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Mediation's role solving conflicts in corrupted judiciary systems

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Abstract

Mediation in conflict resolution constitutes a new trend in restorative justice. Mediator's procedures are "sanctioned" since Antiquity and later in the years 1999, 2003 and 2011. However, only after the first licensing of mediators and the Creation of National Chamber of Mediators in Albania we can seriously talk about the beginnings of the institutionalization of mediation. Why Albanian State and USAID and JUST program are investing in mediation conflict-resolutions? The main reason is because Albanian Judiciary System is estimated, perceived as extremely corrupted. Mediation is extremely important in corrupted judiciary systems as arrives to resolve conflicts satisfactorily for conflicting parties, it takes less time and less financial costs. It looks like mediation solving conflicts gives to the conflicting parties what the corruption denies. This paper will analyze the role of mediators in the resolution of conflicts, the need to bring qualitative changes in the practices of conflict resolution, the big challenge of establishing trust and everything connected with a biased process. The paper will be described by some questions and above all the question mark is if it possible to extend the mediation procedures in all conflict resolution? What is public impact of mediation? Is it possible to have corrupted mediation as corrupted as judiciary system? What is the solution if it happens? Some findings and conclusion will be the last session of the paper bringing us a clear picture of what the mediation should be.

Keywords: Corruption; role, mediator; solving conflicts, judiciary system

Introduction

   Judiciary system is part of tripartite system as described firstly by Baron de Montesquieu. Montesquieu goes further when he said that "the independence of the judiciary has to be real, and not apparent merely". "The judiciary was generally seen as the most important of powers, independent and unchecked", and also was considered dangerous.(Montesquieu, Charles-Louie. The Spirit of Laws).More and more governments in the world are reforming judiciary system trying to establish an effective, professional and impartial judiciary system. Apart institutional commitment, success or not of judiciary reform agenda, it remains one of the most controversial powers, more so in judicial systems that are perceived by the public as corrupted. Firstly it is important to deal with the concept used in this paper. What is corruption and what is mediation or mediator? As we all know there is not a universally recognized definition of corruption, many practitioners in the field use Transparency International's definition, or "the abuse of entrusted power for private gain." In international law, a person commits the criminal act of corruption when he or she "promises, offers, or gives" undue benefits to a public official "in order that the public official act or refrain from acting in the exercise of his or her official duties." If a public official solicits or accepts such an undue advantage, that also counts as corruption.(United States Institute of Peace, Study Guide Series on Peace and conflict) .The second key concept of this research paper is mediation. Sometimes it is used mediation or ADR. It is ADR the same concept as mediation? The doctrine says no because using the concept ADR we mean processes that may be used within or outside courts and tribunals to resolve disputes, where the processes do not involve traditional litigation processes. The term describes processes that are non-adjudicatory, as well as adjudicatory, that may produce binding or non-binding decisions and includes processes described as mediation, evaluation, case appraisal and arbitration. It is understood that ADR is a wider concept as mediation and it refers all alternative dispute resolutions.

 According to legal dictionary mediation is "the attempt to settle a legal dispute through active participation of a third party (mediator) whoworks to find points of agreement and make those in conflict agree on a fair result. Mediation differs from arbitration   which the third party (arbitrator) acts much like a judge but in an out of court less formal setting but does actively participate in the discussion .Mediation has become very common in trying to resolve domestic relations disputes(divorce, child custody, visitation), and is often ordered by the judge in such cases. Mediation also has become more frequent in contracts and civil damages cases. There are professional mediators, or lawyers who do some mediation for substantial fees, but the financial cost is less than fighting the matter out in the court and may achieve early settlement and an end to anxiety.(http://legal-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/Mediation)

However, mediation does not always result in a settlement. We used this definition to introduce in the paper and in the linkage between mediation—corruption and judiciary system.

Background of the research

The Albanian term mediation first surfaced in the anquity. This does not mean that mediation as a mode of dispute resolution was hither to unknown in the Albania. Mediation, as a process of third party assisted bargaining, had existed for several centuries, performed as assemblies, presbyteries , blood feuds reconciliation commissions and social courts. These methods of dispute resolution were commonly practiced as a side-activity by judges, mayors, or yet other functionaries, using their intuition, experience of life, or mere authority. The "mediation" was regulated by albanian Canon(Canon of Lekë Dukagjini, article 668, 682), different laws (Law no. 83, dated 23. 05. 1928 "On the civil administration of the Albanian Kingdom", or Law No. 4406 , dated 24. 06. 1968 "On the organization of the judiciary system"). In the customary law mediation was part of judiciary system, in so called social court, at that time part of judiciary system. The social court (including village court or neighborhood court) should take all appropriate steps to resolve disputes by reconciliation (Mandro, 2008). Here lies an essential difference with the modern mediation in Albania. There are three laws, the first one of the years 1999, the second one the law of 2003 and the last one of the year 2011. The last legal framework is in full accordance with the international legal framework regarding mediation, the directives of European Union and the European Code Ethics of Mediators. It is possible to discuss about modern concept of mediation referring the last legal framework. According to the law of 2011 mediation and all legal acts regulating mediation process, mediation is as an extra judicial independent activity, undertaken voluntarily by parties in civil, commercial, labor and family disputes, and in certain penal cases. The current Mediation Law, which entered in force on April 9, 2011, assigns the Ministry of Justice the responsibility of creating and maintaining the Register of Mediators, and establishes the National Chamber of Mediators. The law obligates judges to invite parties in relevant court cases to participate in mediation, thus providing an important tool for faster decisions and increase transparency in the courts. The law sanctioned criteria for mediators and only after being licensed from the License Commission in the Ministry of Justice and after registered in Mediator Register a person or a mediation office could mediate cases. Actually in Albania it is established National Chamber of Mediators (Since July 7th 2013) and actually there are 54 (Fifty four) mediators and two mediators office or foundations. (Ministry of Justice, June 2014) . However before the Law of 2011 entered in force there are some important projects of JuST and USAID in Albania with four district courts since February 2009. USAID JuST a very important partner and counterpart is a five-year project to increase court transparency, fairness and efficiency; bolster watchdog and anticorruption roles of civil society organizations and media; and strengthen the legal profession and legal education in Albania. Thanks to this project, regarding its benefits in the mediation the process is a successful story and the statistical data show that the Albanian people are supporting the mediation bringing the cases before the mediators, avoiding courts. Describing the background of the research only dealing with the mediation as a new alternative of resolving disputes it is not enough and it doesn't explain the linkage between the mediation, corruption and the judiciary system. Albanian judiciary system is perceived as most corrupted. It is widely accepted and confirmed from all researchers, Albanian or not that judiciary system in Albania is corrupted. The last report (2013) of U. S Department of State concluded that corruption is one of the main violators of human rights in Albania and it continues to be a serious concern. More regarding the corruption , it is the interview of chef of Euralius Mr. Joaquin Urias. He said there are not statistical data and concrete numbers of corruption in Albania because the corruption is not punished (an other grave problem) but the whole system of justice is corrupted. According to him corruption has become systemic, being thus the rule and not the exception(See more http://www. infocip. org/en/?p=1199). It is possible giving justice in a corrupted judiciary system ? Head of High Court of Republic of Albania , Judge Xhezair Zaganjori in the conference "Rule of Law and Reforms in Albania" co-organized in Brussels by foundation "Hanns Seidel, declares "There is no court when the judge declares the verdict based on political influence or corruption because there is no impartial and efficiency, two fundamental values of judiciary system. " Corruption is structurally rooted, and officials often ignore or bend laws and policies, report false information and neglect the welfare of the population under their constituency (Lieberthal, 2004). Even though bureaucratic and commercial corruption is highly undesirable, judicial corruption is far more problematic. Courts are legitimately supposed to realize the law's corrective justice with reasonable competence. A clean judiciary could not fundamentally curb governance problems; but a corrupt judiciary will not only be irresponsive but also intensify rising complications. Corrupt judges placed on the frontiers of exercising legal power are largely unfit to give fair adjudication, because their own objectives often go beyond the proper application of the law. Their actions may be motivated by self-interest and subjected to interventions by sources of corruption. (Eric Chi, 2008). A justice system, and the processes located within it, ought to deliver justice. (Welsh, Vol. 5:117). While you are reading this the first question you have is justice delivered equally for all? Even the principle of equality is old as humankind it is not applied perfectly . The corruption affects the public services, and so on the corruption in judiciary system affects equal delivering of the justice, and impacts mostly the poor. Courts possess the decision, which is binding on the parties to the

judicial process to be implemented and executed but let's think for a moment . . . a judicial decision which one of the parties does not believe that it is in accordance with the law not only does not solve the conflict but also generates a new conflict that will accompany the execution phase of decision. We can not completely avoid conflicts but can find the best solution for them. Michael Barker said in his article in web page State of Nature "Conflict is not the enemy, but instead is the means of promoting justice. Unresolved conflicts that are "resolved" without adequate justice (via ADR and the like) are ultimately the enemy of all humankind, as they help institutionalize inequality. "According to Barker and the others , mediation is estimated as A. D. R (abbreviation of alternate dispute resolution) and now on it is estimated as Adequate Dispute Resolution regarding greater flexibility, costs below those of traditional litigation, and speedy resolution of disputes, among other perceived advantages. In this paper observing role of mediation in corrupted judiciary system it is important to emphasize advantages of mediation in dispute solving. According to Laura Nader in her review of Jerold Auerbach's book Justice Without Law? (Oxford University Press, 1983), Laura Nader recounts how Auerbach wrote that prior to the Civil War, "alternative dispute settlement had expressed an ideology of community justice. Thereafter, " Nader continues "according to Auerbach, it became an external instrument of social control and a way of increasing judicial efficiency. "

After introducing shortly the background of the paper, the chronological presentation of mediation in Albania, on arrival in the contemporary concept of mediation, as it is taking place recently in one of the most judiciary corrupted system in Europe and not only in the second session it will be discussed about methods used in this research paper, an analytical discussion will be about the linkage between them trying to point out some conclusions and recommendations about the future of mediation in Albania.

Method

Mixed methods of research

The author decided to use mixed methods research because of the advantage of mixed methods. It is argued that mixed research methods have several advantages. Mixed methods provide guidance for others in connection with what researchers are intended to do or have done (Creswell 2003). Mediation (contemporary concept of it in Albania) is a new process so there are not a lot of statistical data and it is much more important providing some conclusion on it, trying to go beyond of the barriers.

Materials

Quantitative data of cases of conflicts resolute by mediation. Data are provided by Ministry of Justice in Albania, National Chamber of Mediators, Foundation of Solving Conflicts and Reconciliation of Disputes and data of 4 (four) Court Districts in Albania where it is implemented a pilot project of mediation (Korca District Court, Durres District Court, Saranda District Court and Gjirokastra District Court as well) Statistical data are provided as well by JuST and USAID, two very important counter-parts of this project.

There are some qualitative researchers on mediation in Albania, especially in penal process . We will use some of their finding just to elaborate a common sense of mediation and how it is perceived by the scholars.

Results

The main aim of this study was to evaluate role of mediators in solving conflicts in corrupted judiciary system. For this purpose , firstly it is important to clarify if presence of mediation affects or change something in corrupted judiciary system. Secondly it is as much important to distinguish the voluntary choice of parties in a mediation process. The choice is due to the negative effects of corruption or because of bureaucracy, formal procedures and inherent complexity of having a trial process.

Findings

Using secondary data of researchers about mediation and the reason why the parties choose mediation , the reasons are as below:

-Through mediation, the parties reduce the expenses

-Reduce stress of court proceedings

-Reduce the emotional toll of conflict.

-In divorce mediation and other family mediations (such as elder mediation, estate planning mediation, and family business mediation), the participants benefit greatly by preserving the possibility of ongoing relationships in the future, if they so choose.

-It gives substantial control to the parties, rather than a judge or a court

-Mediation provides privacy and confidentiality, while the trial is public. This is extremely important in the disputes relating so called "private life .

-Disputes are solved in a creative way.

-The mediation solve the conflict while the Court Decision is about the case.

Using secondary data we listed the reason and now it's time to discuss what is not offered in trial process because of the corruption.

The first reason is reducing expenses. Expenses, financial costs are the most notable effect of corruption. Bringing the case before the court where the judges are corrupted costs more. Mediation costs less than a court trial process. Costs refer to official fee to present the case before the court, acquisition of the documents, fee of services of attorney and the costs of corruption). Choosing the mediation you choose to pay only fee of services of mediators . The fees are approved by National Chamber of Mediators .

The second reason of the parties is reducing stress of court proceedings. The court proceedings are stressful even for the lawyers and other professionals so it is easy to understand how stressful they are for parties in the conflict for who the court proceedings are not familiar. We will not stop at this reason and other reasons that are not because of the corruption but because of the organization of judiciary system.

An other reason, strongly related to the corruption is because the parties are not confident to judicial system. According to them the verdict courts are given affected of corruption or political influence. The verdict's court often is partial. The international statistical show that more and more people are losing faith in judicial system. The U. S State Department, year 2013, referring Albania regarding the corruption address:" State institutions that treat the fight against corruption remain vulnerable to political pressure and influence, while the fight against corruption in the judiciary has made limited progress ". The corruption in judiciary system is a double problem cause it means not only not delivering justice but as well not punishing it. In a democracy based on the rule of law, the role of the judiciary, as an independent and equal branch of government, is to protect human rights and civil liberties by ensuring the right to a fair trial by a competent and impartial tribunal. All citizens expect equal access to the courts and equal treatment by the investigative bodies, prosecutorial authorities, and the courts, regardless of their position in society. Yet, under most corrupt judicial systems, the powerful and wealthy can escape prosecution and conviction, while large segments of society are excluded from their rightful access to fair and effective judicial services. (Pepys, 2003). Concluding the findings corrupted judiciary system affect:

-Faith of public in judiciary system

-More and more expenses

-Stressful court proceedings

-Violates equality before the law and access in the justice

For all above reasons more and more people are choosing mediation. According to American statistical there was a similar view expressed among the sixty disputants involved in in-depth interviews. Many expressed the view that they would wish to avoid the courts in the future, and ADR as well as lawyer-to-lawyer discussion were pathways to do so.

The mediation exist, the legal framework as well but are the parties informed about it ?

The mediation is more popular and known among professionals of the field than in the public. People missed the important information that agreement of a mediation process has the legal effect of a court verdict. The National Chamber of Mediators, judges, police officers, officials of probation services and mediators itself should inform parties for this advantageous alternative of dispute solving.

According to Ministry of Justice of the Republic of Albania for the years 2013-2014 the number of conflicts(disagreement) solved through mediation are shown as below: The total numbers of cases presented to solve through mediation is 167 .

From that : 90 cases belong to Korca Court District , 35 cases belong to Durres Court District , 43 cases belong to Saranda Court District and only five of them belong to Gjirokastra Court District. 75% of the cases are solved through mediation .

(Speech of Minister of Justice of the Republic of Albania, Mr, Nasip Naco in the meeting "Mediation , a new alternative of solving conflicts in Albania", organized by National Chamber of Mediation, in the attention of Ministry of Justice ")

Discussion

In the discussion session of this research paper I would like to pay attention to some debated question.

After proved the linkage between corruption in judiciary system and positive effects of mediation in fighting corruption, which is the guarantee that the theory that mediation fight corruption in judiciary system is true and can be implemented successfully?

There are enormous theories of combating corruption in judiciary system. They vary from new selection systems, higher salaries, guaranteed tenure, ethical training, courtroom automation and improved monitoring and discipline . They have different rates of success, but none of them could vanish corruption . Going further UN Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) said it became evident, however, that judicial corruption could only be addressed effectively as part of a broader, systematic and sustainable approach aimed at enhancing both the integrity and the capacity of the judiciary and the courts. (Hammergren, 2003). Why we should believe that mediation could seriously fight corruption?

The mediation's role fighting corruption in the judicial system it is mainly because of removing the monopoly-power of judicial system to resolve conflicts. An other reason is because judges and other law enforcement bodies of the judiciary in Albania are threatened due to the refusal of public regarding judicial system. This refusal is expressed through strongly support of mediation. The other theories of combating corruption have been focused inside the system. It will be interesting to see how an other structure "outside" of courts will affect the court, and the last but not least is that mediation will face the judiciary system with new standards, widely approved.

An other debated question is what kind of justice is delivered by the mediation process? We will introduce to the question shortly presenting the colonist view towards juries. They considered juries as as the "guardians of local community values against outsider judges appointed by the royal governor" and "as bulwarks of integrity against corrupt public officials. (Welsh, 2004) Are the mediators replacing juries, can we consider them guardians of local community values? Is mediation agreement delivering social justice, deeply wanted by community ? ? Mediation is part of a real and genuine reform in judiciary system . In every time, but mostly now we need to highlight the need of a professional, eficent and impartial judiciary system. Other way there is no sense discussing about the rule of law or human rights protection. Starting from the point of view of judge Wayne Brazil who has urged that the process "democratized our institution [the courts] in potentially profound ways because mediation permitted, in fact actively encouraged, the parties to decide for themselves which values were most important to them, then to use ADR to pursue those values. ", in my opinion mediation it is not only alternative dispute resolution, even adequate dispute resolution but is a way tackling corruption. It represent a new standard of justice, community justice, not an abstract concept of justice as it sanctioned in legal instruments, but a kind of justice coming from the parties including in conflict. Justice coming the parties is accepted, is not controversial and the parties have faith in it and believe in real equality. In that sense, mediation is what justice is missed and what people strongly wish to find in judiciary system. Let's go back in the very beginnings of the contemporary mediation movements , in the late years 1970s and the early 1980s when the movement was inspired by the principles of democracy. (Welsh, 2004)

Albania missed time to reform judiciary system and make this system more efficient, transparent and impartial. Mediation is part of reform agenda and it is time to play much more significant role in delivering the missed justice.

