of the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) resolutions. The UNSC adopted four resolutions on April 30, July 29, October 14, and November 12, 1993 condemning the Armenian invasion of Azerbaijani lands and demanding the withdrawal of Armenian troops from the Azerbaijani regions of Kelbajar, Agdam, Fuzuli, Jabrayil, Qubadli, and Zangilan, all of which are beyond the Upper Karabakh region (Kruger, 2010).

It is quite apparent that Armenia's victory has rested upon Russian support, since Armenia forced the Azerbaijani powers beyond today's borderline with the significant and undeniable help of Russia. From the very beginning of the violent confrontation, Russia supplied Armenia, at a minimum, with arms and fuel. The participation of Russia's 366th motorized infantry regiment, supporting the Armenian side in the Khodjaly massacre on February 25, 1992 and killing hundreds of Azerbaijani civilians, was apparent and well documented (Goltz, 1998). Highlighting Russia's role in the creation and development of this conflict is important for making an argument that, once openly and then covertly, Russia has been an active participant to this conflict. At the same time, Russia has been a co-chair of the mediating Minsk Group of the OSCE since its inception. Obviously, this is very a paradoxical situation.

From Covert Conflict to Overt War

The Upper Karabakh conflict has been a covert one for decades; certainly, throughout the period of Soviet rule. Armenian claims to Upper Karabakh go back to the early years of the Soviet Union and even beyond (Cornell, 1997; 1999). Armenians unsuccessfully demanded the region from Azerbaijan during the time of Nariman Narimanov's in the 1920s, Mir-Jafar Bagirov's period in the 1930s, and into the 1960s. The conflict re-emerged on an overt scale in August 1987 when the Armenian Academy of Sciences demanded the transfer of the Upper Karabakh and Nakhchivan regions of Azerbaijan to Armenia. The Kremlin's loose approach to the claims made the conflict rapidly grew into violence, although skirmishes remained local and were of moderate importance. Nevertheless, the Kremlin's decision to create a special administrative rule over the region in early 1989 was a critical point in enlarging the conflict, as an emergence of the new legal situation further complicated the problem. At the same time, Armenians perceived this as a green light for them to continue demanding what they sought. Later, the process acquired extra complexity in line with enhancing dynamics of the conflict.

The special rule of Upper Karabakh was Moscow's project eschewing the interests of Baku because the plan sought to secede it from Azerbaijan. However, the dynamics of the conflict and overall political developments in the Soviet Union did not let it happen. Lately, select Russian politicians have argued for, if not suggested the need to invade, Upper Karabakh as part of Russia, eschewing the claims of both Azerbaijan and Armenia (Yeni Musavat, 2014, April 1). During the period of the special rule in Upper Karabakh, Moscow let Armenia build the necessary base for further fight against Azerbaijan while weakening the position of the latter. The conflict's long and complex history does not necessarily mean that its transformation is impossible. Today, however, the resolution approach to this conflict is not promising for a number of reasons discussed below.

Parties to Conflict

Today, after twenty-seven years, still one of the most important problems related to this conflict is the disagreement about who the parties to the conflict are, and who should negotiate in assisting to remove the differences. It is assumed that the conflict is international, the parties to the conflict are Armenia and Azerbaijan, and that conflict resolution processes in the form of talks have been taking place between these two states. However, officially, Armenia denies being a party to the conflict (Kruger, 2010). Armenia claims that the sides to the war are Azerbaijan and the Upper Karabakh Armenians. Needless to say, negotiating a conflict without clearly determining who the sides to it are is eccentric, at best. Obviously, not only is the capacity of Armenia as a negotiator questionable, also the situation seems to be a strange one when it comes to raising questions of trust. The situation itself, coupled to an odd conflict transformation scheme, has the potential to raise doubts at different phases of the negotiation process.

Indeed, Azerbaijan does not recognize the Karabakh Armenians as a party to the conflict objecting to their direct participation in any negotiations. The current status of the region is explained by the manifestation of military power of Armenia and Russia, rather than the Armenians of Upper Karabakh. Hence, making the local Armenians a party to the talks is another form of trying to impose force on Azerbaijan. Although Armenia's attempt to justify its violent presence in Azerbaijani lands through making the Karabakh Armenians a party to the negotiations has not been successful, this issue has raised doubts about the effectiveness of the negotiations process.

A Civil or International War?

With the collapse of the Soviet Union in late 1991, the war of Karabakh acquired an international character. The new situation had created a fertile ground for the Russian troops present in the region to help Armenian paramilitaries advance into Azerbaijan's other regions, eventually invading seven administrative districts of the country, in addition to the entire Upper Karabakh region. It is important to stress that Russian military support played a crucial role in Armenian military success. Even the Khodjaly massacre of February 1992 was executed by the joint Armenian and Russian troops. As aforementioned, the UNSC adopted four resolutions regarding Armenia's aggression in Azerbaijan.

The UNSC resolution 822 adopted on April 30, 1993, called for the cessation of hostilities and withdrawal of Armenian forces from Kelbajar district of Azerbaijan following its occupation on April 3, 1993. The UNSC resolution 853 adopted on July 29, 1993 demanded the immediate cessation of all hostilities and called for the withdrawal of local Armenian troops from the Agdam district of Azerbaijan occupied on June 23, 1993 and reaffirmed UN Resolution 822. The UNSC resolution 874 was adopted on October 14, 1993. The UNSC resolution was adopted on November 12, 1993 condemning the violations of the cease-fire established between the parties. The resolution called upon the government of Armenia to use its influence to achieve compliance by the Armenians of Upper Karabakh with resolutions 822, 853 and 874. It also called for the withdrawal of local Armenian troops from district of Zangilan and reaffirmed UN Resolutions 822, 853, 874.