This research paper outlined the linkage between corruption in judicial system and mediation. It is accepted the positive effects of mediation in fighting corruption in judicial system but policy makers should keep in my mind that it is one of the ways and it should be combined to the others to be real and successful.

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Tables

Table 1. Mediation versus Court

COMPONENTS	MEDIATION	COURTS
Time (Faster)	Mediation cases take an average of two weeks to a few months for conclusive resolution	Can take at least a year and half on the average to resolve, not to talk about possible appellate processes in the higher Courts. Further, time for execution of the judgment could take a further couple of years sometimes.
Party control	Substantial party control.	There is no substantial party control.
Human Rights	Respected and equal for everyone	Fair trial process and other human rights sanctioned are violated in corrupted judiciary system
Simpler	It takes less time, it is less stressful, it is not as formal as court proceedings.Disputes are solved in a creative way	Court proceedings are formal, timetable decided from the administrative staff or the judge .Takes more time and it is more stressful.
Confidentially	The parties have full faith in the mediator.They choose him or her voluntary.They believe he/she is able to solve their disputes.The mediation agreement is signed by the both parties and they are winer-winer	The judge or the panel of judge are determined by lottery.The parties have their opinion about his/their impartiality.Sometimes they do not believe he/she/they are able .They are doubtful about selection criteria of the judges.Undoubtfully one of the parties, mainly loser, or sometimes both of them loser and winer believe that the verdict court is not in accordance with the law.

Voluntary	Parties decide about the mediator. Parties decide if they want to solve the dispute through mediation	The parties do not decide about the judges or the panel of judges. If one the parties bring the case before the court, it is not important the will of the other party.An absence court decision is always possible .
Access	The poor and the other discriminated target group of the society could access the mediation process.	In a corrupted judiciary system to the poor and discriminated is denied the access in the judicial system
Effective	It resolve the disputes, conflicts. After the mediaton process both parties have a common future	It gives a decision court about the case.The decision court could generate a new conflict between parties.
Justice	Social justice close to the citizens – an essential factor of social cohesion	Conventional, abstract justice In the best way it is in accordance with the legal provisions, abstract articles.

Table 2.Cases that should try to be resolved by mediation before going in the Court (According to Albanian law)

Law No 10385 dated 24.2.2011 "For the mediation solving disputes in the Republic of Albania".

Penal Cases	Sanctioned in the article 59 and 284 of Criminal Procedure Code for criminal cases category, such as beating, serious injury by negligence, injury due to negligence, violation of domicile, defamation and other cases, it results that the injured , (the victim) has the right to directly petition the court the criminal case and to take part in the hearing as a party, to prove the charge and to obtain compensation. Also, under Article 284a of the Criminal Procedure Code are defined cases of criminal prosecution conflicts starts from prosecution or judicial police only based on the complaint of the victim, the injured party against the defendant, who may withdraw the appeal by addressing mediation stage of the proceedings. These cases are injury due to negligence, manslaughter, insult and slander because of duty, etc..
Family Cases	Divorce, child custody, parental obligations , and all the cases of the high interest of child
Civil Cases	Civil, labour and commercial cases

Table 3.How mediation reduce corruption in judicial system?

Removing monopolistic power of judicial system in resolving conflicts

Establishing an "outside" court structure

It is a clear example of refusal of corruption in judicial system

It represent new standarts of justice , which should be part of conventional justice given in trial process

New standarts of professional conduct

What does nationality mean today? Construction of national identity of the students who are attending Lithuanian schools

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Abstract.

This paper strives to reveal what does nationality as the basic element constructing the national identity means to Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus. Empirical qualitative research was conducted from the end of 2013 to the beginning of 2014 with ninth and tenth graders attending Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus. The research sample: Lithuania (12 ninth graders; 13 tenth graders); Poland (15 ninth graders; 14 tenth graders); Belarus (4 ninth graders; 5 tenth graders). Study instrument: an essay. Analyzing the study data, categories were distinguished in terms of the structural components of the identity (Herskovits, 1948; Huntington, 1996): 1) national heritage; 2) ethnocentrism; 3) cultural homogeneity; 4) belief structure. The research data reveals that Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Poland perceive their nationality as encompassing all four components of the national identity. The most explicit reference, as in the case of Lithuanian students attending schools in Lithuania, is to the category of the cultural homogeneity, which involves the most explicit expression of the involvement to the process of fostering the culture. However, in the Lithuanian group, nationality even triggers negative feelings and indifference. The results of qualitative research results in Lithuanian schools in Belarus show that students of these schools identify the state of being a Lithuanian with cultural homogeneity, when they can foster their mother tongue, traditions, customs. etc.; also the students see actual possibilities to associate their future with their homeland, which in this case is Lithuania.

Keywords Nationality, National identity, school students in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus.

Introduction

Identification with nation is one of the most important phenomena in the society; it is realized as the fact when a person considers himself as a part of his nation, accepts and believes in its standard rules, the way of life and knows cultural, material and spiritual heritage. However, personal identification with the national society in the global world becomes increasingly weaker and less significant because people who decide to disassociate from their nation seek to identify themselves with Europe or even with the entire world. Increasing migration, technologies and the progress of communities are reducing the world by bringing people to closer interaction with each other which would not have been possible a few decades ago (J. J. Platt, T. A. Laszloffy, 2013).

Due to being among hybrid, European, cosmopolitan and other identities, a person feels lost. However, negating the national identity, at the same time, we also negate the human origin, i.e. generation from nation. The scientists argue that the national identity itself is the foundation for formation of hybrid, global identity and identification with a nation is considered as a part of full-fledged life of a person. Nationality is a substantial construct of national identity. Language, culture, history and etc. play the same role. Could the state be retained in case of negation of nationality? Can a person live without a nation? We can often hear that globalization destroys nations and etc. By the way, globalization binds the world; however, maybe globalization itself is that specific opportunity of construction of our nations, of development of our culture, of disclosure of its uniqueness and etc. It is worth thinking that maybe the problem is hidden outside the human consciousness and conception of global perception when the nation, culture and etc. are denied. It is worth realizing that the world needs genuine nation that have genuine cultures instead of plagiarism and uniform phenomena. Therefore, the following problem is raised: what does the nationality as the basic element constructing the national identity means to Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus. The purpose is to reveal what does the nationality as the basic element constructing the national identity mean to students of Lithuanian schools. The article provides:

theoretical research – analysis of the chosen aspects of philosophical, psychological, educational and other literature;

empirical research – qualitative analysis – essay. This paper introduces content analysis of the essay.

Discourse of nationality

Even in the 21st century, the notion of nationality does not have a unified and universally acknowledged definition. For example, the terms nationality and citizenship are usually considered to be synonymous. "We are aware that citizenship and nationality are often used synonymously and that some domestic laws use only the former concept" (R. Bauböck, E. Ersbøll, K. Groenendijk, H. Waldrauch, 2006, p. 2). Thus, the notion of nationality acquires political content, even though the difference in English between those two terms is emphasized. For example, in the United Kingdom, the term nationality is used to mark the official relation between the state and the individual (Gerard-René de Groot, 2004). On the other hand, the authors admit that the term nationality might be ambiguous, as it is connected to the national identity and the membership of national minorities.

However, there are certain authors who attempt to change the dominating traditional system, in which nationality is related to personal faithfulness and dedication to one's nation; these authors tend to focus on political manifestations of the state. Kay Hailbronner perceives nationality as an expression of the membership in a political community, as a legal status and obligation to the political subject which is necessary for existent of a sovereign state.

Analogous approach is introduced by R. Bauböck, E. Ersbøll, K. Groenendijk and H. Waldrauch (2006) who accept the same notion of nationality promoted by the international law, when the nationality is perceived as legal relations between the persons and the nation.

There is a different position as well, as in the case of Tom George (2010) who distinguishes the differences between the citizenship and nationality and marks that nationality is a wider notion than citizenship. It means that nationality is characteristic to all political members of a certain state or for those who are dedicated to the state; however, not all citizens might have citizenship. Also one can have and develop its nationality even if one loses his/her citizenship. However, having lost the citizenship in one's country, the person can lose the right to live in it as well. Nationality is independent or related to the place of residence. The aforementioned aspects introduced by the author show that nationality is internal personal connection with the nation and community. Citizenship is related to the place of residence. This is based on the author's claim that being in the possession of nationality will not unable a person to acquire political rights; citizenship, on the other hand, will grant a person all political rights.

In this paper, nationality and citizenship are treated as different terms. Understandably, nationality cannot be categorically separated from citizenship as well as the nation cannot be separated from the state. However, the essence of the nationality is its personal connection to the nation and belonging to the national community, which occurs not from political laws of the state, but the national culture, customs, etc. The nation is considered to be the basis of nationality. Authors frequently mention culture, history, language, traditions, race as well as territory, politics and economy. All these aspects form the nation (H. R. Isaacs, 2001).

The nation is characterized by concentration of persons, mutual understanding and united actions which can unite people who can improve the quality of the nation, various parts of the state (religion, science, art, etc.) Nationality or individuality of the nation depends on these conditions. However, Stasys Šalkauskis (1991) marks that nationality is not related to various signs of nations, which are necessary for their expression. For example, the language which reflects nationality the best "is not necessarily a quality necessary for the nation. It is true, however, that the lack of national language makes the contents of the nationality poorer and less defined; nevertheless, it would be unjustifiable to insist on the lack of nationality altogether" (Šalkauskis, 1991, p. 66). The philosopher claims that neither manifestation of life of a concentrated (group of people) society is a necessary quality for the nationality. It means that even considering specific manifestations of the nation, it is impossible to draw full definition, which would apply to Jews, Swiss and other nations (Šalkauskis, 1991). Šalkauskis, who analyzed the essence of nationality, claims that the nation are maintained by the nationality as the personalities are maintained by a person; however, both arise from the individuality of the entity. However, the nation is a collective or concentrated individual. The philosopher found highly close connection between the personality and the nationality. He marked that nationality is like a circle surrounding the individual, "supplementing one's personal existence and providing him/her with necessary conditions to full-fledged life" (Šalkauskis, 1991, p. 65). These are uninterruptible connections which relate the nation with the individual.

According to Šalkauskis (1991), the nation and its constituting factors serve for the development of personality. The final aim of each concentrated group or organization is the full thriving of a person. It helps to create a full-fledged individual. However, some organizations are based on a natural action and the other ones are created artificially. However, the nations organize themselves on the natural basis and "constitutes direct conditions for the development of the full human being.

Antanas Maceina states that the national individuality is determined by the man and his/her nature. However, the nature must be assisted by the culture. "An individual has in itself the essence of national individuality; s/he is its carrier and support" (1991, p. 46). Development of culture is followed by the development of the prominence of the nation as an entity and as an individual. According to Maceina (1991), the process of the nation becoming more prominent is the improvement of national individuality. Historical destiny is the factor that makes the nation prominent.

Therefore, the nationality, i.e. dentification of oneself with a certain community or a nation is a significant element in the construction of the national identity. This work is based on the main components of national identity introduced by Herskovits (1948) and Huntington (1996). According to this structure, the national identity consists of the belief structure, which describes religious beliefs, religious activity related to national participation and unity; national heritage, which reflects feelings and unique history of culture, historical figures, historic events, etc.; ethnocentrism as greater appreciation and worshipping of one's own culture; dedication to the nation; cultural homogeneity is the culture unifying the members of the nation.

In this case, subcultures within the national boundaries have the opposite connection to the power of the national identity (Bruce D. Keillor, G. Tomas M. Hult, 1998). Involvement to activities which identify people as members of the nation.

Research methodology

Sample and organization of research. Empirical qualitative research conducted from the end of 2013 to the beginning of 2014 with ninth and tenth graders in Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Poland and Belarus. For the content analysis in this work, ninth graders and tenth graders of Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, Belarus and Poland were selected. The research sample: Lithuania (12 ninth graders; 13 tenth graders); Poland (15 ninth graders; 14 tenth graders); Belarus (4 ninth graders; 5 tenth graders). The instrument was an essay. The students had the topic provided which was "The formation of my national identity" together with key propositions, considering which, the students had to write their paper. One of the key terms was "What does being a Lithuanian (Pole, Belarusian, etc.) mean to me?" The aim of this research was to reveal the attitude, relation to the nationality, the importance of nationality to the respondent (the person himself/herself must realize the truth "self", which is considered to be the essence of identity).

Analyzing the research data on the basis of the structural components of national identity (Herskovits, 1948; Huntington, 1996), the following categories were determined: 1) national heritage; 2) ethnocentrism; 3) cultural homogeneity; 4) belief structure. Categorization depends on the answers of each group of respondents.

Research results

Relation of Lithuanian ninth and tenth graders in Lithuanian schools to their nationality

Table 1

Category	Sub-category	Confirming statement
National heritage	Pride in the Achievements and culture of the Homeland	"This status makes me proud of the best Lithuanian basketball, a wonderful Olympic champion, delicious traditional food and our history of recovering independence" (n=5).
Ethnocentrism	Patriotic dedication to the nation	"In my opinion, being a Lithuanian means to be dedicated to your homeland Lithuania. It means doing everything for it" (2).
Cultural homogeneity	Pride in one's nationality	"Being a Lithuanian for me means having Lithuanian identity, living here and being proud of it" (n=6).
	Honor	"In my opinion, being Lithuanian is a great honor…" (n=4).
	Sense of community	"We are living in the country, where Lithuanians constitute the largest part of inhabitants; the country itself is Lithuanian after all."
	Origins in the Homeland	"Being a Lithuanian means that I was born in Lithuania" (n=2).

		"I was born in Lithuania and it means a lot to me; I grew up in here, here I learned a lot and started understanding things. I could not imagine myself speaking in a different language or living in a different country. The word Lithuania brings a lot of memories to mind."
	Fostering culture (mother tongue, traditions, etc.)	"…speaking Lithuanian, creating and following Lithuanian traditions" (n=6).
	Life in Homeland	"Being a Lithuanian to me means living in Lithuania…" (n=2).
	Attending Lithuanian school	„attending Lithuanian school"
	Negative assessment of nationality	"Being a Lithuanian is not such a grand thing because the country is collapsing due to economic problems and the response from other countries is not good as well. I simply know who I am. But of course I would like not to be a Lithuanian" (n=3).
	Indifference to the nation	"Being a Lithuanian is not as different as being a member of a different country. Each country has its advantages and disadvantages; therefore, it cannot be said that by being a citizen of a certain country I am making you ashamed of it" (n=4).

Analysis of data retrieved from the research with Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Lithuania shows that cultural homogeneity is the category that was distinguished the most. This component is further divided into subcategories. It is evident that these six respondents perceive nationality as the process of fostering culture (traditions, customs and mother tongue), five respondents mark the pride in their nationality and four students consider nationality as an honor they received. However, four students state that being Lithuanians does not mean anything to them; this reveals their indifference to the nation.

The other category, national heritage, reveals the state of being proud of the achievements and culture of one's Homeland. This is mentioned by six respondents.

Ethnocentricity is described as patriotic dedication to the nation, which was selected by two students. Summarizing, it can be said that for this group of respondents, nationality is a part of cultural homogeneity and cultural uniqueness; however, nationality evokes negative feelings or indifference for five respondents.

Relation of Lithuanian ninth and tenth graders attending Lithuanian schools in Poland to their nationality

Table 2

Category	Sub-category	Confirming statement
National heritage	Pride in the Achievements and culture of the Homeland	"To me, Lithuanian origins and history are very important. I really love to come here"; "one must be proud of Lithuanian language, since it is one of the oldest surviving languages".
	Respect to the homeland and its heritage	"It means that I respect my nationality, hymn and traditions. In my opinion, being Lithuanian now means respecting the country and loving and not forgetting it. Being a Lithuanian means respecting its mother tongue". (3)
Belief system	Religious activity	"I go to church every Sunday. Here, Lithuanian mass is held"
Ethnocentrism	Patriotic dedication to the country	"Being a Lithuanian means supporting Lithuanian sportsmen" (2); "Being a Lithuanian to me means being a patriot" (6).

Cultural homogeneity	Pride in one's nationality	"Being a Lithuanian in Poland means a lot to me. I am proud of who I am and I do not want to be a different person" (4).
	Honor	Being a Lithuanian is a great honor and pride. Being a Lithuanian is an honor.
	Sense of community	"Being a Lithuanian or a Pole means a lot because I can communicate with others"
	Origin in the Homeland	"Being a Lithuanian means a lot because it is my home nation."
	Fostering culture (mother tongue, traditions, etc.)	"Being a Lithuanian means celebrating its occasions and following its traditions. Being Lithuanian is very important, especially cherishing its language so it would not disappear. It is as if honoring the works of our ancestors, who fought for Lithuanian language" (19).
	Positive feelings towards the nationality	"Being a Lithuanian means a lot to me. I am happy because this is my nationality. In my heart, I always feel ove for Lithuania, which I received from my parents" (7).
	The historic importance of continuity of nationality	"To me, being a Lithuanian means everything. I received my character traits determining my national identity from my grandparents".
	Negative influence of other countries	"To me, being a Lithuanian is very difficult at the moment because I live in Poland and it changes everything. Every day now I have to speak not only in Lithuanian, but also Polish and English …"
	Indifference to the nation	"At the moment being a Lithuanian to me means living next to it, behind its border. I would not want to move to Lithuania because here I would have to leave my friends and family."

The attitude of Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian school in Poland to the nationality encompasses all four components of national identity. As in the cases of Lithuanian schools in Lithuania, a prominent category is that of cultural homogeneity, in which involvement to the activity fostering cultural activities becomes evident (n=19). Therefore, nationality as a part of cultural uniqueness triggers positive feelings (n=7) and makes people proud of it (n=4).

The other category is cultural heritage which for Lithuanian students living in Poland means the respect for the Homeland, its heritage (n=3); pride in the achievements and culture of Homeland (n=1).

The analysis of data distinguished the category of ethnocentrism, which reveals the subcategory of patriotic dedication to the nation (n=8).

It is noteworthy that in this group of respondents, the component of belief structure has been distinguished, where one student related being Lithuanian to religious activity (n=1).

Relation of Lithuanian ninth and tenth graders attending Lithuanian schools in Belarus to their nationality

Table 3

Category	Sub-category	Confirming statement
Cultural homogeneity	Fostering culture (mother tongue, traditions, etc.)	"To speak Lithuanian and follow traditions" (9).
	Possibility to link one's future with the homeland	"I can study in Lithuania"(3).
	Participation in the life of the nation	"To have interest in Lithuanian life".

Since the sample of the group from Belarus was the smallest, it is believable that this factor had influence on narrower interpretation of the data. It has been noticed that Lithuanian students of Lithuanian schools in Belarus relate being Lithuanian to cultural homogeneity, when they can foster their mother tongue, traditions, customs, etc. (n=9). As opposed to the answers in other groups, three students from Belarus see actual possibilities to see their future in Lithuania. The involvement to the life of Lithuania is foreseen only by one respondent.

Conclusions

1. The analysis of theoretical material presupposes that the notion of nationality does not have a unified notion to this day. In the works of certain scholars, nationality and citizenship are treated as synonyms, thus, attributing political and legal meaning to the nationality. Other scholars emphasize that the essence of nationality is one's personal connection with the nation, belonging to the national community, occurring not from political laws of the state but the culture and customs of the nation, etc. Nationality is one of the main constituents of the national identity.

2. Research data revealed that the attitude of Lithuanian students attending Lithuanian schools in Poland to their nationality encompasses all four components of national identity, namely cultural homogeneity, ethnocentrism, national heritage and belief structure. The most prominent is the category of cultural homogeneity, which reveals involvement to the process of fostering culture the most. It is noteworthy that in the group of these respondents belief structure was revealed, when one student related being Lithuanian to religious activity.

3. The data analysis of research conducted in Lithuanian schools in Lithuania shows that the most prominent component is cultural homogeneity, when the fostering of cultural components (traditions, customs and mother tongue) is emphasized and pride in one's nationality is taken. However, nationality in the group of Lithuanian residents causes negative feelings or indifference as well.

4. The sample of students attending Lithuanian schools in Belarus was the smallest. The results of quantitative research show that students related the state of being Lithuanians to cultural homogeneity, when they can cherish their mother tongue, traditions, etc. also students see actual possibilities to see their future in their homeland, which in this case is Lithuania.

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Foreign-language influence on the morphological structure of dialects that were formed in the bilingual habitat

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to find out whether there have been changes in the morphological structure of some dialects of the Azerbaijani language in the bilingual environment. Investigated the internal structure of any language. The structurally agglutinative Turkic languages, the segment force of which is vowel harmony, are more resistant to change than internally changing inflected languages . But some dialects were formed and developed in the bilingual and even polylingual environment. But does fairly close proximity to the morphological system of any dialect. The study shows the conservatism of the Turkic languages to some extent associated with agglutinative systems. In every language morphological structure and phonetic laws are interrelated and determine each other. Research shows foreign-language influence on morphological structure of dialects, it is first necessary to clarify whether there is influence in the phonetic level. Agglutination and vowel harmony always predetermined internal resistance of the Turkic languages .

Key words: dialects, investigate, morphological

Introduction

It is known that dialects are the most unique event in the language, the reasons of emerging of which still produces different thinking on the part of scientists. All reflections, despite their dissimilarity, give logical conclusion. Dialects were formed by localization of tribal languages in some areas, while preserving the ancient conservative elements. It should be noted that some tribes were often localized in the neighborhood of unrelated tribes. This, of course, led to the development of this dialect in the bilingual environment. Mutual borrowing of lexical units itself is evident in languages, especially neighboring. As culture of the peoples is both historical and social phenomenon. Finding its origins in the most remote places of early maturation of each ethnic group, the culture in its development absorbed all non-alien, doing it own very harmoniously.

For example, all people, once neighboring Turkic tribes, took from the ancient Turks the method of cooking dolma or yogurt. Quite frankly, these people consider these cultural phenomena own, without even knowing about it borrowed nature and not guessing about the origin of these lexical units. Whereas the ancient Turks well mastered processing of dairy products, divided the sour milk in fat (йогурт от слова йог//йаг-жир, масло) and not fatty- ayran (seceded). Or take, for example, culinary arts of cooking dolma (filled). The name of dish itself speaks on the process of cooking. Ethno-linguistic analysis of the names of dishes shows that the name of the dishes in the lexicon of ancient Turks is formed according to the process of cooking. Moreover, these names include both the process and the state. There are many examples: buglama (steam and fresh), khashlama (stewing and brewing), demleme (brew and brewing), basdirma. The material collected from the dialects give hundreds of examples.

The same thing can be said about the opposite influence. Some names of the dishes in the Azerbaijani dialects were obtained from neighboring languages. For example, names such dishes as cikhirtma, alsoqulakh and others from Georgian, surfili from languages of the Caucasian peoples.

In such Azerbaijani dialects as Gakh, Sheki, Guba, Kusar the ancient Turkic elements preserved much stronger than in other dialects and sub-dialects of Azerbaijan. Why is that? After all these dialects developed not only in the bilingual but even in semi linguistic environment. We know from history that such ancient Turkic tribes as the Khazars, Pechenegs, Sabirs and others appeared in the North Caucasus in the early centuries of our era. For many centuries, these Turkic tribes were located in these regions. Cultural and linguistic ties occurring in these regions, reflected primarily on vocabulary. Generally, we can say that the vocabulary of above-mentioned dialects can be divided into two parts: the ancient Turkic and vocabulary borrowed from the language of the Caucasian peoples.

Method

To thoroughly investigate this research question, was used a comparative-historical, comparative and statistical methods.

Materials

The study was conducted in the various dialects of the Azerbaijani language. The main accomplice served "Dialectological dictionary Azerbaijani language." (İnstitutu, 2003)

Survey was carried out among different dialects by Azerbaijan. Many words used by the older generation,   representatives are not clear under 50 years. Vocabulary covered all povdenevnuyu life.

Procedure

Firstly, the survey and the study was approved by the Division of dialectology and language history of the National Academy of Sciences of Azerbaijan. Then as it was approved in the main workshop of the Institute.

Results

The matter is fact, that the scientific importance of this issue is that the findings made in the course of the study can be applied the study of intercultural and linguistic facts, as well as dialects. The study revealed the following findings: a large number of mutual lexical borrowing, especially in the field of culture, some influence on foreign language phonetics of Azerbaijani language dialects, but any change in the grammatical structure of dialects has not been found.

Foreign-language influence on the formation of dialects

Same definitely can be said about phonetics dialects. Culture and language are interconnected and it can be said even that in some dialogue. Saussure also notes that ethnicity, language and culture are interrelated and linguistics is in contact with ethnology, that is, all these links that exist between the history of race and ethnicity and history of language are reflected in its language and this in turn generates a nation. (Соссюр, 1999, 28)

We think that it is difficult not to agree with Saussure. Culture of a nation is reflected in its language, which like a mirror reflects the history of the ethnic group. Words of M.Shiraliyev about differentiation of dialects confirm our idea:

 But when determining dialect system of Azerbaijani language it is not enough to come from one territorial or structural commonality or level of understanding of speakers of dialects or dialects. We must also consider the cultural and historical circumstances. (Ширалиев, 1983, 6)

As we said, the vocabulary is the first tier of language, which primarily responds to any extralinguistic events. Phonetic tier albeit slowly, but also reflects the changes. Do the changes in the phonetic tier impact on tier morphological? Famous linguist Sapir affecting theme interconnectedness of phonetic and morphological processes noted:

 Inflected language like Latin or Greek, uses the fusion method and this fusion is inherent both as internal psychological and as well as external phonetic significance (Сепир, 1934, 106)

We think that it depends on how these changes deeply affect phonetic layer. If the matter is a phonetic transition that progress in any language, it is unlikely that they somehow affect the morphology. But phonetic laws, such as vowel harmony directly related to the morphological structure of the language, i.e. agglutination. Many linguists touched this topic. For example, Baudouin de Courtenay noted that vowel harmony is used as a means of derivational morphology. He is also looking for a vowel harmony in the morphological structure of the Ural-Altaic languages. (Kurtene, 2014, 102)

This hypothesis is supported by other scientists later. Russian linguist Vinagradov writes that the only vowel harmony in Turkic languages acts as forming of phonological structure of language. He notes:

All languages of the world consist of words and in all languages the words are not intertwined. In every language the word integrity is observed in different ways. All of these methods we name accent of words. The accent is not equivalent to emphasis. We name the accent all prosodic means which form the word A and distinguish it from the word B. The main prosodic means we can call emphasis and vowel harmony ... (Винаградов, 1970, 116)

Vinogradov also notes that vowel harmony not accidentally acts as a segment force in the Turkic languages. .. As a result, vowel harmony causes conservation of axial paradigm. Thus, structural bonds appear in two levels (Винаградов, 1970)

On this occasion Reformatsky writes: Vowel harmony is a super segmental force, and it acts on integrity. As a fundamental structural event it affects not only the phonetic tier, but morphological tier, too. (Реформатский, 1970, 106)

Sapir also thought the morphological differentiation of the main languages of their hallmark:

... We can say that all languages are different from each other, but some differ significantly more than others, and this is tantamount to saying that it is possible to ungroup them morphologically. (Сепир, 1934, 94)

Shiraliyev however notes that in some Azerbaijani dialects and patios sometimes one feels the influence of other languages and this also applies to lexical and morphological formation.

But he does not bring the credible evidence to support the presence of foreign-language influence on the grammatical structure of the Azerbaijani language and its dialects.(говоры)_ The author gives examples of violation of the principle of integrity and uniformity of the root in the northern and eastern dialect groups. For example: ata-atan-atouz; mən-mə:; sən-sə :: other. (Ширалиев, 1983, 66)

But as we can see from the examples, it is not a violation of the integrity of the root but the principle of labialization that is inherent in all Turkic languages of Kipchak group. These changes can not affect the structure of the language. Labialization and de-labialization are phonetic phenomena that occur in all Turkic languages. However, here we can talk about some fusion. On rare fusion, occurring in dialect of Azerbaijani language, we will talk later below.

We appealed to the facts of Derbent dialect of Azerbaijani langauge. As it is known Derbent is the main city of Dagestan Federal Republic. That is, this dialect of Azerbaijani language is completely surrounded by Avar and other languages of the North Caucasus. Anyway, this dialect is also somewhat isolated from the literary Azerbaijani language. We think that the studied dialect can clearly display how real is the foreign-language impact on morphological structure of dialects being in the bilingual environment. According to our survey, we found that the word-formative process involves not only affixes similar to literary Azerbaijani language, but also the ancient Turkic morphemes that have long fallen into disuse in the literary language. For example, affixes such as –ığ\ig\üg; -ag\əg\eg; -çağ;-i\ı\u\ü; are consistent with affixes of literary language. (İnstitutu, 2009, 44) Here, for example, the affix m\üm corresponds to affix n\ün of literary language. Alternation of phonemes m//n characteristic for phonology of all Turkic languages. As for the affix-an (biç-an, ağart-an), which is not found in the Azerbaijani literary language now, then this affix Sevortyan noted its antiquity, particular spreading in the Kipchak group of Turkic languages. (Севортян, 1966 , 322)

Another ancient affix actively serving in the word-formative process of Derbent dialect is mac \ maş \ bac. (İnstitutu, 2009, 44). This affix also bears traces of ancient Turkic language. Demirchizade, having explored the ancient epic "Kitabi Dede Korkut, " especially notes the given affix. (Dəmirçizadə, 1959 66)

We have to note also that these ancient affixes have their parallels in other Turkic languages. According to our estimates, more than a dozen affixes involved in word-formative dialect, refers specifically to ancient stratum of Turkic language.

As we can see, foreign language influence on derivation process in the Derbent dialect of Azerbaijani language is not observed. Conversely, some isolation from the literary language helped to preserve the most ancient elements in dialect. Researcher of Azerbaijani language dialects being in semi-linguistic environment, such as Guba-Derbent dialects Kubra Guliyeva in the conclusion of her research leads to the following conclusions:

Descriptive, comparative historical and etymological analysis of facts once again demonstrated that the possibility of preserving by dialects and sub-dialects ancient the phonetic, grammatical and lexical elements in strange environment of other language, its purity of specifics are limitless. These dialects and sub-dialects, being in a foreign environment, to a certain extent are isolated from the development of the literary language, such as dialects and sub-dialects of Azerbaijani language in the territory of Dagestan FR, Georgia. (Кубра, 2007, 135)

The same opinion is shared by the authors of the monograph. (İnstitutu, 2009)

We continued to study and refereed to grammatical suffixes. As is known, there are six cases in the literary Azerbaijani language. Derbent dialect also has six cases. In practice, except for some phonetic transitions the suffixes of cases coincide with the literary one. But expressing fractional numbers, the locative case acts instead of the original case. N.Dmitriyev thought that it was the result of the historical process in the language. He considered the original case as secondary and the locative case primary. (Дмитриев, 1940, 74-75)

Sometimes, in this dialect dative case acts instead of local and original cases. This property has been registered in some other dialects and in the ancient epic "Dede Korkut» (Dəmirçizadə, 1959, 295).

Tables

Remarkably, in this region, with the predicate expression the analytical way is used. For example:

literary language	Derbent dialect
Evdiniz(öydəsiniz)-	öydə varsuz
Ağzındadır	agzında var
gəl	gələ var

The same trend can be seen in the Borchali dialect of Azerbaijani language. This dialect is also on the territory of Georgia and of course, to some extent isolated from the literary Azerbaijani language. As Derbent dialect Borchali dialect is also surrounded by foreign language, in this case the Georgian language. But both dialects in this case, i.e., in the case of predicative expressions analytically, represent one of the most ancient syntax ways of the ancient Turkic language. As correctly noted by Sapir:

"Language changes not only gradually, but steadily, it unknowingly moves from one type to another. (Сепир, 1934, 95)

Of course, the above quotes by Kubra Guliyeva that isolated dialects from the literary language are less exposed to the influence of literary and logically, they longer retain ancient elements, are quite justified. We think that the words of the famous linguist Sapir most accurately express the situation:

"It's as if the situation is that in which something pluperfect era of irresponsible mind of tribe made hastily inventory of their experience, confided this precocious classification that does not permit review and gave the heirs of their language the knowledge. In that, they have ceased to believe, but which they cannot overturn. Dogma, attributed by tradition to a steady performance, become ossified formalism. "(Сепир, 1934)

So, based on the findings arising from the research of the dialects of Azerbaijani language, especially those dialects, which in one way or another are in the bilingual habitat, it can be argued that the impact of foreign language on grammatical structure of dialects was not found. However, in the literature we can find such statements that in Derbend dialect most visual elements of Kipchak dialect are associated with the effect of Kumyk language, the closest dialect, on this dialect. (İnstitutu, 2009)

 Kumyk language, however, included in the Kipchak group of Turkic languages. But carefully researching the history of the area, it appears that such ancient Turkic tribes like the Khazars, Pechenegs, Sabirs and others appeared in the North Caucasus in the early centuries of our era. (Артамонов, 1962)

That is, formation of Derbent dialect of Azerbaijani language and Kumyk language proceeded to independently from each other.

 As for some fusion, rarely seen in the dialects can be explained otherwise.

 Sapir wrote on this subject:

"however, the presence of fusion does not seem sufficiently clear indication of inflectional process ... our mind requires a fulcrum. If it cannot bear on individual formative elements, it more resolutely endeavor to reach the whole word as a whole. Such a word, goodness illustrates agglutination, books - regular fusion, depth - irregular fusion, gees - symbolic fusion (Сепир, 1934, 104)

The fact that many dialects are the main repository, even one can say treasury of the prehistoric elements of any language. Whatever cannot be found in the written records, can be found in the dialects and sub-dialects carefully investigated. For example, many of the facts of the dialects and sub-dialects of the Azerbaijani language in the comparative analysis find its analogy in other Turkic languages, at first glance, which seem so far away in the distance. It is known that the differentiation between the dialects and sub-dialects of different languages manifests itself in varying degrees depending on the language. In fact, sometimes, even the distance plays a smallest role in differentiation. As distant from each other in a larger distance than the same German dialects and sub-dialects, the independent Turkic languages differ from each other least. We think that the factors contributing to this situation primarily are divided into two basic camps, which are interconnected and define each other. The first principle is linguistic, that is the mater is the internal structure of any language. Turkic languages being agglutinative in its structure, the segment force of which is vowel harmony, are more resistant to change than internally

changing inflected languages. This determines the interconnectedness of Turkic languages among themselves and particularly between their dialects in separate.

But some dialects were formed and developed in the bilingual and even polylingual environment. That, of course, contributed adstrate and substrate in these dialects. We have already mentioned that the conservatism of the Turkic languages, in some extent is associated with agglutinative systems. According to our firm belief, in every language morphological structure and phonetic laws are interrelated and determine each other. In other words, vowel harmony of Turkic languages is directly linked to the agglutination. Many well-known linguists and specialists in Turkic philology in particular had reports on this issue.

We think that inter-level communication in language is tightly linked. Agglutination and vowel harmony always predetermined internal firmness of the Turkic languages.