Nonetheless, the resolutions were never enforced having nothing more than an effect of recommendations. The resolutions, indeed, did not address the question correctly, since they did not assertively stress the element of international aggression. They have eventually displayed double standards existing in the UN system. At a historical moment, the UN threw the ball to the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), which created the Minsk Group to handle the Upper Karabakh issue. Unfortunately, the co-chairs of the Minsk Group, which are Russia, France, and the US, have not been able to create a trustworthy working environment to handle the issue effectively. The result is that the conflict has been in latency up until today, despite the frequent breaches of ceasefires and the numerous victims on both the sides. It is likely that the peace process will yield no fruit under the auspices of the Minsk Group of the OSCE. The official Baku has repeatedly expressed its scepticism in any positive outcomes as a result of the role played by the Minsk Group (Askerov, 2014; 2015). The discontent of the victim may seriously contribute to the waking the latent conflict up at any time initiating a new phase of escalation.

Uselessness of the UN and Its Resolutions

Recently, some officials on the Azerbaijani side have expressed wishes to return back to the UN as a facilitating institution. As mentioned above, the UNSC adopted four resolutions regarding Armenia's aggression against Azerbaijan in 1993. However, the fact that none of these resolutions has been implemented in any form raises a question about the mission of this institution in general, and its effectiveness in this particular case. It is true that none of these resolutions was adopted under Chapter 7 of the Charter, however the strong and decisive language used to construct the document reflected the solid approach of the organization to this conflict. It is quite interesting that the most influential organization in the world, the UN, recommended ceasing the war and initiating negotiation of the differences. Nevertheless, this particular approach cannot be assessed as productive, at least because in the give-and-take process Azerbaijan's position is asymmetrical. Creating a fair environment for both the parties before starting negotiations requires an equitable approach that has never taken place.

Perhaps, this reveals the problems associated with the malfunctioning of the UN system. The recent increase of the number of voices against the working procedure and structure of the UN system is not baseless. President Tayyip Erdogan of Turkey, one of the most outspoken challengers of the UN, often criticizes the UN system and its policies. Recently, in his speech at the UN General Assembly, he had said the world was bigger than five, the number that denotes the permanent

members of the Security Council, and claimed that the UN needed a new and functioning decision-making mechanism (Erdogan, 2015). Certainly, Erdogan is not the only unhappy leader who criticizes the UN system. But the truth is that the UN applies double standards to separate but similar cases. Those who hope that taking the Upper Karabakh case back to the auspices of the UN need to take this point into consideration. The fact that the OSCE is ineffective in the transformation of the Upper Karabakh conflict does not add to the success of the UN as a mediating institution.

Early Mediation Efforts and the Ceasefire Agreement

No direct negotiations have taken place between Armenia and Azerbaijan. A third party has mediated all negotiations that have occurred between these parties. Early mediation efforts were not structured successfully to bring about well-organized talks. The first attempt at mediation took place in September of 1991, a couple of months before the collapse of the Soviet Union. The initiators were Boris Yeltsin and Nursultan Nazarbayev who came to the conflict affected region to arrive at a ceasefire agreement between the sides. However, with the collapse of the Soviet Union they ended their mission.

Iranian mediation took place from February 1992 to May 1992. As a neighboring state to both Azerbaijan and Armenia, Iran made an attempt to bring the parties to the negotiation table to find a solution to the problem through mediated talks. However, while talks were taking place, Armenia tricked both Iran and Azerbaijan invading Shusha, the most important city for Azerbaijan in the region. Iran's mediation collapsed due to Armenia's increasing aggression and the power vacuum in Azerbaijan.

In August 1992, Nursultan Nazarbayev, now president of independent Kazakhstan, took another initiative to mediate between the parties, but the sides did not respect his efforts leading to the collapse of his mediation. Following a number of fruitless attempts, the sides reached a ceasefire agreement in May 1994, after which the mediation of the CSCE (later OSCE) became dominant. Some scholars (Mooradiand & Druckman, 1999) explain the importance of the ceasefire and negotiations using ripeness theory, which states that when parties do not see a likelihood of victory, and they have drained their resources, they have strong motivations to negotiate or to seek mediation. This argument is hardly true for the Upper Karabakh case, at least because when the mediated negotiations started between the parties, Armenia had already reached its objectives of invading the Upper Karabakh region and much beyond. Moreover, accurately measuring tangible and intangible resources of the parties of the time is practically impossible, thus claims about exhausting resources are not sound.

The Minsk Group

The Minsk Group of the OSCE has been the only mediator since January 1995. By means of its mediation, the presidents of Armenia and Azerbaijan have met numerous times. However, The OSCE mediation has not contributed to any concrete progress. The OCSE has been nothing more than an ineffective conversational forum for the parties to the conflict and the co-chairs of the Minsk Group.

In theory, the task of mediation aims at bringing the sides to a conflict together to negotiate their differences and to reach a desired outcome. However, the desired outcome is not the same for both parties. The parties to this conflict have not been willing to give up their desires, even partially, on behalf of the other party. A legitimate question to ask is related to what has been done to achieve which goal over the issue of the Upper Karabakh problem?

In 1993, Azerbaijan could deal with its own issue of Karabakh had the Russians not assisted the Armenian-Kharabakh troops with weapons, ammo, fuel, and expertise. Thus, to win, or at least to be better positioned for the post-war settlement, Baku needed to persuade Moscow to quit supporting the Armenians (Tchantouridze, 2008). This never happened because of Armenia's geopolitical importance to the Kremlin. Russia's pro-Armenian policy, and its identity as a co-chair of the Minsk Group that requires impartiality, contradict each other.

It is hard to call the ceasefire, which is in effect since May 1994, successful, since soldiers, even civilians, are killed on each side on a regular basis (Herszenhorn, 2015). Moreover, ceasefire is a situation that connotes a state of peace that is reached to stop violence. Therefore, a ceasefire is a form of negative peace, a situation where violence is absent with persisting problem, and may return to direct violence again. After a two-decade long charge, the only tangible success of the Minsk Group is the organizing of meetings of the presidents of Azerbaijan and Armenia (Askerov, 2014).

Some Principal Concepts and Statements of Peace

Let's consider some relevant concepts of peace and certain statements related to the situation in the region. Perhaps, the most frequently used phrase about the war of Karabakh is associated with peaceful resolution of this conflict. Especially, the third parties recurrently use peace rhetoric stressing that the only way of resolving this crisis is a peaceful one (Bordyuja, 2005). This approach opts out of the utilization of the institution of war as an alternative means to handle this conflict. Regrettably, in reality it does not work as easily as it is pronounced. The Upper Karabakh conflict has a violent character and therefore it is identified and called a war. Opting out of war as an institution to be used to conclude the confrontation as a phenomenon is not realistic, nor is bias free. The *status quo* in the war region is in Armenia's favour, because it has reached all its objectives formulated before the struggle started, and even moved far beyond them. Before the war began, Armenia wanted the Upper Karabakh region of Azerbaijan, which is about 4,400 sq. km, but now it additionally controls 7,634 sq. km lands of Azerbaijan. After reaching this extreme point by means of bloody fighting, stopping the war is in Armenia's interests because the *status quo* gives it a chance to keep and manage the situation as long as possible. In this sense, the policy of the Minsk Group of the OSCE to preserve the no war- no peace situation has tremendously supported Armenia's position. This is one of the main reasons of Armenia's and its supporters' frequent declarations about the peaceful resolution of the conflict as the single and exclusive option. Although this approach is not realistic and war as an institution still occupies an important place in international relations, it becomes important to clarify the conceptual framework of the peace process to evaluate its proposed effectiveness.

Conflict resolution, conflict transformation, and conflict management are the three key terms associated with many violent and nonviolent conflicts and they are often used interchangeably. However, they have quite different meanings. Conflict management refers to the practice of identifying and handling conflicts sensibly, fairly, and efficiently through diminishing the negative aspects of conflict while increasing its positive sides. Obviously, this is not the case in the Upper Karabakh conflict because it is all about managing the situation through preserving the existing negative peace that refers to the absence of violence (Galtung, 1996). This "absence of violence" is also a relative notion. The frequent violation of the ceasefire agreement in the region shows that violence is not completely absent. Also, the existing overall situation in the region, which is a product of the war, has been brutal to people fleeing their homes for over two decades. However, it can well be called *situation management*, as it preserves the existing situation associated with the state of Armenia's invasion.

As a process, conflict resolution also aims at bringing about peace but in this case, it means more about trying to eliminate conflict without thinking about future positive change as an aspect of the process (Lederach, 2003). In this case, the involved third parties are not interested in bringing justice to the region; rather they are working for a violence-free region. Trying to end this conflict in its existing form is trying to cover up the manifold problems Azerbaijan has faced due to the war.

One of the best ways of handling conflicts is using the model of conflict transformation, which has a capacity to offer constructive change that may include, and even go beyond, the resolution of specific problems (Lederach, 2003). Conflict transformation as a dynamic process offers an opportunity to see peace as a continuously evolving and developing quality of relationship. A close analysis of the peace process reveals that over the past 20 years no conflict transformation activities have taken place in Upper Karabakh; rather, serious efforts have been made to keep the status quo achieving stalemate in the region.

Goals and Objectives of the Sides

Parties always have their own objectives, and to reach them they design respective policies and mobilize all the means available to achieve them. Azerbaijan's policy is based mainly on the norms of international law such as territorial integrity, and the most powerful weapon the Azerbaijani government employs is the four aforementioned resolutions of the UN Security Council adopted in the early 1990s in connection with Armenia's invasion of Azerbaijani administrative regions Kalbajar, Aghdam, Zengilan, Jabrayil, Fuzuli, and Lachin. Although more than 20 years have passed since the invasion of these administrative areas of Azerbaijan with about a million of internally displaced people, no positive change has taken place to spark the hopes of these people ever returning to their homes.

One of the Armenia's objectives is reaching the complete secession of Upper Karabakh and part of Lachin from Azerbaijan. Today, all the goals of Armenia have *de-facto* been satisfied. In addition to Upper Karabakh, Armenia controls the lands of Azerbaijan almost three times larger than the former autonomous republic. Today, the legal status of Upper Karabakh remains as the only problem for Armenia.

Obviously, the objectives of the parties are two opposite extremes, and the farther the aims, the harder to reach the agreement. In this situation, expecting direct negotiations from the sides to the conflict is futile. Bringing the parties together for talks requires an effective third party role, and the co-chairs, one of which is Russia, assume this role.

Clashing Priorities

Azerbaijan's priority is preserving its territorial integrity. Within its territorial integrity, Azerbaijan is ready to grant the Upper Karabakh region any status without changing its own unitary administrative structure. In other words, Azerbaijan would accept no federation or confederation with the Upper Karabakh Armenians. Armenia's priority, however, is reaching the objective of a new statehood for the Armenians of Karabakh. Yerevan has placed its policy on the principle of self-determination, which is part of international morality, while forcing last three hundred thousand ethnic Azerbaijanis leave Armenia. Apparently, this constitutes an ethical dilemma with the Armenian demands.

Unlike Armenia, Azerbaijan uses the well-established rules of international law such as national unity, territorial integrity, and the principle of non-interference. Nonetheless, these rules appear to be ineffective in changing the situation in a positive way. Perhaps the new international circumstances are not ripe enough to assert that these rules are obsolete, and there are needs for a reform in this realm. The undeniable fact, however, is that the priorities of Azerbaijan and Armenia clash thus increasing the complexity of the conflict.

Persuasion

Is power more important than morality? Paradoxically, it is Armenia that used power to invade Azerbaijani lands, and it is the same Armenia that tries to justify its position with the principle of morality. The use of force can be justified for self-defence only. Azerbaijan has full rights to free its lands and defend its citizens. It would be just and ethical. Certainly, violent conflicts can also be resolved through negotiations, and the Upper Karabakh conflict is tractable provided that the institution of mediation works properly, and the rules and principles are used without any double standards. Subsequently, the elements of trust and persuasion should come into play as well. Today, neither the mediators can persuade both parties about the effectiveness of the negotiation process, nor the parties to the conflict can assure each other about the usefulness of their packages. Simply, trust does not exist.