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USING TECHNOLOGY AGAINST THEFT AND FORGERY OF CULTURAL HERITAGE GOODS

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to evaluate problems of museums and collectors that buy cultural heritage objects from individuals without asking a certificate of authenticity. Keeping collection of museums authentic is going to be more difficult because of developed replication technologies used by forgers who want to sell fake objects to museums and collectors. Moreover because of ill intended museum personnel who want to replace authentic objects with fake. In order to overcome such problems, it is necessary to get chemical composition of cultural heritage objects. Cultural heritage objects are sensitive and unique so the technique that is going to be used in analysis of such objects must be non-invasive. Portable Energy Dispersive X-Ray Florescence (P-EDXRF) lets scientists analyze cultural heritage in a non-destructive way. Determination of chemical composition of objects in quite short times such as 30 seconds per analysis) and seeing qualitative and quantitative results simultaneously is possible. Results of P-EDXRF can be used in determination of authenticity, provenance studies, getting information about production technology of analyzed objects and for restoration purposes. Moreover, P-EDXRF lets scientist make multiple analyzes, especially from big objects as it is non-invasive, fast and cheap. Besides, due to spectrometers being as light as 2 kg, it is portable and enables in situ analyses in museums or wherever objects are being kept. Characterization of cultural objects let museums keep chemical composition of objects in the inventory books. Chemical composition of object would act as the fingerprint of the objects. Therefore P-EDXRF results can be used to determine if an authentic object in the collection was changed with a fake one or not. These can be done by comparing new chemical composition of suspected existing cultural heritage objects and chemical composition that record in inventory book. Moreover in case of a museum robbery, recorded analysis results of stolen objects can be used to prove authenticity of recovered items. Majority of the time, after museum robberies fakes of stolen objects are made by forgers and are tried to be sold to collectors or museums. P-EDXRF also used for restoration with the aim of detecting the chemical composition of the artifact. In authenticity studies SEM-EDX also is widely used to determine chemical composition and matrix morphology of the objects.

Key words: Cultural heritage, Museums collections, Portable X Ray Florescence, Authenticity, Counterfeit

Introduction

Production of fake objects started in Renaissance Era (16th century AD) in Padua, Italy. The Italian Renaissance saw a widespread revival of interest in the classical world, Greek and Roman. Desire for Greek and Roman artifacts fed market not only for items of antiquity, but for contemporary creations based on ancient themes. Almost as quickly as this desire emerged, forgeries of antiquities and coins were produced to feed the market. As early as 1555 AD the Italian Numismatist Enea Vico included a section on the issue of forgeries in his book named "Discorsi sopra le Medaglie degli Antichi". The warnings of Vico read much like the warnings one might hear today about re-engraving or tooling cast, modern die struck specimens etc. (Sayles 2000).

As the world became increasingly scientific in the 17th and 18th centuries, the nature of forgeries changed. The rise of specialization during this period presented to forgers of the day an irresistible challenge. For the first time in the long history of making fakes, a conscious effort was made to produce items specifically for collectors' consumptions (Sayles 2000).

In the post renaissance, the challenge between forger and collector was really begun. For this period an important article was published by Spier and Kagan (2000), related with famous forgery of ancient coins in eighteenth century Rome. Forgers of the 19th century may not have had access to all of the technological aids that exist today. But anyhow they produced remarkable works. Even today, fakes that were made a century ago are being discovered (Sayles 2000).

The most notable change in the nature of forgeries during the 20th century was the use of advanced technology to make precision copies of cultural heritage objects.

Due to the advances in replication technology, the situation became more complex in the 21th century. Because fake objects started to be sold directly to the museums and collectors. Beside this, authentic objects of museum collections started to be replaced with fakes.

In Turkey and other alike countries, authenticity certificate is not requested when buying cultural heritage goods. Authenticity checks made only by visual inspection is not enough for 21th century replication technology. In USA and many EU countries there are companies that issues certificate of authenticity for cultural heritage materials.

Fakes of metal objects and paintings are more commonly made mostly because they cannot be directly dated. Baked clay and organic material can be dated with radiocarbon and thermoluminescence dating techniques (Aitken 1985; Taylor 1987). Therefore fakes of these objects are found less than metals and paintings.

In the all developed countries non-invasive archaeometric techniques are commonly used to determine authenticity of cultural heritage objects (Hida et al. 2007; Pauna 2010).

Chemical composition of artifacts can be accepted as the fingerprint of these objects. This can be obtained by non-invasive archaeometric techniques and result of analyses can be recorded in the inventory notebooks. In case of any suspicious situations where authentic object could be replaced with a fake one, analyses can be done on the said objects and results can be compared with the recorded fingerprint and the problem can be solved.

In 1996 a very precious object, golden winged seahorse brooch dating to the Lydian Age hosted by the museum Uşak, Turkey was replaced with a fake one by the manager of the museum, and was later tried to be sold for €2 500 000. Authenticity of the replaced fake winged seahorse was questioned for a long time and at the end it was understood that the original artefact was replaced with a fake one while the authentic was stolen. Beside this case, many paintings from the Ankara State Museum of Paintings and Sculptures (Turkey)are suspected to have been replaced with fakes. But their authenticity or lack thereof could not be proven yet. All of these problems could be solved in a timely manner if the objects were analyzed and their chemical compositions were recorded.

Because trade of cultural heritage is forbidden within and outside of the Turkey and similar countries, individuals sell any cultural heritage objects found to museums and collectors. But this situation is also an opportunity for forgers who wish to sell fake objects. By using non-invasive archaeometrical methods against forgery, museums and collectors can get ahead of new reproduction technologies and protect the authenticity of their collections.

Method

Material and Method

Cultural heritage objects are rare and sensitive so their analysis should be non-invasive. The most common non-invasive technique used in analyses of cultural heritage objects is Energy dispersive X-Ray Florescence Spectrometer (P-EDXRF). This technique allow scientists to analyze objects without removing pieces from object (non-invasive), and in situ analysis is possible because the spectrometer (Figure 1) is portable (with a weight of 2 kg), multiple analysis from same object is possible because of it is non-invasive and analysis results can be obtained within 30 to 60 seconds (Ardid et. al. 2004; Hida et. al.2007). Results of P-EDXRF are given as qualitative and quantitative with a detection limit of 10-50 per particle million (ppm). It is also possible to get spectrums of analysis from the spectrometer.

Figure 1: Omega, Portable Energy Dispersive X-Ray Florescence (P-EDXRF) Spectrometer

By using P-EDXRF, chemical fingerprint of cultural heritage objects made of precious metal alloys, clay, paint layers and marble/stone can be determined. Therefore using P-EDXRF became a popular technique in the analysis of cultural heritage objects.

P-EDXRF spectrometer can be used for deciding on the pre-restoration strategy of intervention on the artifact to be restored with the aim of detecting the chemical composition of the artifact. It is also used often for recording the changes on the chemical composition of the artifact during restoration so that analysis mostly done before and after restoration.

Keeping Collections Authentic

There are two major risks that threat collections; first of these threats is obtaining fake objects and the second is replacement of an authentic object belonging to the collection with a fake one.

Protection of Collections from Fake Objects

Museums collections contain very precious and rare objects. Therefore their authenticity should be protected from fake objects which have low artistic value. Furthermore, usually not even their material is as precious as their originals.

Baked clay objects can be dated by using luminance dating techniques (Aitken 1985). Organic objects can be dated by using radiocarbon dating (Taylor 1987). However metal objects and paintings cannot be directly dated therefore the difference in their manufacture technology compared to the authentic objects can be used to determine their authenticity.

Ore processing techniques leave many traces behind. Through chemical composition determination of metal objects, these traces can be followed. In order to evaluate analysis results, scientists should have enough data from both fake and authentic objects, so a comparison of the analysis results is possible.

Silver objects

By using P-EDXRF silver coins of known authenticity obtained from excavation were analyzed in order to use their results as reference. Beside these, data, from many articles and books can be used as reference material for silver coins in order to evaluate major and minor elements from the data belonging to coins of suspected authenticity (Walker 1976; 1979; Aydin 2013; Fleming 1975).

Coins from Roman Imperial Age that have been tried to be sold to the Erzurum/Turkey Museum have aroused suspicions. After analysis of the suspicious coins of Vespasian (69-79 A.D.), Hadrian (117-138 A.D.), Severus Alexander (222-235 A.D.), Gordian II (238 A.D.) and Marcia Otacilla Severa (244-249 A.D.) were carried out, results were compared with that of authentic silver coins coming from excavation (Table 1). Interpretation of analysis results of Vespasian, Severus Alexander, Gordian II and Otacilla Severa were quite simple because the chemical composition of coins turned out to be too far from authentic coins'. Chemical composition of these coins mainly should be silver (Ag) but analysis results clearly show that the coins were made of Copper (Cu), Nickel (Ni) and Zink (Zn) alloy. This alloy is sometimes called German silver and is commonly used in todays metallurgy and production of fake silver coins and other objects as nickelprovides a color close to the sense of silver (Gürü & Yalçın 2012).

Figure 2: Fake coin of Marcia Otacilla Severa (left) and Vespasian (right) made of German silver

Suspicious coins of Hadrian made of silver and average main element silver (Ag) is 97% which nearly overlaps with average 95% Ag of authentic Hadrian silver coins. However minor elements Bismuth (Bi) and Lead (Pb) of these Hadrian coins are far from authentic silver coins' results (Table 1). 90% of authentic silver coins including Bi and not none of authentic silver coin including lead (Pb) fewer than 0, 005 % (Aydin 2013; Fleming 1975). Therefore suspicious Hadrian coins are also fake.

Figure 3: Fake coin of Hadrian made of silver (Ag)

Gold Coins

By using same methodology that was used for silver coins, authenticity of gold coins can also be determined. Beside this, in order to determine authenticity of gold coins and objects it is necessary to know modern gold chemical composition/fingerprint. Because qualitative and quantitative results of modern gold help us to interpret results of suspicious gold coins/objects (Aydın & Mutlu 2012).

Suspicious coins dated to Byzantium Age was tried to be sold to a collector in Ankara/Turkey. In order to determine their authenticity modern gold (Table 2) and suspicious coins (Table 2) were analyzed by using P-EDXRF. Authentic coins coming from excavation and belonging to the same emperor with the suspicious coins were also analyzed with same EDXRF (Table 2). Result of modern gold, suspicious coins and authentic coins were compared and evaluated.

Major elements of suspicious coins dated to Maurice Tiberius period have average Au 81, 77% and Ag 8, 02%. Authentic coins of same emperor have 98, 88% Au and 1, 58% Ag. Major elements of suspicious and authentic coins are far from each other (Table 2). Purity of the coins are determined by the authority in antiquity, so chemical composition do not tend to change within the emperor's period so much.

Figure 4: Fake coin (left Inv. No 5) and authentic coin (right Inv. 2-1) of Maurice Tiberius

Minor elements of suspicious coins (Table 2) and modern gold (Table 3) have similarity in terms of Zinc (Zn) and Molybdenum (Mo). Suspicious coins' average values for Mo 0, 029% and Zn 0, 22% are very close to the minor elements of modern coins Zn 0, 14% and Mo 0, 017%.

When the results of chemical fingerprint of suspicious gold coins, authentic gold coins and modern gold are evaluated; suspicious gold coins of Maurice Tiberius are counterfeit with high probability, in terms of major and minor elements (Table 2 and Table 3).

Recording of Chemical Fingerprint of Cultural Heritage Objects Against Replacement of Fake Objects with Authentic Objects

Police applications can be taken as example for this application. For security, fingerprints of people are taken and recorded. In case of a crime, records are compared with fingerprint taken from crime area.

The situation is same for cultural heritage. Chemical fingerprints of cultural heritage objects must be determined and recorded in secure places. If analysis are made from big objects, the analysis location should be identified

on photos (Figure 5), all minor and major elements should be recorded (Table 4) including spectrum of analysis and properties of spectrometer.

In case of any suspected situation where authentic objects could be replaced with a fake, chemical fingerprint of suspicious objects can be determined and compared with recorded analysis result of authentic object. Analysis of suspected artefact must be done with same spectrometer or with a spectrometer that has the same properties. If the recorded and new analysis results are very far from each other and their spectrums support this it is clear that the object have been replaced with fake one.
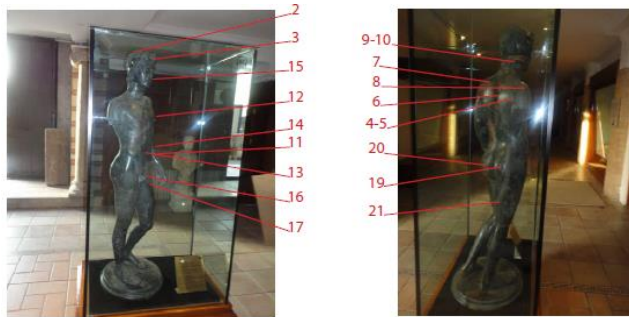
Figure 5: P-EDXRF analysis places from different points of sculpture

Another benefit of recording analysis results of cultural heritage objects is using these results when police recovers stolen objects. In order to prove that the found object is in fact the stolen object, analysis results can be used. This is because after famous objects are stolen from museums, fakes of them are introduced to the market. Therefore it is very difficult to prove if the found object is the stolen authentic one or not. This is one of the big issues that INTERPOL deals with.

Discussion/Conclusion

In 21st century depending to reproduction technology we meet examples of trade of fake artifacts to museums and collectors almost every day. Replacement of original artifacts with fake ones or stealing from museums is rare but possible. This situation can only be prevented thanks to the use of advanced spectrometers. Hence science laboratories should be established in museums and expert archaeometrists should be employed.

In order to determine authenticity of coins Scanning Electron Microscopy adopted with Energy Dispersive X-Ray (SEM-EDX) can also be used. As the liquid solidifies, Cu rich regions may form dendrites. If the alloy is freshly made, dendrites are stable. As time passes, Cu will diffuse into the alloy again. Because of SEM-EDX allows taking image and making analysis of dendrites and matrix of objects, we can determine if the alloy has been freshly made or not. SEM-EDX is a non-invasive technique for small objects around 3cm but bigger objects may not fit in the sample holder of SEM-EDX (Demortier 2003; Aydın 2013).

Non-invasive archaeometric techniques have important role in keeping collections authentic. These techniques protect collections from forgers and internal theft. Using of these techniques also help scientist to prove that the found object is the stolen one. This let museums to get their stolen objects back.

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Tables

Table 1: P-EDXRF analysis results of Suspicious and Authentic Silver coins.

Object	Analiysis Side	Ti	Fe	Ni	Cu	Zn	Zr	Mo	Ag	Pt	Pb	Bi	Results
Suspicious Vespasian Coin 1	Obverse	ND	0, 21	19, 77	69, 4	9, 93	ND	0, 023	ND	0, 041	0, 069	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Vespasian Coin 1	Reverse	ND	0, 16	19, 19	68, 7	11, 84	ND	0, 025	ND	0, 054	0, 057	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Vespasian Coin 2	Obverse	ND	0, 3	19, 8	67, 4	12, 33	ND	0, 027	ND	0, 045	0, 047	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Vespasian Coin 2	Reverse	ND	0, 19	19, 36	66, 9	13, 37	ND	0, 028	ND	0, 055	0, 036	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Hadrian Coin 1	Obverse	ND	0, 25	ND	1, 79	ND	ND	ND	97, 95	ND	0, 004	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver

Suspicious Hadrian Coin 2	Obverse	0, 4	0, 29	ND	1, 78	ND	ND	ND	97, 43	ND	0, 0041	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver
Suspicious Hadrian Coin 3	Obverse	ND	1, 09	ND	2, 1	ND	0, 01	ND	96, 67	ND	0, 0042	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver
Suspicious Hadrian Coin 4	Obverse	ND	0, 83	ND	1, 97	ND	0, 01	ND	97, 09	ND	0, 0042	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver
Suspicious Hadrian Coin 5	Obverse	0, 39	1, 37	ND	1, 67	ND	0, 05	ND	96, 26	ND	0, 0044	ND	Fake Made of Modern Silver
Suspicious Severus Alexander	Obverse	ND	0, 16	19, 28	65, 8	14, 45	ND	0, 026	ND	0, 049	ND	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Gordian II Coin	Obverse	ND	0, 16	19, 06	67, 4	13, 11	ND	ND	ND	ND	0, 029	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Otacilla Severa Coin 1	Obverse	ND	0, 17	20, 7	72, 4	6, 67	ND	0, 024	ND	ND	0, 014	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Suspicious Otacilla Severa Coin 2	Obverse	ND	0, 14	19, 77	65, 5	14, 38	ND	0, 03	ND	0, 057	0, 024	ND	Fake Made of German Silver
Authentic Vespasian Coin 1	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	3, 61	ND	ND	ND	95, 78	ND	0, 5687	0, 041	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Vespasian Coin 2	Obverse	ND	0, 05	ND	1, 84	ND	ND	ND	95, 94	ND	2, 0807	0, 082	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Vespasian Coin 3	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	2, 32	ND	ND	ND	96, 92	ND	0, 7095	0, 053	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Vespasian Coin 4	Obverse	ND	ND	ND	3, 36	ND	ND	ND	96, 32	ND	0, 2752	0, 045	Authentic From Excavation

	Face	Mn	Fe	Ni	Cu	Zn	Mo	Ag	Au	Pb	Bi	Weight	Diameter	Result
Authentic Vespasian Coin 5	Obver se	ND	0, 05	ND	3, 92	ND	ND	ND	95, 02	ND		0, 8566	0, 046	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 1	Obver se	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	95, 2	ND		0, 8265	0, 082	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 2	Obver se	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	97, 21	ND		0, 4531	0, 268	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 3	Obver se	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	96, 99	ND		0, 4485	0, 294	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 4	Obver se	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	96, 06	0, 044		1, 2554	0, 08	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 5	Obver se	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	93, 48	ND		1, 1265	0, 176	Authentic From Excavation
Authentic Hadrian Coin 6	Obver se	0, 3	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	92, 71	ND		1, 2646	0, 18	Authentic From Excavation