Russia's Role in the Mediation

Russia's military presence in Armenia and its geostrategic interests in the region poses a question about its impartiality as a mediator. As aforementioned, the Upper Karabakh region of Azerbaijan was not invaded by the armed forces of Armenia alone. Russia has given full military support to Armenia and the Armenians of the Upper Karabakh region to defeat Azerbaijan. Russia's support started three years before the collapse of the Soviet Union and still continues. Russia and Armenia are strategic allies, and Russia's troops are stationed in Armenia. Moreover, Russia has long tried to impose the Upper Karabakh Armenians as a party to the conflict (Yeni Musavat, 2014, March 24). Experts argue that withdrawal of Russia's military and other support from Upper Karabakh would enable Azerbaijan to easily restore order in the region in a way it wishes (Ses Qezeti, 2015). This argument is not made to underestimate Armenian power or overestimate Azerbaijan's strengths, rather it is made to show Russia's role in the region. Moscow's policy towards the Southern Caucasus reflects its interests in the region. Russia is interested in keeping the whole region under its influence, and this entails keeping the conflict unresolved.

Besides, Russia has a number of severe problems with Azerbaijan. Perhaps, the most important difference between them, even more significant than supplying weapons to Armenia, is over the status of the Caspian Sea. But, in general, Moscow likes to demonstrate its power to the former Soviet republics to influence them. The recent events in Crimea and Donetsk regions of Ukraine are good examples for Russia's antagonistic policies towards its neighbours (Askerov & Matyok, 2015). Moscow has tested the West in Ukraine, and now it knows that restoring its former sphere of influence is quite possible. Azerbaijan is one of its targets primarily because of its energy potentials, among other things. The West needs Azerbaijan's energy, and Russia will try to cut it off. Moscow will continue using the Karabakh card effectively to this end. In this case, Russia's impartiality in the Armenian and Azerbaijani conflict is impossible, and, hence, Russia's mediating role in the Karabakh conflict is a sham and ineffective. Let's discuss this further below.

Resolution or Hibernation?

As noted above, negotiating this conflict through the mediation of the co-chairs of the Minsk Group has taken over two decades. This, perhaps, is one of the longest negotiating processes in the world over any similar protracted violent conflict. It wouldn't be too cynical to claim that the Minsk Group of the OSCE is more interested in managing the conflict, not allowing it to turn into wide-scale armed hostilities, rather than trying to help find a more permanent solution satisfying the needs of both the parties. It is hardly possible to evaluate this as a sample of positive conflict management, rather it looks like a conflict drawn out with negative consequences.

It is important to stress the significance of the identity of the co-chairs of the Minsk Group. One of the golden rules of the success for mediation is the impartiality of the mediators. We have discussed Russia's role above and questioned its impartiality. Let's consider it further through some points related to our case.

The three co-chairs of the Minsk Group of the OSCE are the US, France, and Russia. The co-chairmanship of the first two is acceptable to both parties, despite some instances, in which one of the parties may object to a particular situation. For instance, recently the American co-chair James Worlikin talked about the so-called Nagorno-Karabakh Republic as a side to the conflict (Yeni Musavat, 2014, March 24). This has long been Armenia's Moscow-backed policy, and Azerbaijan has always rejected this approach. The newly appointed US co-chair makes a statement in line with Russia's and Armenia's policies raising new questions about the impartiality of the mediators. Otherwise, Worlikin's knowledge about the political situation in the region and the mediation process is insufficient, and this hurts the sense of seriousness about the conflict transformation process related to the problem. Ironically, Ambassador Joseph A. Presel, the former US co-chair of the Minsk Group and special negotiator for Upper Karabakh in 1995, has recently noted that the situation around the issue is just the same as it was twenty years before (Musavat, 2015). The third party involvement has not contributed to the resolution of the conflict positively. The only visible effect of the mediation institution is that the Upper Karabakh conflict has remained in the state of dormancy over the past two decades despite the frequent breaches of the ceasefire.

Threat of Withdrawal

Azerbaijan has repeatedly stated that it has lost hopes for a radical change in this conflict by means of negotiations. President Aliyev and other high-ranking officials of Azerbaijan have made many statements that, if necessary, Azerbaijan would use force to restore peace and justice in Karabakh (APA News, 2014, March 19; Azernews, 2013, October 29; Trend, 2013, October 28; Rajabova, 2013, August 26). Likewise, President Sarkissian of Armenia has occasionally threatened Azerbaijan with the use of force, in the case of Azerbaijan's attack. In reality, the limited use of force has never stopped in the region. Both sides have faced casualties due to adversarial sniper shootings.

Unlike Armenia, on a number of occasions, Azerbaijan has directly or indirectly threatened to withdraw from the negotiations. Ostensibly, Azerbaijan is unhappy with the *status quo*, and the ongoing process of negotiations. Being a victim country with its lands invaded, Azerbaijan sees itself in a position of imposing pressure on the co-chairs of the Minsk Group. The existing situation is in favour of Armenia, which uses the process effectively to maintain the stalemate. This, however, does not mean that Armenia is against war, since its relations with Russia creates certainty of Russia's military support in case of a renewal of the war.

Azerbaijan's position can be interpreted as a manifestation of a protest to injustice and indifference of the world community to its problems that emerged as a result of Armenian aggression. However, in these historical circumstances, trying to re-establish justice by means of war may not be in the interest of Azerbaijan. Analysts argue that Russia is pursuing a plan to enter Azerbaijan, and one of the best ways of accomplishing such an objective is a renewal of the war in Karabakh (Residoglu, 2014).

Then Why Do Negotiations Still Take Place?

Evidence for *principled-negotiations* to satisfy the needs of both parties does not exist. In a number of occasions, both parties have repeatedly used rhetoric of total victory displaying a hard stance and no willingness for developing empathy for the other's needs. The pessimistic approach to peace is a manifestation of the impasses in the negotiations. In this case, the legitimate question to ask is why negotiations still take place? Certainly, there are many reasons for this, however,

it seems the most logical answer to this query is that the sides to the conflict have secret agendas, which are mainly related to winning time. This point may sound too simplistic when we talk about a century-long protracted violent conflict, the parties to which are struggling to resolve their differences through 20-year long negotiations without giving major concessions. Let's consider the situation concerning both republics.

Baku was initially concerned with developing possible models to extend the profits of both parties. The models that were publicized in the mid-1990s revealed Azerbaijan's willingness to step-by-step resolution of the conflict and granting Upper Karabakh the highest autonomy that exists in the world without damaging its own territorial integrity. This approach has been a more constructive attitude than that of Armenia's offering a strong possibility to construct a win-win situation. No state would be willing to lose any part of its territory, and sometimes it is necessary to present something very exquisite not to let the processes develop to that point. In conflict transformation we seek an *elegant response*. Azerbaijan's offer to that end can be interpreted as satisfying its own interests to the greatest extent by offering the Armenians of Upper Karabakh a much higher autonomy than they enjoyed during the Soviet times. However, today no signs about the validity of this initial proposal exist. Rather, war rhetoric has replaced the previous constructive speeches of the Azerbaijani political leadership (Askerov, 2014).

Armenia, as of today, is a winning party, and therefore it states its position in explicit terms trying to maximize its own gains. It demands one of three: independence to Upper Karabakh, its unification with Armenia, or its confederation (or lose federation) with Azerbaijan. If the conflict remains frozen, the *status quo* in the region would make Armenia's aspirations totally satisfied. The fact that Armenia exercises effective control over the occupied Azerbaijani lands outside of the Upper Karabakh region makes Yerevan exceptionally powerful in not displaying any concessions to Baku except for returning those invaded non-Karabakh lands back to Azerbaijan in exchange of the entire Upper Karabakh region in addition to a corridor through Lachin district of Azerbaijan. Armenia's unwillingness to give concessions to Azerbaijan is sufficient to create an impasse in the negotiation process.

Besides, it must be noted that no significant preparation of the publics in both Armenia and Azerbaijan for possible concessions have taken place. This is a sign of the absence of any agreement over an acceptable model for the resolution or transformation of the conflict.

Discussions and Conclusion

The frequent rhetoric about the Karabakh war sounds that war is not a solution to this problem, which is created through war and violence. Although Azerbaijan, as a victim of foreign aggression, has a moral right to use war as a means to restore its territorial integrity and re-establish peace and justice in the region, it has preferred a peaceful resolution of the conflict. However, the mediation institution in the peace process is not productive; at least because one of the mediators, Russia, is a party to the conflict and others, France and the US, have large Armenian diasporas that influence the process. It is hard to make a claim that the third parties involved in the peace process are contributing to the development of a positive peace that could endure in the region for a long time. Rather, it is obvious that they are trying to impose peace on Azerbaijan without significantly changing the existing situation. The negative nature of the imposed peace may become a driving force for conflict eruption at any time in the future.

Azerbaijan's lands have not been occupied by Armenia alone and without a foreign help; rather it has been supported by Russian troops significantly. Even today, Russia and Armenia are parties to the serious bilateral agreements on security issues that are primarily against Azerbaijan, since Armenia has an armed dispute only with this country. It is an undeniable fact that Russia has been a party to the Upper Karabakh war since its commencement. Due to the current latent form of the war, however, Russia's presence in the conflict is not visible. One and the same actor cannot play two separate and contradictory roles regarding the same issue. Russia's partiality is unethical disqualifying it as a mediator between Armenia and Azerbaijan. On the other hand, settling the problem over Upper Karabakh is not part of Russia's policy, since this would weaken the Kremlin's position in the region. It is also not a surprise that Russia not only nurtures Armenia with weapons but it also sells arms to Azerbaijan.

Arguably, international and regional organizations do not exist to restore justice in the world. In fact, it is not among their tasks to evaluate what justice is. Rather, they are interested in preventing violence and keeping peace, which can hardly be classified as positive. Negative peace, however, might always potentially generate a new waive of violence, which is associated with war that can be just and unjust. By waging unjust war, Armenia has invaded Azerbaijan's lands. Since

Armenia did not get Azerbaijani lands by peaceful means, a question arises about why Azerbaijan is expected to restore its territorial integrity exclusively by peaceful means? Pacific means have been attempted for about 21 years without any success due to the co-chairs' implicit consent to the existence and endurance of the current *status quo* in the region. This connotes to more to ignoring peace than making it. Under these circumstances, Azerbaijan, the victim of the conflict, has legal and ethical rights to restore its unity and prestige through fighting if no other method works within a short period of time.

The mediation efforts of the third party, the Minsk Group of the OSCE, are quite active but fruitless. High-level meetings between the leaders of the two republics have taken over 300 times, the problem, however, has not been taken forward even an inch. Azerbaijan's political leadership has repeatedly announced that the government of Azerbaijan still hopes for peaceful resolution of the conflict. However, in a number of different occasions, the president of Azerbaijan announced that Azerbaijan might use the institution of war as the last resort to free its invaded lands to establish peace and justice in its own lands.

As this paper argues, both the official Baku and opposition leadership of Azerbaijan do not believe in any possible breakthrough of the conflict with the help of the Minsk Group. Evidence shows that both the government and opposition leaderships of Azerbaijan are more willing to take the problem into the agenda of the UN having the third party efforts removed from the OSCE. More importantly, the Azerbaijani political leadership believes that enforcing the aforementioned resolutions of the UNSC is the most viable potential resolution of the conflict apart from active military operations as a last step. As the paper further argues, the course of the negotiations over Upper Karabakh is in line with the aspirations of Armenia, which is interested in keeping the current *status quo* in the region by dragging the process as long as possible to win time. Arguably, the negative peace in Upper Karabakh may not last forever and violent conflict may erupt anytime bringing about detrimental consequences for the entire region.