Table 2: Suspicious and Authentic gold coins of Maurice Tiberius

Inv. No	Empero r	Owner of coins	Analy . Face	M n	Fe	Ni	Cu	Zn	Mo	Ag	Au	Pb	Bi	Weigh t (g)	Diamete r (mm)	Result
5	Maurice Tiberius	Collecto r	Obv.	N D	0, 16	N D	9, 06	0, 23	0, 01 7	7, 73	82 , 66	0, 04	0, 11	1, 58	18	Fake
5	Maurice Tiberius	Collecto r	Rev.	N D	0, 8	0, 02	10 , 96	0, 25	0, 02 1	7, 94	79 , 79	0, 12	0, 11			Fake
6	Maurice Tiberius	Collecto r	Obv.	N D	0, 33	N D	6, 64	0, 19	0, 01 5	7, 91	84 , 77	0, 04	0, 11	1, 59	18	Fake
6	Maurice Tiberius	Collecto r	Rev.	N D	0, 17	N D	9, 12	0, 2	0, 02 7	8, 03	82 , 38	0, 56	0, 02			Fake
7	Maurice Tiberius	Collecto r	Obv.	N D	0, 12	N D	10 , 21	0, 22	0, 01 8	8, 09	81 , 17	0, 06	0, 11	1, 40	17	Fake

7	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,13	0,03	10,8	0,26	0,02	8	80,56	0,06	0,13			Fake
8	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,54	0,02	11,08	0,24	0,023	7,92	80,12	0,06	ND	1,62	18	Fake
8	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,72	0,02	9,63	0,32	0,019	8,12	81,19	0,08	ND			Fake
9	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,38	0,03	11,59	0,27	0,019	7,86	79,74	ND	0,11	1,62	18	Fake
9	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,32	ND	10,8	0,22	0,018	8	80,58	0,06	ND			Fake
10	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,086	0,03	6,69	0,19	0,015	8,26	84,7	0,04	ND	1,64	18	Fake
10	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,078	ND	8,35	0,21	0,12	8,49	82,82	0,04	ND			Fake
11	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,3	ND	11,26	0,24	0,19	8,05	80,07	0,06	ND	1,67	18	Fake
11	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	1	0,02	11,26	0,22	0,021	7,99	79,42	0,07	ND			Fake
12	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,44	ND	10,53	0,28	0,016	7,89	80,64	0,64	0,11	1,53	17,5	Fake
12	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,29	ND	8,54	0,22	0,016	8,31	82,58	0,03	ND			Fake
13	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,02	ND	7,98	0,02	0,017	7,88	83,66	0,04	ND	1,52	18	Fake
13	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	0,03	1,19	0,03	8,31	0,23	0,016	8,09	82,02	0,08	ND			Fake
14	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,11	0,02	11	0,23	0,024	8,08	80,49	0,06	ND	1,46	17	Fake
14	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,19	ND	9,46	0,22	0,021	8,01	82,05	0,05	ND			Fake
15	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	ND	0,02	6,43	0,15	0,012	7,99	85,23	0,05	0,12	1,58	18	Fake

15	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	0,33	0,039	0,03	6,45	0,21	0,013	8	85,16	0,03	ND			Fake
16	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Obv.	ND	0,32	0,02	10,65	0,26	0,012	7,95	80,73	0,06	ND	1,63	18	Fake
16	Maurice Tiberius	Collector	Rev.	ND	0,35	0,03	11,12	0,25	0,024	8,02	80,04	ND	0,12			Fake
		Avarage		0,18	0,35	0,02	9,49	0,22	0,029	8,02	81,77	0,1	0,1			
2-1	Maurice Tiberius	Museum	Obv.	ND	0,17	ND	0,36	ND	ND	1,58	97,9	ND	ND	2,24	21	Authentic
2-1	Maurice Tiberius	Museum	Rev.	ND	0,09	ND	0,34	ND	ND	1,58	97,99	ND	ND			Authentic
214-8/6-89	Maurice Tiberius	Museum	Obv.	ND	0,087	ND	0,1	ND	ND	ND	99,82	ND	ND	2,19	20	Authentic
214-8/6-89	Maurice Tiberius	Museum	Rev.	ND	0,1	ND	0,11	ND	ND	ND	99,79	ND	ND			Authentic
		Avarage		0,11			0,22			1,58	98,88					

Table 3: P-EDXRF analysis of modern gold

	% Cu	% Zn	% Mo	% Au
Modern gold	8, 8	0, 15	0, 019	91, 07
Modern gold	8, 7	0, 18	0, 027	91, 08
Modern gold	7	0, 14	0, 017	92, 84
Modern gold	7, 1	0, 13	0, 013	92, 76
Modern gold	6, 7	0, 11	0, 015	93, 16
Modern gold	6, 8	0, 13	0, 015	93, 1
Modern gold	6, 6	0, 1	0, 014	93, 25
Modern gold	6, 6	0, 11	0, 016	93, 32
Modern gold	6, 6	0, 14	0, 015	93, 25
Modern gold	8, 9	0, 19	0, 017	90, 91
Modern gold	8, 6	0, 2	0, 015	91, 14
Avarage	7, 5	0, 14	0, 017	92, 35

Table 4: Analysis records of sculpture including minor and major elements

Analysis No	% Cu	% Sn	% Fe	% Pb	% Zn	% Ni	% Bi	% Sb	% Rh
2	50.89	7.25	0.26	38.04	ND	ND	0.27	0.33	0.078
3	63.85	14.39	0.54	20.71	ND	0.026	0.17	0.22	ND
4	63.09	14.05	0.29	21.46	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
5	60.07	13.62	0.36	24.07	ND	0.034	0.18	0.26	0.056
6	36.68	7.91	0.37	48.50	ND	ND	0.27	0.29	0.072
7	37.39	9.15	0.22	46.01	ND	ND	0.27	0.28	0.065
8	61.84	14.78	0.25	21.42	ND	0.024	0.015	0.23	0.045
9	60.82	11.96	1.84	22.20	0.10	ND	ND	ND	ND
10	49.82	11.43	8.02	22.46	1.27	0.22	0.24	ND	ND
11	42.39	10.69	0.22	41.44	ND	ND	0.20	0.28	0.062
12	53.87	11.29	0.24	30.75	ND	ND	0.021	0.25	0.063
13	49.87	8.64	0.38	36.91	ND	ND	0.22	0.26	0.071
14	51.77	10.97	0.26	34.15	ND	ND	0.16	0.26	0.058
15	49.91	12.40	0.38	33.65	ND	0.038	0.24	0.29	0.057
16	65.78	11.74	0.39	20.95	ND	ND	0.16	0.16	ND
17	50.77	11.04	3.54	28.35	0.16	ND	0.18	ND	ND
19	63.34	18.53	0.44	16.45	ND	0.020	ND	0.18	ND
20	54.02	12.48	0.26	29.14	ND	ND	0.17	0.27	0.068
21	48.15	15.40	0.18	32.13	ND	ND	0.17	0.20	0.047

COMPATIBILY OF MANAGEMENT SYSTEM AND ETHICS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (ALBANIAN CASE)

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Abstract

Over the past 20 years, Albania has undertaken important reforms in public administration. The new constitution from the beginning has sought to build up a system of public services, from a totally hierarchical system, in a modernized system, bringing more and more questions and ambiguities in terms of ethics. In Albania, are unclear the inquiries in terms of ethics that has come with changes in the system of public administration. Many countries of the region of East, as Albania also, have integrated the code of ethics within the law, giving well-defined ethical aspects, but it is suspected that this process was very quick and unexpected. The main question is; should or should not be "The code of ethics" a natural process that binds to the development of a society? The paper will make a brief presentation of the various models of ethical approach, used in public administrations from the countries of region and Western Europe. Then will be analyzed in detail the Albanian public administration, identifying in this manner the problems of this administration, in conclusion to arrive at the finding such as, would be better to use an ethical model that can also be associated with the actual administration and its characteristics?!

Keywords: Public administration, ethics, law, civil servant

Introduction

If we discus for a suitable public service, in terms of realizing the "common good", we can never separate a very important and vital part of its process, which is exactly the ethics in public administration.

If we talk about ethics of public service, we can raise a general question about the role and function of this ethic in reaching the common good, which is articulatied "the good of people (legal category of human rights) and the social good (legal category of the general interest)", It 's important to emphasize these concepts when it comes to ethics, since precisely these elements stay on the basis of ethics.

What is functional, it would be to find a recipe exactly ready to put in use by a defined model for a particular public administration of a specific government.

The only thing that can be done is to adopt the right perspective with the reality and the condition of a specific government.

In the various ethical perspectives, greater attention has been paid to deontology, teleology / utilitarianism, and axiolog, which are quite common in a philosophical discourse of professional ethics. Philosophical-geographical approaches, does not provide many recipes for public administrations: According to Neil Brady:

"Especially in the public sector, where issues are large and complex, it must be clear that not only one ethical perspective is adequate and no prospects should be ignored"

The public management theory and practice, offers two directions, often opposed to encourage the practice of professional ethics in government - "the high road" and "low road".

. "Based on the moral character, this path relies on managers of ethical thinking, decide and act individually. Individual responsibility is a beginning and an end point in the path of integrity in public service".

If the road to reality rejects high integrity resulting from administrative responsibilities, then the "low road", addresses the ethical issues almost exclusively in terms of adherence to rules.

The "low road" of compliance is to encourage obedience to the legal minimum standards and prohibitions. Here there is a formal respect for the rules, rules which are legally obligatory and legalistic.

"The low road of conformity does not matter that most people want to take good decisions, but only that most people meet minimum standards of behavior".

It's quite obvious that in practical life we cannot find pure examples of these approaches and that are usually combinate e complementari a vicenda. combined and complement each other. Lewis and Gilman offer a third option, a two-front, which incorporates compliance with formal standards and the promotion of the ethic of individual responsibility.

The ethics of management used in various countries.

The reporter of the Council of Europe Giovanni Crema highlights:"The ethics of public service varies greatly according to the history, culture and European values in each country, also influenced by other factors such as level

of economic development and democratic maturity".Countries with a long history of democracy had to conform with new requirements, but at the same time wanted to maintain the identical idea of public service. While new democracies in Europe, have asked the best possible system, ready to take in their public services.In some countries like Finland, the general ethics required for civil servants is externalized through the explanation of the meaning and operation of shared values, which form the foundation of the public administration. Values are an operational part of the personnel policy of the government. Similar characteristics can be found in Denmark. Portugal is a representative group of countries in which the ethical requirements for public service are expressed in a legal document as the "Code of Administrative Procedure". In Great Britain there is a strong frame of administrative law. There is a tradition of strict rules to conduct the behavior of public administrators.

Germany and France are examples of countries that have not a code of ethicslike a value code. In these countries, "In the public sector, rules of conduct comes from the law, regulations and circulars, to some extent, judgments and professional guides to good practice.

Although, there is no code of conduct or ethics as such mention above, for all public administration, in the countries of Central Europe, several models of ethical management have been adopted. An interesting fact emerges that these countries have actually started the first attention to the ethical codes of many countries in Western Europe. Codes of ethics for public services have been adopted in Estonia in 1999, Bulgaria etc...

In Central and Eastern Europe tend to create codes of behavior with disciplinary methods.Until now, there have been several attempts to draw parallels between the types of systems of public administration, and the amount of ethical issues in public service.

In administration, there are two main traditions, the management "of the Old Public Administration" and management "of the New Public Administration". The pure ethical management models or theories of public administration do not exist in practice.

We can only follow the general trends that occur in reality, and each government must define its own path. The historical roots and socio-cultural play an important role in shaping the operational details of the management incentive of an ethical framework.

ANALYSIS OF STUDY FINDINGS

For the first time we can speak of an Albanian state law, the Civil Servant in Law nr. 21/03/1996 8095, "The Civil Service in the Republic of Albania". This law could not be applied, and after three years was replaced by another law, whose object was the same.

The current status of civil servants is governed by the law nr.8594 year 11.11.1999. The Civil Service Act is a law that provides a set of rules, designed to ensure the stability and professionalism, not politicization, but also the maintenance of the career.

Despite these rules, the modalities of their implementation and interpretation in the space they create, have produced a series of problems in relation to this Act and the lack of law enforcement, since, as has been observed that the currently does not cover all problems of public administration. "For this reason, the Council of Ministers, with the decision nr.1017del 09.18.2009, adopted a strategy for public administration, which has a professionalism, vision, strategy, efficiency and transparency for this administration".

The fact that I dwell so much in terms of rules for public administration, has importance in the regulation of labor relations and the sustainability of public administration.

Characteristics of ethical public service in Albania.

The need to define ethical standards against Albanian public administration is caused by:

Ethical and moral decline in Albania, following a transition not to economic success in recent years.

Politics has still a lot of pressure on the activities of the Albanian authorities. Public service in

Albania encounters neither the social status prestige nor respect.

Professional public service may be regarded as an innovation in Albania.

All these conditions and characteristics, makes necessary the use of ethics in the Albanian public administration, as a fundamental mechanism for the administration.

Ethical issues are involved in the Albanian legislation, specifically in the lawnr. 9131 of 8 September 2003, "On Standards of Ethics in Public Administration", based on Articles 78 and 83, paragraph 1, of the Constitution. 7 The purpose of this law is to define rules of behavior of civil servants, according to the required

standards.

In chapter two of this law, we talk about conflict of interest and all the' Article Five of this chapter on the prevention of a conflict of interest, of the benefits, and many specifications where many officials should take into account.

As a result, the legal framework includes a wide range of ethical issues defined in Albanian law.

There is no doubt that this is a step forward in this transition period, ethical issues, should be protected by a legal force. But is this the only solution? Usually this is not enough, and it was shown very well in the negative evaluation that took place for Albanians in the administration report on the relationship of progress that has made the European Union, and this was one of the strongest points of criticism.

Corruption in Albania as a violation of ethical conduct in the performance of public services.

According to the poll - conducted by IDRA with support from USAID, May 5, 2010, traces the perceptions of citizens, public officials, and judges regarding the corruption in Albania, and their experience with corruption. According to the general public, corruption among public officials is common. 91.8% of respondents believe that corruption among public officials is "widespread" or "fairly common". As it can be analyzed from this study, it is emphasized that corruption is not perceived as a phenomenon only present, but also very evident, and this not only by citizens, but also from various government officials.

While Transparency International lists 87 place among Albania in corrupt countries. The factors that contribute to amplify corruption are:

The difficult economic situation that Albania has passed through the years

The personal interests of civil servants

Lack of professionalism and politicization of officials

Irresponsible officials

Weak internal and external controls, etc…

Corruption cannot be combated only with the enhancement level of awareness of personal of the public administration, not only from a strict legal framework, but with the creation of an ethical infrastructure.

The way to limit the level of corruption includes the improvement of economic situation in the state, the implementation of legislation aimed at combating corruption, the introduction of a code of ethics that serve to the public behavior, the moral climate and recreation psychological assessment of personnel in public administration, transparency and accountability of public authorities.

To reduce such phenomena as corruption, and ethics is necessary building an adequate infrastructure. As with any set of management tools, the effectiveness of the ethical infrastructure depends on the fact that is implemented and applied consistently.

Ethics should be connected to public management. If there is too much control, nothing will happen, but if there is little control, bad things will be done. In a country the infrastructure of ethics must be consistent with its approach to public

management.

The training of civil servants as the ethical way to improve their performance and the approximation to the European Union.

A key priority in the implementation of administrative reform is to provide high quality specialist for the effective work in the central and local government agencies in terms of changing society.

According to the decision of the Council of Ministers on the reform of public administration, in Section 2.2 of Chapter II, it is considered to establish a school of public administration. Estimates of establishing a school for public administration are also a positive step, itself remains to be seen how this school will be placed relative to the training of civil servants. The effectiveness of government depends very much on how officials should handle various forms and methods of ethics. In the process of administrative reform, a very obvious problem is the lack of experience of public officials and official structures.

Changing attitudes and values, is a very delicate and complex, long-term process that requires special psychological approaches, and therefore requires highly specialized academic training.

What we can say, is that a very good and fast solution will be winning the membership in the European Union, because only this way we will really be pushed to comply the ethical standards that are requested by UE and our government will offer a better service for citizens.

The candidate countries for accession to the European Union face a complex and urgent task of building administrative institutions to meet the Copenhagen criteria.

Referring to Article 110 of the Stabilization and Association Agreement, the objectives of the Albanian Government regarding the reform of public administration, include creation of a transparent management cycle, open, accountable and consistent public administration. Strengthening institutional capacity, ensuring fair recruitment procedures, human resource management, career development, training, promotion of ethics in public administration, development of information technology in government, these are the real challenges we have to go through.

What is needed for the process of accession to the European Union is the sustainability, capacity building and strengthening the rule of law.

The European Commission believes that the "corporate social responsibility", should be practiced by the government, therefore, it must indicate a socially responsible, so that their practices must include social and environmental factors. It should be emphasized that sustainability and efficiency of public administration is

required by another document prepared by Ombudsman, "Code of good administrative behavior", which has to be integrated into our national law. This includes the fundamentals, such as, transparency, institutions should work in an open transparence, participation, quality and effectiveness of policy depends on ensuring wide participation.

Here are mentioned some obligations that the Albanian state has signed in the agreement of Stabilization-Association.

Indisputable that the monitoring and external control plays a decisive role in strengthening public administration, and if the membership in the European Union happens, would be something very positive for the Albanian public administration.

CONCLUSIONS

Referring to the ethical approaches and the characteristics of the Albanian government, I can say that Albania is not yet ready to customize the ethics of public administration, based solely on personal awareness, and laws are needed for the implementation of ethical principles. But once again, experience has shown that, even if laws exist, this is not sufficient. According to Neil Brady: "Especially in the public sector, where issues are large and complex, it must be clear that not only an ethical perspective is adequate and no prospects should be ignored"

The best solution would undoubtedly use the experiences of different countries to adapt better to a mixed model of ethics. In conclusion I would express the idea that there is no universal approach to ensure regulatory standards for ethical behavior of public administration. Must be a complex system of legal mechanisms, administrative and moral force of a public servant to do the right things and make them well. Today, the Albanian society is at a critical time where it is necessary to strengthen the public administration because it is a fundamental criterion for winning the membership in the European Union.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE'S EFFECTS ON ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT: STUDY OF A FIVE STAR HOSPITALITY BUSINESS

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ABSTRACT

In tourism industry, attitudes and behaviors of hospitality businesses' employees who are in direct and continuous communication with guests constitutes a critical importance for the sector. Therefore, attitudes and behaviors developed by employees towards the organizational culture they are in, must be monitored and necessary measures to prevent possible conflicts must be taken. In this study, Çelik's (2007) Organization Culture Scale and Rahim's (1983) Organizational Conflict Scale have been utilized to determine the effects of organizational culture on organizational conflict and applied on 226 employees who work at a five star hospitality business in Antalya. Organization culture has been found to be influential on all personal, group and group identity conflicts as a result of the study.