Over twenty years have passed since the negotiations started between Armenia and Azerbaijan, however still the issue of conflict parties is vague. The co-chairs occasionally make grave mistakes displaying their insufficient knowledge about the issue, process, and policies of the conflict parties. Arguably, the co-chairs are more interested in managing the conflict situation not to allow the outbreak of the war than trying to create new grounds for its transformation. Obviously, the mediation institution does not work efficiently.

Ostensibly, Russia's impartiality is profoundly questionable. Russia has contributed to the creation of this conflict tremendously and sustained it for its own geostrategic purposes. No evidence exists to claim that Russia has played an important role in the efforts of transforming this conflict. In fact, one of the gravest problems throughout the process of negotiations has been Moscow's practise of a double standard. If Russia does not change its policy towards the region positioning itself at equidistance from Armenia and Azerbaijan, distrust of Baku towards Moscow will not be neutralized. In that case, continuing with the negotiation process with the traditions of the Minsk Group will not yield any positive result unless the membership and policy of the Minsk Group change.

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Importance of Video Aids' Usage in Teaching and Learning Process of English Language Classes

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Abstract

This study aims to explore the use of video in English language teaching (ELT) elementary school (grades 8 to 9)... In addition, the thesis aims to find out how videos in English lessons helped to achieve the goals of English curriculum. The main hypothesis was that teaching with video would develop pupils' communicative skills and, therefore, was appropriate for the communicative approach to ELT. The study addressed five research questions regarding the use of videos in English lessons in the case study school: why the teachers used videos in ELT, what kinds of videos were used in English lessons, how and how often videos were used, what was taught and learned through the use of videos and, finally, what the teachers' and pupils' attitudes to lessons with videos were. The research was performed as a case study at an Elbasan elementary school. The data for the research was obtained through the use of mixed methods: qualitative, in the form of interviews with four English teachers and observations of three of the interviewed teachers' lessons with videos, and quantitative, in the form of a pupil questionnaire answered by 105 pupils from two 8th grade and two 9th grade classes.

Key words: *video-aids, English language, teachers, pupils, teaching*

Introduction

Topic, scope and background of the thesis

The thesis is based on a case study of the use of video in English language teaching (ELT) in An Elbasan elementary school (grades 8 and 9). Videos are defined as texts combining different modalities, such as words, images, sounds, and/or music. Thus, videos are multimodal texts. Videos are represented by feature films, cartoons, YouTube clips, documentaries, commercials, TV shows, sitcoms (situational comedies), and shorts (films that combine both images and sounds and last between thirty seconds and fifteen minutes (Massi and Blazquez 2012:63)).

The research is mixed methods: it is based on interviews with four English teachers from an Elbasan elementary school, observations of three of the interviewed teachers' English lessons with videos, and a questionnaire answered by 105 pupils from two 8th grade and two 9th grade classes. The four classes participating in the questionnaire were taught by the four interviewed English teachers.

The choice of the topic was inspired by my personal interest in how teaching with video fits in with the communicative approach and most importantly, how it is exercised in English classrooms in Elbasan. Albania, as a post-communist country and the transition period has influenced on teaching ways and methods. The use of video in education used to be extremely limited due to a number of reasons, such as the long domination of the grammar-translation method of teaching foreign languages and poor quality teaching resources, equipment and opportunities for teaching with video. On the other hand, in our days it seems to be a country where teaching with video in ELT is being adopted. Therefore, this research was a unique chance for the researcher to explore why and how the method is used in English classrooms.

The life of 21st century pupils in Albania, similar to many other countries, both inside and outside the classroom, is saturated with technology. Therefore, it seems important that contemporary teachers know how to use digital tools in education. One of the media that foreign language teachers are more likely to is turn to is videos, because they are such a common feature of pupils' everyday lives.

Lately, Albanian Ministry of Education and Sports revised a general low which represents a strategy for promoting foreign languages in primary and secondary education by including foreign languages as a compulsory exam at the end of each cycle of education, at the end of the 9th grade and 3d grade to secondary education cycle. Country needs people with good linguistic skills, and hence every effort should be made to reinforce the position of languages in schools and make pupils at all levels become as proficient as possible in English. The Ministry aims to increase their insight into the strategies used when learning languages. Therefore, they are interested in how activities are planned and presented to the pupils and how much the latter learn. This means that language material can be presented electronically and include text, sound and film. Thus, this thesis on the use of video in ELT will provide insight into both how English teaching is organized and practiced in an Albanian (Elbasan) school, and, which is more important, how digital media are introduced and exploited in these Albanian classrooms.

It is also important to take into account the English subject curriculum in the current national curriculum. The English curriculum is divided into three main areas: (1) Language learning, (2) Communication, and (3) Culture, society and literature. Thus, one of the main objectives of the curriculum is to enable pupils to communicate in English. New media play a significant role in achieving the communicative goals in the curriculum by providing learners with linguistic situations that are suitable for training communicative skills.

The English subject curriculum presupposes five basic skills to be developed in English: being able to express oneself in writing and orally, being able to read, numeracy, and being able to use digital tools. According to the authors of the curriculum, using digital tools may help the development of English linguistic competence by promoting the authentic use of the language (The Knowledge Promotion Curriculum) 2006).

Research questions and expectations

This thesis thus aims to shed light on ELT through videos by discovering how the process of teaching with video is practiced by English teachers in an Albanian school.

The thesis addresses the following research questions:

- Why do the teachers use videos in ELT?
- What kinds of videos are used in English lessons?
- How and how often are videos used?
- What is taught and learned through the use of videos?
- What are the teachers' and pupils' attitudes to lessons with videos?