Key Words: Organizational culture, organizational conflict, hospitality businesses, Tourism Cultures

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a global industry which has become a part of people's life styles with its suppliers and consumers spread throughout the world (Kandampully, 2000: 10). Individual arguments and conflicts inevitably arise due to individual differences wherever there is human factor as an input of socialization (Sims, 2002: 245). When the studies have been analyzed, conflict process has been determined as being significantly affected by culture. Therefore, in order to provide quality to tourism organizations, it is very important to minimize possible conflicts taking into account organization culture.

Organization Culture

Organization culture consists of common belief, life and expectation patterns of organization members. These beliefs and expectations determine norms that shape individual and group behaviors in the organization. According to another definition, organization culture is common beliefs, attitudes and values found in the organization (Brown, 1998: 7).

Organization culture consists of: "hypothesis and beliefs which exist in the organization's consciousness, functioning subconsciously, accepted without question, determining the way organization perceives itself and its environment and shared by organization members." In this definition of Schein, culture is emphasized as a totality of beliefs and expectations about organization itself and its environment which is not visible and palpable, in other words not objective, shared by employees but without questioning why. With these qualities, culture represents the covert inner dimension of an organization which cannot be observed from outside (Şimşek, 2007: 108).

Dimensions of Organization Culture

Robbins analyzes organization culture in 7 dimensions based on some implementations about management. Our study's analyses are based on Robbins' dimensions (Naktiyok, 2004: 78).

Organizational Structure: It expresses the division of labor and the level of expertise of employees, the attitude of management with regard to authorization, hierarchic structure within the organization (Efil, 1999: 249).

Individual Autonomy: These are the attitudes of managers against their workers. If managers have the need to use authority in a high level, show a inflexibility in the traditional behavior patterns and centralize the authority, then this organization structure has an autocratic management approach (Daft and Marcic, 1998: 424).

Organizational Support: Workers would have the need to follow innovations and developments. Organizations may provide support for this need by enabling them to participate to in service and out service trainings (Yıldız and Ardıç, 2002: 8).

Organizational Identity: The degree of workers' internalization of organization and identification with their coworkers are indicative of organizational identity. If workers feel close to the organization and internalize its activities, they would be talking very positively about their workplace everywhere (Ertekin, 1978: 67).

Organizational Justice: The most important aspect workers expect from their managers in a workplace is that they should be honest and just. Unjust practices of managers in a workplace could disincline workers from the organization. Therefore, practices of valuing personnel and rewarding accordingly should be constantly applied in an organization (Börü, 2001: 549).

Tolerance in Conflict: Conflicts arise all the time for various reasons in every organization structure which includes human. Most of the time, we think of negativities when we think of conflicts. But conflict benefits organizations provided that it is in a certain degree (Ceylan et al., 2000: 40).

Encouragement to Undertake Risk: Every innovation or new idea means risk. Organizations which undertake risks are the ones to create differences by being open to the new. Organization culture affects workers' attitudes in undertaking risks by using its encouraging or inhibiting influence (Sargut, 2001: 95).

Organizational Conflict

Conflict as a natural consequence of social life is an inevitable product of differences between individuals and groups; conflict is possible due to culture and life style differences wherever there is human (Özkalp and Kırel, 2001: 396). Therefore, conflict is a concept that draws attention of not only management or organization psychology but also is included in many research fields such as sociology, anthropology, economy (Asunakutlu and Safran 2004: 27).

Majority of conflicts experienced between individuals arise from properties of social or formal structures individuals belong. Structural properties that could cause organizational conflicts are (Eren, 2000: 379; Stoner, 1978: 348; Kılınç, 1985: 114; Robbins, 2001: 387; Newstorm and Davis, 1993: 226–228; Tuğlu, 1996: 29); statues and power, bureaucratic reasons, participation to management, social, rewarding system that is not just, manager not being acknowledged in the workplace, hierarchic structural order, functional dependency, role uncertainty, low performance, organizational change, organization politics, organization culture and organization climate etc.

Kinds of Organizational Conflict

Individual Conflicts: It arises in conditions where individual is not certain of what is expected from him/her or is expected more than he/she is capable of and creates discomfort and stress for individual (Ertürk, 2000: 219).

Interpersonal Conflicts: It is dispute of two or more individuals on various issues. Most important reasons for this are the differences of purpose, methods, information, data and value judgment between individuals (Akat et al., 2002: 405).

 Group Conflicts: In general, these are considered as interpersonal conflicts. Nevertheless, in group conflicts, there is the presence of unity of a group and a group idea differing from interpersonal conflicts. It is suggested that group behaviors are different than individual behaviors, so group dynamics have an interesting role in conflicts; different organizations being in conflict as groups could cause lack of coordination and work inefficiency within the organization (Callahan and Fleenor, 1988: 202; Johnson and Johnson, 1994: 4–20; Rahim, 1992: 101).

Group Identity Conflicts: Group identity conflicts are mostly due to disputes arising between worker groups who work under the same department manager (Eren, 2000: 535).

Correlation of Organization Culture and Intra-organizational Conflict

In a globalizing world, fast developing economy and multinational companies as well as strategic mergers brought along variety of workers in terms of background, education, ethnic origin and culture; labor force becomes more and more heterogeneous every day. This heterogeneousness shows itself as an important increase in numbers of potential issues, misunderstandings and tensions and conflicts between workers. It also brings along work load and work stress. Therefore,

conflict management becomes more and more important for management discipline everyday. Culture constitutes one of the main sources of conflict now (Değirmenci, 2008: 42).

The process of conflict is influenced by culture significantly. The role of culture in interpersonal interactions has been discussed many times in literature. As studies of Kaushal and Kwantes (2006) refer, Leung and others analyze the role of responsibility attributes as well as procedural justice, equity and properties in the choice of conflict strategy. Every interaction between individuals, include power ranges too, even to a degree. Level and manifestation of this power changes from culture to culture and it determines not only the nature of process of conflict but also adopted conflict management strategies (Holt and DeVore, 2005: 168).

In organizations which have a flexible organization culture, enough freedom would be present to enable members to communicate to each other easily. The reason of conflict between employer and employee is especially the non-humanistic character of behavior. The reason for this non-humanistic behavior is the fears of managers. Managers' lack of self-confidence due to personal reasons may cause them to act in a way that is not within the frame of ethical rules. In addition to all these, in workplace, personnel in argument with other individuals are inclined to communicate about this situation. The experienced difficulty could be resolved before getting out of hand by adopting behaviors such as trying to find a common ground or empathy (Yirik, 2011:84).

It is predicted that organizations dominated by a flexible culture which tolerates faults, encourages workers to take responsibility, communicate and compete by working on new ideas, would adopt reconciliation and problem solving strategies in conflict management and would stay away from strategies of avoidance, mollification and use of power (Santaro and Gopalakrishnan, 2000: 304).

Aim and Importance of the Study

The aim of this study is to analyze the effect of organizational culture a five star hotel organization has on organizational conflict. Since tourism sector has a labor-intense structure, many problems could arise if necessary measures are not taken. The organization culture belonging to hospitality businesses could create conflicts between employees due to differences in culture. Planning of an organizational culture independent from than that of employees while forming organizational culture could triggers these negative results. Managements should take into account employee profile too when forming organizational cultures. Considering negativities direct effects on quality and efficiency in tourism sector which has a very sensitive balance, businesses need to determine the possible conflicts that organizational culture could give rise to between employees and develop measures to prevent these. From this perspective, it is very important to determine the effects of organizational culture on organizational conflict in hospitality businesses.

The universe of this study is consisted of employees of five star "x" hotel business which operates in tourism sector in Antalya. Study has been conducted just on one company because every company has its own unique culture. The results obtained are thought to provide important tips for the workers and managers of tourism sector.

Method of Study

In this study, literature has been reviewed and then, secondary data were analyzed. Study's theoretical frame has been determined based on these information and findings. Then, starting from this theoretical frame, an empirical study has been carried out. Field survey has been conducted in a five star hotel business in Antalya. "x" business which stays open after the high season was operating during November 2011 in which survey was conducted and its employees have been given survey forms. Business consisted of 350 employees in total. 232 survey forms were returned from all that has been distributed. 6 of these forms were considered invalid. 226 survey forms which were considered valid to be taken for evaluation of survey, consist more than 60% of employees which constituted the study's universe. This number is at an adequate level for statistical analyses.

Questionnaire method has been used in field study as data collection tool and 5 point Likert type scales have been used in survey (1: Definitely agree, 5: Definitely do not agree). First section of questionnaire consists of questions related to demographic properties of employees. Questions concerning demographic properties are related to data such as gender, marital status, education level, term of employment in sector, term of employment in business, department of work, monthly income.

Organization culture scale that could be found in second section of questionnaire is taken from Çelik's (2007) doctoral dissertation. This scale which consists of 26 questions is used to measure seven dimensions of organization culture

(individual autonomy, organizational structure, organizational support, organizational identity, organizational justice, tolerance in conflict, encouragement to undertake risk). Reliability analyses have been conducted on the scale and Organization Culture Scale alpha coefficient has been calculated as 0.928.

Organizational conflict scale which can be found in the third and the last section of the study has been taken from "Organizational Conflict Inventory I" found in Rahim's (1983) study. Reliability of the scale has been tested and alpha coefficient is calculated as 0.960. Rahim's scale is observed to be used in many studies both domestic and international in the field of organizational conflict in recent years. Organizational conflict has been analyzed in three dimensions. First dimension is personal conflict, second dimension is group conflict, and third dimension is group identity conflict. SPSS 16.0 for Windows package software has been utilized in all the analyses of data collected during survey.

Questions and Hypothesis of the Study

The questions to be answered in the study and main hypothesis of the study may be summarized as below.

Is there a relation between personal conflict and organization culture?

Is there a relation between group conflict and organization culture?

Is there a relation between group identity conflict and organization culture?

In this direction, main hypothesis of the study has been determined as "there is a relation between dimensions of organization culture and dimensions of organizational conflict."

Findings of Study and Interpretations

We can summarize socio-demographic properties of organization employees in the scope of the study as follows. Of 226 employees in total, 45% is female, 55% is male; education level 32% primary school, 43% secondary school and 25% higher education; marital status 54% single, 46% married. It is established that; employees' terms of employment in tourism sector 21% is 1–3 years, 54% is 4–6 years, 4% is 7–9 years and 21% is 9 years and above; terms of employment in the same firm 45% is less than 1 year, 55% is 1–3 years; monthly average income, 10% is 0–750 TL, 42% is 751–1000 TL, 41% is 1001–2000 TL and 7% is 2000 TL and more; department of work, 20% is housekeeping, 18% front desk, 21% service and bar, 19% kitchen, 13% administrative departments and 9% security.

Factor Analyses

In the study, data related to organizational culture and organizational conflict scales have been subjected to factor analyses in order to enable a more accurate determination of variables.

Organizational Culture Scale Factor Analysis

Before factor analysis with regard to organization culture scale, the compliance of scale consisting of 26 questions to factor analysis has been checked. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling sufficiency has proven to be 0.786. This value shows that data is suitable for factor analysis. Collected data have been subjected to factor analysis according to varimax rotation through principal component method. Reliability analysis which was performed of the dimensions obtained in factor analysis conducted with 26 variables resulted in reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) of 0.928. In this way 6 factors in total have been obtained which have eigenvalues above 1 and factor loads above 0.40. Obtained 6 factors are respectively: Organizational structure and identity, individual autonomy, encouragement to undertake risk, organizational support, organizational justice and tolerance in conflict. 6 factors obtained, explain 85.841% of total variance. Bartlett test value has proven to be 0.000 (p<0.05), and this shows that correlation between variables is meaningful.

Organizational Conflict Scale Factor Analysis

Before factor analysis with regard to organizational conflict scale, the compliance of scale consisting of 21 questions to factor analysis has been checked. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling sufficiency has proven to be 0.817. This value shows that data is suitable for factor analysis. Collected data have been subjected to factor analysis according to varimax rotation through principal component method. 3 factors have been obtained in the first analysis performed. Reliability analysis which was performed of the dimensions obtained in factor analysis conducted with 20 variables resulted in reliability coefficient

(Cronbach Alpha) of 0.960. In this way 3 factors in total have been obtained which have eigenvalues above 1 and factor loads above 0.40. Obtained 3 factors are respectively: Personal conflict, group conflict and group identity conflict. 3 factors obtained, explain 85.361% of total variance. Bartlett test value has proven to be 0.000 (p<0.05), and this shows that correlation between variables is meaningful.

"Correlation" Analyses Regarding Organizational Culture and Organizational Conflict Factors

When looked at Table 1. Correlation analysis is utilized when a study concerning direction and force of relation between two variables is desired to be performed. Table 5 shows correlation matrix of factors obtained on organization culture. With regard to organizational structure and identity, determined correlations with individual autonomy (r=.400), encouragement to undertake risk (r=.425) and tolerance in conflict (r=.473) were positive, significant and slightly weak; but no correlation has been determined with organizational justice. With regard to individual autonomy, determined correlations with encouragement to undertake risk (r=.275) and with organizational support (r=.267) were positive, significant and weak; correlation with tolerance in conflict (r=.514) was positive, significant and slightly strong. There were no significant correlation between individual autonomy and organizational justice. With regard to encouragement to undertake risk, determined correlation with organizational support (r=.353) was positive, significant and relatively weak; with tolerance in conflict (r=.481) was positive, significant and slightly weak; with organizational justice there were no significant correlation. Between organizational support and tolerance in conflict (r=.412) positive, significant and slightly weak correlation was determined. There were no significant correlation between organizational justice and organizational support, and tolerance in conflict and organizational justice.

Correlation Analysis of Organizational Conflict Factors

When looked at Table 2. When the relations between organizational conflict dimensions are analyzed, positive and significant relations have been found between all dimensions. Correlation between personal conflict and group conflict (r=.694) was positive, significant and relatively strong; correlation between personal conflict and group identity (r=.334) was positive, significant and relatively weak and finally correlation between group conflict and group identity conflict dimensions (r=.547) was positive, significant and slightly strong.

When correlation analysis results are examined it is seen that correlation coefficient numbers are not above 0.85. This also shows that the study has discrimination validity. By this way, after structural validity has been proved by factor analysis, discrimination validity is proven by correlation analysis.

"Regression" Analysis Results Concerning Hypothesis

Regression analyses have been performed to determine the influence of employees' organization cultures on personal conflicts. The result of anova analysis aimed at determining whether or not model is statistically meaningful, was F=29.899, p=0.000 and this value has been found to be meaningful statistically at the significant level of 1%. R2 value concerning analysis has been found to be 0.450. In other words; approximately 45% of personal conflict variable is explained by organizational culture variables (R=.671, R2=.450, P<0.01). This rate shows that employees' organizational cultures have a relatively strong influence on personal conflicts. When we look at the results with regard to Durbin-Watson test, the value is determined as 2.082 in the study. Durbin-Watson value indicates that there is no autocorrelation in the model if it is in the range of 1.5-2.5.

Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Personal Conflict

When looked at Table 3, it is observed that employees' organization culture's most influential factor on personal conflicts is "organizational structure and climate." According to regression coefficient (β) which is standardized to test the predictive power of independent variables concerning personal conflicts; organizational structure and climate, encouragement to undertake risk and organizational support have been observed to be meaningfully predictive (p<0.01). Individual autonomy, organizational justice and tolerance in conflict have been determined as having no statistically meaningful influence on personal conflict.

Another effective factor on personal conflict is "organizational support." Encouragement to undertake risk, on the other hand, has a counter wise and low relation with personal conflict.

Regression analyses have been performed to determine the influence of employees' organization cultures on group conflicts. The result of anova analysis aimed at determining whether or not model is statistically meaningful, was F=20.466, p=0.000 and this value has been found to be meaningful statistically at the significant level of 1%. R2 value concerning analysis has been found to be 0.359. In other words; approximately 36% of group conflict variable is explained by organizational culture variables (R=.599, R2=.359, P<0.01). This rate shows that employees' organizational cultures have an influence on group conflicts, although not a strong one. When we look at the results with regard to Durbin-Watson test,

the value is determined as 2.481 in the study. Durbin-Watson value indicates that there is no autocorrelation in the model if it is in the range of 1.5-2.5.

Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Group Conflict

When looked at Table 4, it is observed that employees' organization culture's most influential factor on group conflicts is "organizational structure and climate." According to regression coefficient (β) which is standardized to test the predictive power of independent variables concerning personal conflicts; organizational structure and climate, organizational support and tolerance in conflict have been observed to be meaningfully predictive (p<0.01). Individual autonomy, encouragement to undertake risk and organizational justice, on the other hand, have been found to have no statistically meaningful influence on group conflict.

Another effective factor on personal conflict is "organizational support." Tolerance in conflict, on the other hand, has a counter wise and low relation with group conflict. Regression analyses have been performed to determine the influence of employees' organization cultures on group identity conflicts. The result of anova analysis aimed at determining whether or not model is statistically meaningful at the level of 1%, was F=24.830, p=0.000 and this value has been found to be meaningful statistically at the significant. R2 value concerning analysis has been found to be 0.405. In other words; approximately 40% of group identity conflict variable is explained by organizational culture variables (R=.636, R2=.405, P<0.01). This rate shows that employees' organizational cultures have a relatively strong influence on group identity conflicts. When we look at the results with regard to Durbin-Watson test, the value is determined as 1.662 in the study. Durbin-Watson value indicates that there is no autocorrelation in the model if it is in the range of 1.5-2.5.

Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Group Identity Conflict

When looked at Table 5, it is observed that employees' organization culture's most influential factor on group identity conflicts is "organizational support." According to regression coefficient (β) which is standardized to test the predictive power of independent variables concerning personal conflicts; organizational support and individual autonomy have been observed to be meaningfully predictive (p<0.01). Organizational structure and climate, encouragement to undertake risk, organizational justice and tolerance in conflict have been determined as having no statistically meaningful influence on group identity conflict. Another slightly influential factor on group identity conflict is individual autonomy. Individual autonomy has a low level influence on group identity conflict but not as much as organizational support.

Conclusion and Suggestions

As the subject of this study, five star hotel sector addresses to both national and international markets. It is multinational and multicultural due to employee profile and organization structures of hotels. In the hotel business analyzed within the scope of this study, leading dimension of organization culture to cause conflict is organizational support.

When all the dimensions of organizational conflict have been evaluated, it is observed that organization culture has 45% of influence on personal conflict, 36% of influence on group conflict and 40% of influence on group identity conflict. According to this result, the dimension in which organizational conflict is experienced the most is personal conflict. But we still observe that organization culture is influential on all dimensions of conflict in levels that are close to each other.

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Tables

Table 1. Correlation Analysis of Organization Culture Factors

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Organizational Structure and Identity	1					
2. Individual Autonomy	, 400**	1				
3. Encouragement to Undertake Risk	, 517**	, 275**	1			
4. Organizational Support	, 425**	, 267**	, 353**	1		

| 5. Organizational Justice | -, 124 | , 088 | -, 015 | , 082 | 1 | |
| 6. Tolerance in Conflict | , 473** | , 514** | , 481* | , 412** | , 013 | 1 |

* p<0.05   ** p<0.01

Table 2. Correlation Analysis of Organizational Conflict Factors

Dimensions	1	2	3
1- Personal Conflict	1		
2- Group Conflict	, 694**	1	
3- Group Identity Conflict	, 334**	, 547**	1

** p<0.01

Table 3. Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Personal Conflict

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Beta Value	T Value	P Value
Individual Conflict	Organizational Structure and Climate	, 506	7, 694	, 000**
	Individual Autonomy	, 104	1, 724	, 086
	Encouragement to Undertake Risk	-, 174	-2, 805	, 005**
	Organizational Support	, 297	5, 105	, 000**
	Organizational Justice	-, 063	-1, 224	, 222
	Tolerance in Conflict	, 014	, 204	, 839

** p<0.01

Table 4. Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Group Conflict

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Beta Value	T Value	P Value
Group Conflict	Organizational Structure and Climate	, 401	5, 649	, 000**
	Individual Autonomy	, 122	1, 868	, 063
	Encouragement to Undertake Risk	-, 001	-, 015	, 988
	Organizational Support	, 338	5, 386	, 000**
	Organizational Justice	, 011	, 198	, 843
	Tolerance in Conflict	-, 174	-2, 423	, 016*

* p<0.05

** p<0.01

Table 5. Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Organization Culture Factors Influencing Group Identity Conflict

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Beta Value	T Value	P Value

Group Identity Conflict	Organizational Structure and Climate	, 012	, 173	, 863
	Individual Autonomy	, 204	3, 257	, 001**
	Encouragement to Undertake Risk	-, 064	-, 999	, 319
	Organizational Support	, 577	9, 530	, 000**
	Organizational Justice	, 087	1, 613	, 108
	Tolerance in Conflict	-, 049	-, 711	, 478

** $p < 0.01$

COMPETITION IN THE ALBANIAN BANKING MARKET

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Abstract

The objective of This Paper is to analyze competition in the Albanian banking market refering the period 2009-2013. To determine what we have in this market structure, monopolistic competition or oligopoly market structure. If we have an oligopoly form what features it has compared to the classical form of oligopoly and fair competition affects. The period is analyzed coincides with the apparent decline rate of increase of the GDP and the global recession. This objective sought to be achieved by using a set of coefficients that index and provide some degree of concentration of the main indicators of the banking system. So are using CR concentration coefficient, the Herfindahl index of concentration -Hirschman, Hall-Tideman, CCI industrial concentration, the Gini index, etc.Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Through these indices examine the extent of concentration and degree of connectivity between synthetic indicators. The conclusion of the analysis is that the banking market have a special kind of oligopoly and monopolistic competition does not have. This situation is reflected in the volume of loans, deposits to each of them to the total system, the high interest rates on loans and lower deposit. Reactions reflected in Commercial Banks indifferent to the expansionist policy of the Central Bank over the years etc.

Keywords: banking concentration, monopolistic competition, oligopoly, CR concentration index, the Herfindahl index of concentration - Hirschman, Hall-Tideman, CCI, the Gini index, the Pearson correlation coefficient, etc.

Introduction

Today's banking system is relatively new. From 2004 and until today in Albania have Central Bank, as the bank of the first level and 16 Bank, as Commercial Banks. All commercial banks are private. There is no bank with state capital or to be the state as participant. All banks are foreign-owned. Only three of them have local shareholders. Since 2004 the number of banks has decreased.

In the paper are given concepts to market structures. This is done with the intention of comparing the banking market to them in order to determine the similarity of the relevant market. Analyzed the features of the banking market and its products. By doing this analysis we determine that bank market has more features than the oligopolistic market of monopolistic competition. We further analyzed the degree of concentration of leading indicators and their degree of connectivity. Through abusive detailed analysis we concluded that the banking market is not a market of monopolistic competition but is a oligopoly market structure. It is not the domed classical oligopoly but a special type which have dominant market 6 banks and other banks have their trackbacks. Six banks will be dominant if we analyse only them, will have a monopolistic competition market structure, so we had the other banks in the second group. This was proved through indexes that provide the degree of concentration and calculated by us. Trying to have a monopoly market structure, contrary to other authors, Albanian who evaluate the market as monopolistic competition we give a scientific basis Competition Authority to look into the possibility of market intervention. The possibility of intervention is in some areas, in the field of preventing growth of the six group is reflected in the interest rate on loans and deposits, structure and distribution of loans etc. It will be of interest to businesses and Albanian citizens.

Methods and indicators used.

We have used the method of description, comparison, analysis and synthesis, statistical and econometric methods using a set of index coefficients that are put in the service of the material for determining the degree of concentration of the banking market. Financial concentration indicators are used in the material.

CR Index. $CR_k = \sum_{i=1}^{k} S_i$ Characteristics. Includes participation of largest banks in the banking market. This is a simple method and requires less data compared with other indicators. For this reason it is one of the most frequently used in

literature (unique index). Explanation. Index approaches 0 for an infinite number of subjects of the same size and approaches 1 if the larger entities constitute the entire industry. The rate of concentration varies from 0 to 100. Usually used to classify these estimates market:

There is no concentration. 0% means perfect competition or no monopolistic competition. If for example CR4=0%, the fourth largest firm in the industry will not have any significant market share.

Full concentration. 100% means an extremely concentrated oligopoly. If for example CR1=100%, we have a monopoly.

Low concentration. 0% to 50%. This category ranges from perfect competition to oligopoly.

Secondary concentration. 50% to 80%. An industry in this range is likely a oligopoly.

High concentration. 80% to 100%. This category ranges from oligopoly to a monopoly.

Herfindahl-Hirchman, HHI. Formula $HHI = \sum_{i=1}^{n} S^2 i$. Information referred to as full index because it includes complete information for all distribution entities. Stresses the importance of larger entities, and weighted with a higher value smaller units. Explanation. The index is between 1/n and 1 reaching low limits when all subjects are the same size, and the upper limit catches in the case of monopoly. Market used to classify these estimates:

HHI index below 0, 01 (or below 100) shows a very competitive market.

HHI index less than 0, 15 (or 1, 500) indicates a non-concentrated market.

HHI index between 0, 15 to 0, 25 (or 1500 and 2500) shows a moderate concentration.

HHI index over 0, 25 (2500) shows that we have a high concentration.

Hall-Tideman, HTI. Formula. $HTI = 1/(2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} is_i - 1)$. Characteristics. Stresses the need to include the number of subjects that reflect competition in the market; a small number of entities representing the harsh conditions of entry into the banking industry and the opposite for a larger number of subjects. The market share of each company is weighted by its ranking.

Index tends 0 for an infinite number of subjects with equal size, and become the first in the case of monopoly.

Industrial concentration, CCI. $CCI = s_i + \sum_{i=2}^{n} s_i^2 (1 + (1 - s_i))$. This indicator combines the features of the index relative and absolute magnitude distribution. Give us the amount of participation of companies with larger shares to the leveling of subjects, weighted by a coefficient that reflects the proportionate size of the rest of the industry. The index is 1 in case of monopoly and is great in the case of participation of major banks in an industry with a large number of banking entities.

Pearson coefficient formula. $r = \dfrac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n \sum x^2) - (\sum x)^2][n \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$.

Numerically, the Pearson coefficient is represented in the same way as a correlation coefficient used in a linear regression; ranging from -1 to +1. Value + 1 is the result of a perfect positive relationship between two or more variables. On the other hand, a value of -1 represents a perfect negative relationship. Pearson coefficient may have a small mistake when he used a non-linear equation.

Gini correlation coefficient. Ranging from 1 to 100. As is so close to one of lower concentration is much greater and the higher the concentration.

Purpose. The purpose of this study is to make a detailed analysis of the banking market concentration. Determine its structure. Market structure is monopolistic competition and oligopoly market structure. By determining the type of market we give more opportunities to apply the Competition Authority and its rights in the business market and consumer protection in Albania.

Discusion

Competition and market structures.

A) Pure competitive market. In general, a perfectly competitive market exists when every participant is "price aceptable", and no participant influences the price of the product it sells or buys. In the specific characteristics of this market without addressing to them may include:

1. Buyers and sellers are in an unlimited number.

2. There is no barrier to entry or exit from the market.

3. Factors of production have perfect mobility.

4. Consumers and sellers have perfect information.

5. No transaction costs.

6. Their goal is profit maximization.

7. Sellers offers homogeneous products.

8. Do not have the income scale upward.

9. Royalties.

10. Envisaged rational buyer.

11. Not taken into account any externalities.

B) Monopoly. In this structure there is a single firm that produces and sells all product branch. The product has no close substitutes. In the specific characteristics of this market without addressing them may include:

1. It is profit Maximizer. Maximizes profit.

2. It is Price decisive. It Puts the price of goods and services it sells. This makes determining the price of the desired amount.

3. Has major obstacles to entry. Many dealers are unable to access market monopoly.

4. Has only one seller.

5. It's Price Discriminator. It sells more quantities by reducing the price for a product in a very elastic market and sells less quantities higher price in a less elastic market.

C) Monopolistic competition. Monopolistic competition is a form of imperfect competition and corresponds to a situation in which there are many companies in the market that offer products or services not completely homogeneous and therefore not entirely substitutable. In such a situation, each firm has some market power to influence the price of its products or services. In fact, they have specific products, differentiated products by competitors, each firm acts as a monopoly small. Proximity bigger or smaller monopoly depends on the existing differentiation between different products offered. If the replacement rate is low, the competition will be smaller and closer competition is monopoly. If the replacement rate is high, competition will be reduced and the market will be closer to pure competition. In the specific characteristics of this market without addressing them may include:

1. Existence of a large number of firms: In monopolistic competition operate a large number of small firms each of which is relatively small compared with the overall market size. This ensures that all firms are relatively competitive with very little control over market price or quantity. These firms do not produce perfect substitutes, but the products are close substitutes for each other.

2. Goods similar but not identical. Each firm in this market sells a similar product with another product. The term used to describe this is the product differentiation. Product differentiation is the cause that gives features monopolistic competition monopoly negative sloping demand curve. Various firms in monopolistic competition produce differentiated products which are relatively close substitutes for each other, in this way, their prices can not be very different from each other. Various firms in monopolistic competition compete with each other if similar products are substitutes and close to each other.

Differentiation is done through real or natural materials used, design, color, size, shape, conditions of sale, location of the shop, the attitude towards the product, customer behavior etc.

Differences between products generally fall into three categories: the physical aspect, the perceived, and support services.

a. Physical differentiation: This means that a firm's product is physically different from other product firms.

b. The difference in perception: Product differentiation can also result from differences in perception by buyers, although there are actual physical changes.

c. Supporting differentiated services: This feature means that each firm in monopolistic competition produces a good that is near, but not a perfect substitute for the good produced by any other firm in the market.

3. Relative freedom of entry and exit out of the branch: In monopolistic competition is easier for new firms to enter the branch alongside existing firms, while it is also easy to come by this branch.

4. Extensive knowledge: In monopolistic competition, buyers do not know everything, but they have relatively complete information about alternative prices.

5. Several influential on the price: If the products are close substitutes, lowering the price of a product from a vendor will attract some of the customers of other products. And with a price drop quantity demanded will increase. This means that the demand curve of a firm in monopolistic competition is the negative slope and lie down its marginal revenue.

6. Lack of interdependence of firms: In monopolistic competition each firm operates more or less independently. Each firm formulates its own policy prices - production, its cost and demand.

7. Competition not only by price: Advertising is an outstanding example of competition not only with the price side.

D) Oligopoly. Oligopoly market structure mean that the market in which they operate a limited number of powerful firms that offer the greatest product in the market. The question is how firms make up the oligopoly? In oligopoly part as well as the latest firm size is able to affect the price. Some definitions of the concept of oligopoly.

"Oligopoly represents such a structure of a market economy, in which production and supply of a product is concentrated in a small number of companies." "Oligopoly, a situation where the rule less commercial vendor and other vendors entry in the same market is difficult or costly"

"Oligopoly, a market where some dealers have a monopoly of supply." "Oligopoly. Market which is dominated by a few powerful companies. " "Is a kind of oligopoly market structure in which a small number of firms carry the bulk of industrial production." "Oligopoly is a market structure in which a few firms sell standardized products or differentiated. In this difficult strkukturë entry and firms have restrictions on price control because they do subordinate intermediate and not through price competition. " "Oligopoly, a situation of imperfect competition in the industry in ETE cilëbn dominate a Muner small firms". "Oligopoly, market structure characterized by a relatively small number of firms that provide all market production. Oligopoly is similar to monopoly but has two or more firms "." Oligopoly is a market situation where a small number of control subjects bid in the market for a given good or service, and therefore, are able to control the market price . An oligopoly can be perfect when all subjects produce the same good or service and imperfect when each subject produces a product different from others, but like them. Since each entity recognizes an oligopoly market share, attributable to the product or service produced by him, any change in price or in its market share in sales reflected the others, so we have a tendency of interdependence between Entities. Everyone must make his own decisions about the price and production support in the decisions of oligopoly entities other status. thus oligopoly prices, as placed, are solid. This promotes competition through advertising, packaging and service, a form generally unproductive resource allocation. "

The existence of a limited number of firms in the market makes them have commercial power and generate depending on the decisions of firms

Characteristics of oligopoly

Few sellers. In oligopoly market structure have less powerful firms. Each firm produces certain parts regarding total production branch. Small number of sellers who will constitute the oligopoly market structure depends on the size of the market. So there is strong competition between these firms.

The nature of the product. Products sold by firms in this market can be homogeneous or differentiated. When firms sell homogeneous products they are known as pure oligopoly. When they sell differentiated products oligopoly they are known as clean or not differentiated oligopoly.

Interdependence between firms. This characteristic of oligopoly is distinguished from other forms of market structures. Because there are few sellers in the market, each acting according to the movement of rival retailers.

Difficulties entering and leaving the branch. Oligopolistic market can be characterized by strong barriers to entry to other firms. Some entry barriers are common in economies of scale, absolute cost advantage for older firms, the threat of price reductions, control over important materials, patents and licensing.

Competition among firms. Competition can not consist of perfect competition conditions where there is no war because it is very quiet and strict distribution determined price.

2.Difficulty in running the firm.

Have full knowledge and gjithëanëshme for prices, technology, organization of markets, etc..

Firms in oligopoly prices are often characterized by hardened and unchanged for years. This price solidification express their dependence on each other. Its growth is not reflected in one another.

Competing with other ways besides through price competition. Most common ways are product differentiation, advertising and entry barriers.

Government restrictions. Sometimes governments operate with severe barriers to entry of new firms. They prevent the entry of new firms from licensing, patents, etc. quotas. So the market will operate only a few powerful firms. In the case of banks Central Bank sets limits.

3. Banking market and some of its features.

Albanian banks market dynamics from 1991 to today. Until 1992, the banking system has been a layered. In 1992 began the reform of banking system restructuring. Reform the system has gone through several stages.

= 1992-1997. In this period of time have ruled entirely state-owned banks that dominate 90% of deposits. This period was characterized leisurely a very low level of lending to the economy due to the currency outside banks was such mivele. In 1997 the Savings Bank was established.

= 1998-2003. In 1998 both went bankrupt state-owned banks. BTA was absorbs from NCB and NCB itself was privatized in 1999. Was privatized in 2003 the Savings Bank. Savings banks owned about 52% of the market value of assets, 56% deposit and only 1% of the bank loan market. Most of its assets invested in financial assets by government owned about 80% of the market treasury bills. During this period, the number of second-tier banks and added seven new private banks. During these years the banking system was expanded and increased volume of loans.

= 2004 onwards banking system is completely private. During these years are also licensed two other banks. Their total number today is 16 with about 530 branches and agencies scattered across the country.