One of the main expectations is that teaching with video aims at the development of the pupils' communicative skills and, therefore, fits in well with the communicative approach to language teaching. Consequently, it will be seek to find out whether teaching with video is primarily a meaning-based or form-based approach to ELT in the case study school. Another hypothesis is that the teachers from the case study school prefer short videos to long videos due to lack of class time, namely forty-five-minute lessons in comparison with two-hour-long feature films, as well as the limited number of teaching hours of English (two to three hours a week).

In addition, it is aimed to find out how the teachers and their pupils perceive the results, benefits and drawbacks of lessons with videos, as well as the pupils' attitudes to such lessons. It may be expected that, on the whole, the pupils regard such lessons as entertaining and have positive experiences. On the other hand, it would also be interesting to discover if this assumption reflects the reality and if some pupils may have negative experiences. If so, it is important to find out what makes such lessons unattractive to them. The teachers' attitudes will also be explored, as well as the issues that may prevent them from using videos in class, such as if teaching with video is extremely time-consuming and it costs.

METHODOLOGY

The research was based on a case study of the use of video in ELT in an Elbasan school "Ptoleme Xhuvani" (grades 8 to 9). The case study school was located in an urban area and had 3 parallel classes in each year, 38 teachers and approximately 320 pupils. The main research questions were why the English teachers in the case study school used

videos in ELT, what kinds of videos were used, how and how often videos were used, what was taught and learned through the use of videos and, finally, what the teachers' and pupils' attitudes to lessons with videos were.

In order to answer the above questions, mixed methods research was used. Thus, it was employed qualitative methods of data collection, namely teacher interviews and lesson observations, and a quantitative method, namely a pupil questionnaire. Different methods of data collection increased the validity of the research. According to Dörnyei (2007:124), qualitative inquiry is very different from quantitative: while the latter can be easily divided into two distinct phases – data collection and data analysis – because they usually follow each other linearly, qualitative data collection and analysis, in their turn, are often circular and frequently overlap. Moreover, it is sometimes problematic to decide whether a particular qualitative method refers primarily to data collection or data analysis (Dörnyei 2007:124). Besides, Dörnyei (2007:125) accentuates the two main characteristics of a typical qualitative dataset: first, the tendency of qualitative data to become increasingly long and, second, its unfocused and heterogeneous nature. Nevertheless, because of its heterogeneity, qualitative inquiry can provide the researcher with rich, various and multiple data on the topic and hence with valuable results. Quantitative research, in its turn, can contribute to the study by providing proof of a greater accuracy and eliminating bias by the researcher.

Since the present research combines three different research methods – interviews, a questionnaire and lesson observation – it is relevant to comment on each of them before discussing them in detail.

Case study

A case study is defined as 'a detailed examination of a single subject or group or phenomenon' (Borg and Gall 1989:402). Thus, the current case study involved an investigation of why and how the English teachers from the particular Norwegian elementary school used videos in their teaching, as well as how their pupils reacted to and learned from such teaching. Borg and Gall (1989:403) differentiate between several types of case studies, such as historical case studies of organizations, observational case studies, oral histories, situational analysis, and clinical case study. The present case study can be distinguished as observational, because it focuses on English classrooms as a part of an organization (a elementary school) and the focus of the study is a group of individuals (the teachers and pupils).

Borg and Gall (1989:402) believe that: 'A case study requires the collection of very extensive data in order to produce an in-depth understanding of the entity being studied.' Therefore, the researcher employed the three aforementioned methods of data collection. The researcher believed that these three methods would provide detailed information and a deep vision of the topic, since multiple methods increase the validity of the study and provide versatile results.

Interviews

Four English teachers from the case study school were interviewed. Two of them taught English in the 8th grade, whilst the other two in the 10th grade. The researcher got in contact with one of the teachers via her university lecturer. The contacted teacher became a 'gatekeeper' for the researcher and helped her to contact the other three English teachers. The four teachers were all interviewed individually for approximately 45 minutes each.

The interview as a research method involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. The interview has the advantage of immediate feedback as contrasted with the questionnaire. Besides, the questionnaire is often criticized for being too shallow to provide a true picture of opinions (Borg and Gall 1989:446). On the other hand, the

It is conducted a semi-structured interviews for verbal data collection. This kind of interview can provide, on the one hand, with a certain amount of precision and accuracy, as opposed to unstructured interviews, and, on the other hand, with some level of flexibility, as opposed to structured interviews. In a semi-structured interview, the researcher uses an interview guide with specific questions that are organized by topic but are not necessarily asked in a specified order (Bailey 2007:100). According to Borg and Gall (1989:452), semi-structured interviews have the advantage of being reasonably objective and deep because they provide the interviewer with the opportunity to ask open-ended questions in order to obtain more complete data.

While interviewing, the focus was on listening to the interviewees more and speaking less by only asking the questions from the interview guide and the questions that arose during the interview. The researcher's aim was not to probe, dispute or judge the teachers' answers about their experiences; therefore, she tried to explore the latter with as objective as possible an attitude by asking more open-ended questions and following up without interruptions.

In order to keep the received data confidential for satisfying the ethical requirements of the research, it was transcribed parts and summarized the rest of the interviews herself.

Questionnaire

In total, 105 pupils from two 8th and two 9th grades were asked to answer a questionnaire. The questionnaire was originally written in English (see Appendix 2) and then translated into Albanian (see Appendix 3) so that there was less risk of the pupils misunderstanding the items, thus increasing the reliability of the research. Specifically, 50 pupils from two 8th grade classes and 55 pupils from two 9th grade classes participated. Brown (2001), cited in Dörnyei (2008:6), and gives the following definition of questionnaires: 'Questionnaires are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers.' The pupils were asked to answer a questionnaire, ticking off 25 statements on a scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' ('strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'neutral', 'agree', and 'strongly agree'). The questionnaire included statements concerning the pupils' attitudes to lessons with videos, as well as the effect of videos on the development of oral, reading and writing skills, vocabulary growth, promoting cultural awareness, and the use of subtitles. Thus, the questionnaire contained, for example, statements, such as: 'Videos in English lessons provide me with topics to communicate with other classmates' or 'Videos in English lessons inspire me to read books that I may have previously had little interest in or that I did not know about before'.

The questionnaire as a method of data collection was chosen because of the following advantages: time and effort. Firstly, it took the pupils only about 20-25 minutes to answer the questionnaire, which is beneficial when collecting information from teenagers who may find the research procedure long, boring, or unnecessary to spend much time on it. Secondly, since 105 pupils participated in the project, it would not have been possible for the researcher to interview so many of them. However, the disadvantage of questionnaires is that they give general data without extensive information on the personal feelings and opinions of the participants. That is why the researcher included an open question in the questionnaire to learn whether the pupils had positive or negative attitudes and experiences of lessons with the use of video: 'What was your favorite English lesson with video? Why?' In order to keep the received data confidential, the questionnaires were anonymous.

Observation

Lesson observation took place in four lessons with video taught by three of the interviewed teachers from the case study school. Observation as a method of data collection in a case study implies the thorough examination of the characteristics of the phenomena being studied. The main advantage of observation is that it provides direct access to the phenomena under examination. Instead of relying on collecting information from other people, the researcher has the opportunity to observe the case him or herself. As opposed to observation, interviews as well as questionnaires may not always provide accurate or complete information because the respondents might answer in the way that corresponds, as they may think, to what is desirable. However, interviews and questionnaires are still an important basis of research data and they should by no means be ignored. Observation as the third method in mixed methods research can simply complement the first two methods more effectively and efficiently by providing the researcher with more unbiased and objective data.

FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the research on the use of video in ELT carried out in the case study school. As stated in the previous chapter, the research is implemented in the following three research methods in the study: teacher interviews, a pupil questionnaire, and lesson observation.

It is observed English lessons with video taught by the interviewed English teachers except for Anna, because she explained that her class consisted of emotionally vulnerable pupils who might consider an observation lesson as a difficult or unpleasant experience. Therefore, the researcher observed two lessons of Era teaching with a complete film and one lesson of Maria and Lela teaching with a film, in which they showed part of the film during the observed lesson. The two latter observations with part of a film were carried out because the researcher's aim was to observe a typical lesson with video, rather than necessarily all the lessons with the same video from beginning to end. The teachers reassured that the observed lessons were the teachers' typical way of using video in class. During all her observations, I was setting at a seat at the back of the classroom in order to have the possibility to observe the whole class and take field notes.

Pupil's questionnaire

This subsection presents the findings from the questionnaires answered by the 8th and 9th grade pupils from the case study school, comprising 105 respondents in total. Each of the tables addresses one specific aspect concerning teaching with video. These aspects are the affective aspects of watching videos, the general educational aspects, and the frequency of watching videos in relation to vocabulary growth, the connection between watching videos and the development of oral language skills, the connection between watching videos and the development of other language skills, the cultural and contextual aspects of watching videos, and videos and subtitles.

Table 1 presents an overview of the questionnaire responses on the affective aspects of watching videos.

Table 1: Affective aspects of watching videos

Statement No 105	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree
English lessons with videos are fun and entertaining.	69 (65%)	30 (29%)	2 (2%)	2 (2%)	2 (2%)
I do not like English lessons when my teacher uses videos	5 (5%)	4 (4%)	29 (28%)	54 (51%)	13 (12%)
Videos in English lessons help me to gain confidence in speaking to my classmates.	18 (17%)	27 (26%)	24 (23%)	8 (7%)	28 (27%)
Visual cues (for example, face expressions and body language) in videos help me to maintain my interest and concentration while listening	29 (28%)	57 (54%)	6 (6%)	2 (2%)	11 (10%)

Table 2 provides an overview of how the pupils perceived the educational benefits of lessons with videos.

Statement No 105	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree
I learn more English during English lessons with videos.	14 (13%)	41 (39%)	17 (16%)	3 (3%)	30 (29%)
I learn in a more efficient way during English lessons with videos.	19 (18%)	44 (42%)	13 (12%)	5 (5%)	24 (23%)

Table 3 provides an overview of the pupils' responses to the frequency of watching videos in English lessons in relation to vocabulary growth.

Statement No 105	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree
Just a few lessons with videos do not help me to increase my vocabulary.	8 (7%)	22 (21%)	38 (36%)	10 (10%)	27 (26%)
Regular lessons with videos help me to increase my vocabulary a lot.	30 (29%)	55 (52%)	7 (7%)	2 (2%)	11 (10%)

Table 4: Effects of watching videos on oral language skills

Statement (N = 105)	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree
Videos in English lessons provide me with topics to communicate in English with other classmates.	11 (10%)	37 (35%)	25 (24%)	6 (6%)	26 (25%)
Videos in English lessons help me to improve my pronunciation and intonation.	41 (39%)	50 (48%)	3 (3%)	2 (2%)	9 (8%)
Videos in English lessons help me to understand oral English better than just ordinary audio sound recordings (CD, etc.).	34 (32%)	50 (48%)	5 (5%)	1 (1%)	15 (14%)
Videos in English lessons are a good source to make me familiar with and used to different ways of pronunciation and intonation.	50 (48%)	46 (43%)	3 (3%)	-	6 (6%)

Table 5: Effects of watching videos on reading, writing and vocabulary

Statements (N = 105)	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	
Videos in English lessons inspire me to read books that I may have previously had little interest in or that I did not know about before.	13 (12%)	22 (21%)	35 (34%)	11 (10%)	24 (23%)	
Videos in English lessons make me more interested in doing written tasks.	12 (11%)	43 (41%)	25 (24%)	9 (9%)	16 (15%)	
Videos in English lessons help me to learn vocabulary.	46 (44%)	46 (44%)	5 (4%)	4 (4%)	4 (4%)	

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