Some of the more general banking market. The banking market is part of the financial market. It has the features and characteristics of the branch that generally determined by the characteristics of banking products, the sellers and buyers, the ease of entry and exit in the branches, knowledge of costs and prices of products etc. Initially, we explain the term "product" banking. Product term will determine the inclusion of services in the general category. Among the products and services has many changes that deserve attention in their explanation. Services are essentially no tangible activities that ensure the fulfillment of requirements and that it is not necessary to be associated with the sale of a product or service to another. Health care, private education, transport, communications and professional services are examples of industrial services. Characteristics of banking services can define as follows:

Are no tangible

Are inseparable

Are not homogeneous but not heterogeneous

Are subtle, and ever changing requirement

Services are not tangible. Since services can not be seen, be operated, tested, affected by different experiences or feel. For all is more necessary to emphasize the provision of earnings from these services.

Services are inseparable. In general it is impossible to separate the product and the service is consumed.

Services are not completely homogeneous. It is not possible to have the exact same standard of service in every office and in every moment. It is very easy to mass produce products that are standardized. It is difficult to standardize banking services. So it is very important for the bank or other service companies to pay particular attention to sales and product knowledge training and standardization of the final operations of services in order to ensure high quality. Therefore we consider banking services not homogeneous but not heterogeneous. Service credit is the same in all banks. All banks make short term loans, medium and long term, and provide home mortgage loans without collateral, lend differentiated for students or businesses. Change in general interest rate and in the manner of disbursement. The same can be said for deposits, are short-term, and long afatnesëm. Interest rates vary from. Even here we have differences because deposits for children and different payment terms. Regarding market assets banks buy government debt instruments generally. It's the same active buying all. Interest rate changes only. In general we can say that the services are similar. They meet every buyer the same application, the need for money.

Fluktacioni delicacy and demand. Sometimes services are very delicate since they can not be saved. For example, when cashiers are tired can not be used as extension services on special days of the week when long queues formed.

The combination of delicacy and fluktacioni products are stirring demand for employees in the planning process of product, price, promotion and distribution in the area of the bank.

Regarding demand fluktacionit characteristic is the fact that the decision in purchasing banking services becomes unique. Banking may not include repeat sales for many consumer products. If consumers do not buy a kind of paste this month they can buy it next month. Banks have no chance to reach the client. Finally the introduction of ATMs for payment has facilitated the routine work of bank employees.

The size and distribution of banks. The structure of the banking industry directly affects the competitiveness of the banking enterprise markets. How much higher is the competition are lower interest rates on loans and the higher interest rates are for deposits. In the banking market have a dypol banks. 6 strong bank that is one pole and 10 small banks is another pole. Few of these banks extend their activities across the territory of Albania.

 Entry in the banking industry. Adjustments on the matter relating to the promotion or restriction of entry, resulting in increasing or restricting competition. If the monopolistic market structure, there is no restriction on access to or exit from the branch, there are limitations in the banking market. This is because each commercial bank to be established must meet a set of conditions and then licensed by the Bank of Albania.

Entry into banking market is regulated by the Law "On Banks in the Republic of Albania" and bylaws, which are issued pursuant to this Law, the regulations for the licensing of banks. Licensing and monitoring authority is the Bank of Albania. The main objective of the Bank of Albania is to provide a greater alignment with international standards and criteria. The policy of the Bank of Albania for licensing can be assessed as relatively liberal and non-discriminatory. From 1990 to 1999 the banking system was added 11 new banks. The Bank of Albania has the right of final decision for approval or rejection of applications for opening new banks. The decision is not appealable bank. The main requirements for opening a bank are:

-Capital and its origins;

-Professional competencies and personality future administrators of the bank;

-Shapes bank organization and rules for its administration and operation;

Business-plan and its adaptability.

These requirements are the same as for domestic banks as well as foreign ones, including a branch of a foreign bank.

Albanian legislation makes no distinction between resident and non-resident applicants. They comes treated equally. In these circumstances it is difficult to access the banking system. There is as monopolistic competition that anyone can enter. Here have big capital and expertise, along with a well-crafted plan.

Offset of banks expands competition and therefore increases the quality of bank services. In the Banking market In Albania nowdays operate about 530 bank branches and agencies.

Bank merger or absorption is another regulation of the banking structure. Approval of absorption of a single bank takes into account two factors: the financial condition of banks and the level of competition. In the process of absorption of a bank being liquidated and absorbed by another bank, it is important to remember that after absorbing low level of competition and in some cases may create monopoly position. In Albania we have four such cases but have not brought the change of the structure of the banking market.

Offer and its characteristics in the banking market. Represented by 16 banks offer their services. There are the same size. The two largest banks hold 45.53% of assets and three largest banks hold 56% of them. A bank has less than 5 million worth of assets, two banks have from 5-15 million and 13 others have over 15 million. Have common procedures of establishing liability. They accept deposits from different economic entities. Banks make loans and buy denominated financial assets, euros and dollars. Term loans and offer different interest rates. Buy the same financial asset, sovereign debt instruments (Treasury Bills).

Demand and its characteristics in the banking market. Demand for loans. Demand for credit is represented by economic entities, business or individual to obtain credit or loans. Demand for sale financial assets. The main applicant seeking to sell financial assets (debt instruments) is the state with treasury bills and bonds. If bank customers that create liabilities are any individuals and businesses, bank customers seeking loans in the form of loan or the sale of assets are separate.

If we analyze the relationship between these two indicators will look that has a moderately strong positive sense. The correlation coefficient is +0.7033. Normally the connection between them should be negative because the reduction of the interest rate will reduce interest rates on loans, making them more palatable. In this way would increase the money in

circulation causing rising inflation. In fact the opposite has happened. Both are sitting. This further shows the complete lack of effect of monetary policy trasmisionit commercial banks. This can be seen from the chart below.

Second, we did not follow trasmisionit effect on the interest rate of loans and deposits in the same way.

The correlation coefficient between the repo and 1-year deposit rate is 0.95. This coefficient shows that decreases the repo rate is reflected in a nearly full deposit rate. Trasmisionit effect was complete. There was complete because its reduction is in the interest of commercial banks and not in the interest of depositors.

The correlation coefficient between the interest rate of 1-3 year loans and repo is only 0.74%. This shows that we have a strong and reliable. The data are presented in table and chart below:

The graph and table no.2 data shows that the difference between the rates of loans and deposits has increased. This has occurred by monitoring the effect of deformed repo in commercial banks. In this case you are injured depositors lower interest rates on deposits and loans kredimarësit rates have not changed much compared with declining deposit rates. Because banks have gained increased spread between interest rates.

Third, has negatively affected the distribution of assets in terms of lending and investment in instrrumenteve debt (Treasury bills). Decreased the percentage of credit and increased the proportion of investment in treasury bills. Trasmisionit effect has not been very positive in terms of increasing the stock of loans as a result of the fall of the stated interest rates. Most to this action, lowering the repo rate has benefited government than business. Here crowding out effect which clearly shows Table No.4. The data presented in the table below.

The data clearly shows that deposits grew by 43.5% while only 24.5% loans. The difference between deposits and loans almost doubled. Stock appreciation has gone into buying government debt instruments as well as a currency is invested outside the territory of Albania. Loans to deposit ratio has been decreased. This is clearly seen from the chart below.

These three indicators show clearly the situation of the Albanian banking market concentration. Such a situation can not be in a monopolistic market structure but can only be a pure oligopoly or not clean.

Measurement of market concentration in the banking sector.

The volume of deposits and loans in absolute ALL has increased. Growth is also in the ratio between loans and deposits by 38.1% in 2009 to 44.5% in 2014. If we take the degree of connectivity in the last 4 years of the loan / deposit ratio in% and interest rates show that is only 0.460. This correlation coefficient indicates that there is a weak link between credit and growth rates of loans to deposits. This means that the effect of trasmisionit is not fully conveyed in increasing the percentage of loans to deposits in domestic currency. If we compare this table with data table 4 look at the total loan to deposit ratio decreased, ALL credit to deposit ratio has increased. This means that the business is paying increasing attention in domestic credit, but the figures remain very low. Only 44.2% of deposits have gone kredidhënje while the rest went towards financial assets.

The degree of concentration of bank loans 6 is about 82% which means that we try to oligopoly and monopoly. With 69.7% concentration limits are still branches of oligopoly. HHIk, CCIk and htike indicate moderate. If we assume that 86% of loans, deposits and profits will have one bank and 14% will have other banks will result 0.322 coefficient we would call a real monopoly structure. If we clean then the market would be 0067. HHIk and htike situation is between pure market and monopoly, 0.146 and 0.134. If the group the six as a separate bank and 10 other pole as the other pole would then have a genuinely political oligopoly where the bank is seen with 6 steering and second with ten others will be satellites. Within each group, each pole have monopolistic market. Only this differentiation, the two poles of the structure reveals the truth of this market. Largest banks have 82% of loans and others have 18%.

3.2 Measuring the concentration of deposits

Deposits have increased. 2014 compared to 2009 they increased by 140%. All deposits for this period increased by only 133%. Dynamics of total deposits in domestic currency and is given in Table. 5. From the table we see that the decrease of deposits to total deposits. By occupying 55.7% in 2009 to total deposits in 2014 they accounted for only 52%.

Profit is one of the more synthetic indicators for the outcome of all the activity of an enterprise. The data show that six largest banks receives 96.6% of its HHI and HTI have maximum numbers, so the CCI. This indicator gives the most significant degree of concentration of commercial banking system. It is very important to mention here that the reduction of interest rate by the Bank of Albania is associated with a decline in domestic interest rates, and is not associated with changing loan rates by increasing the difference between them. In this way they have increased their profits. Banks that have stocks of Lek's refusal loan businesses use to purchase treasury bonds. Increasing the stock of available appreciation

has led to significantly lower their cost. So from these actions the bank has won government since decreased its cost of debt and lost business who is credited less in the last year.

In table 11 we have given the extent of links between the above indicators. The data shows that the indicators have a high degree type connection. This statement supports the conclusions we have reached above the level of concentration of loans, deposits and profits.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Banking market structure is oligopoly. Indicators that we analyzed show that their concentration level is high. The situation of the banking market dominance has caused some negative consequences.

Has reduced the effectiveness of monetary policy of the Bank of Albania in the field of trasmision the effect of interest rate. There have pursued policies BOA but the interest rates are set according to their policies and interests. So based on interest rates, which have decreased from 6.25% in 2009 to 2.5% in May 2014 are not associated with declining interest rates in domestic credit. They have remained high while quotas are cut deposits rates. In this way, the financing of the economy remains costly.

Reduced effectiveness of the transmission mechanism of decisions on the economy and is hampering implementation faster pace of indirect instruments of monetary policy. Lowering key interest rates is not accompanied by increased inflation rate but is associated with decreased it. In this regard, the Bank of Albania has lost its control over the monetary market. This not only of concentration but also on the traffic in the form of deposits and loans of the euro dollar.

They kept high costs of providing services to customers, not only high rates of loans and deposits lower commissions but also banking and other services.

Recommended to gradually decrease the amount of credit in euros and dollars.

Establish a wholly-owned agricultural bank in the state so that it can allow trasmisionit effect.

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Tables and figures

Table No. 1 Correlation between inflation rate and basic interest rate

Years	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
The REPO rate%	5.25	5	4.75	4	3	2.75
Ave. inflation rate %	2.28	3.56	3.45	2.04	1.94	1.8

Fig. No. 1 Relationship between the inflation rate and the REPO rate
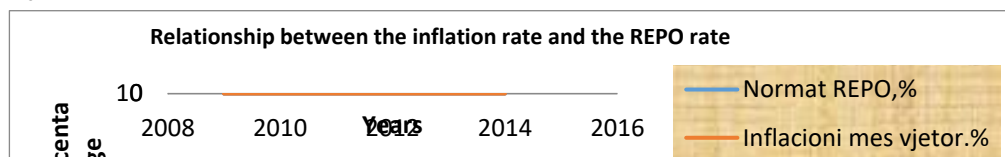
Table No.2 dynamics loan interest rates from 1 to 3 years old and 1-year deposit rate. The difference between them in proportion.

Years	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
The REPO rate, %	5.25	5	4.75	4	3	2.75
1 year deposite rate %	6.78	6.4	5.78	5.38	4.17	2.46
1-3 years deposite rates %	15.75	15.68	13.45	14.35	13.99	12.93
The rate of credit-deposit rate	8.97	9.28	7.67	8.97	9.82	10.47

Fig. No. 2 Dynamics and the difference between the loan rate and the 1-3 year deposit interest rate 1 year.
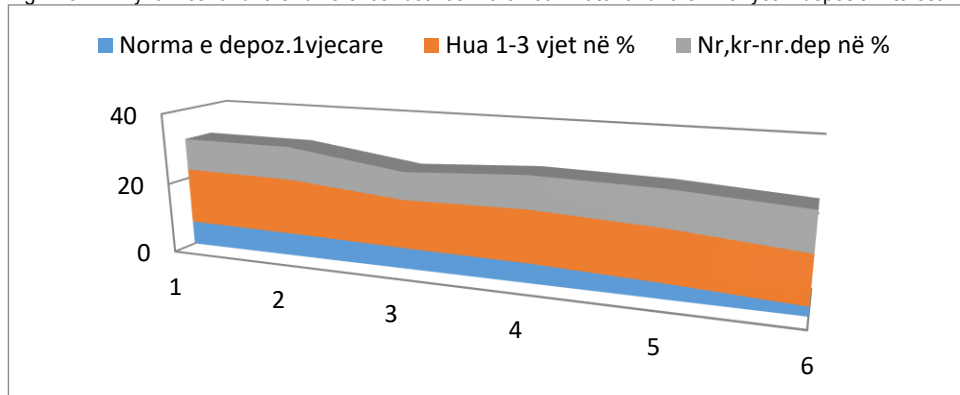
Table no. 3 Dynamics of loans and total deposits (currency, euros and dollars) expressed in billion and percentage

Years	Deposits	Loans	Dep-Loans(bili)	Loa/Dep %
2009	662.4	440.4	222	66.5
2010	785.2	483.1	302.1	61.5
2011	875.2	541.9	333.3	61.9
2012	930.7	554.7	376	59.6
2013	950.1	547.9	402.2	57.7

Fig. No.3 dynamics rate loan / deposit 2009-2013
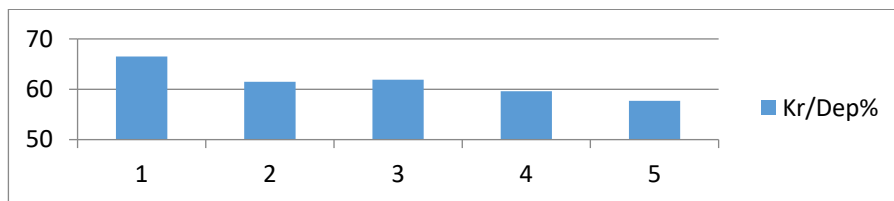
Table no. 4 Dynamics of deposits and loans in domestic currency. The loan to deposit ratio in percentage.

Years	Deposits	Loans	Loans/deposits %
2009	369, 137	140, 479	38.1
2010	409, 458	157, 197	38.4
2011	452, 080	188, 788	41.8
2012	476, 872	215, 122	45.1
2013	494, 279	219, 933	44.5
2014(II)	493, 322	218, 047	44.2

Fig. No. 4 Dynamics of deposits and loans in domestic
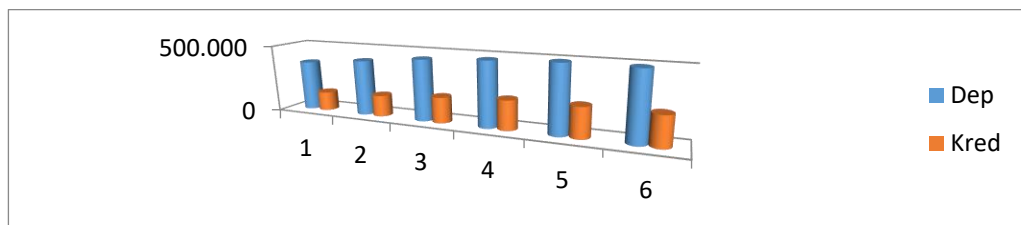
Concentration Gini coefficient for all loans to banks is as follows:

Table No.5 Gini coefficient for loans

2009	0.465
2010	0.490
2011	0.490
2012	0.484
2013	0.487

Fig.Nr .5 Lorenz Curve 2009 and Curve 2013 Lorentz
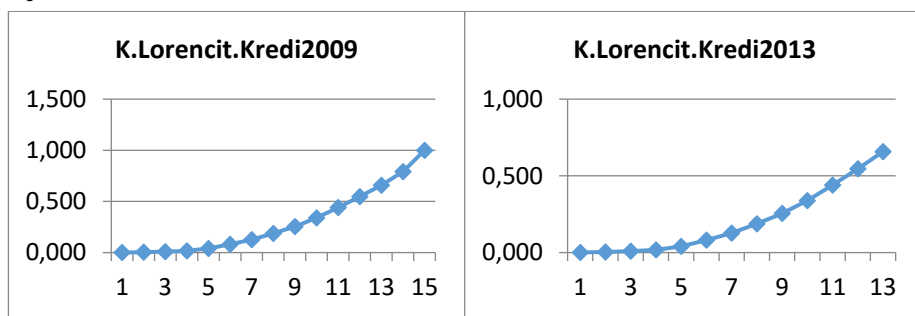
The Gini coefficient for loans is at a moderate level, around 50. This figure speaks for monopolistic competition but to attempt to oligopoly. Group other indicators given in Table no. 6.

Table No.6. Group 4 and 6 indicators for banks

Years	CR6K	CR4K	CR6branch	CR4branch	HHIk	HTIk	CCI loans
2009	61	55.95	73.37	59.0	0.1199	0.1305	0.3544
2010	79.4	62.4	74.4	60.7	0.1313	0.1402	0.3793
2011	79.9	64.2	76.2	59.3	0.1385	0.1445	0.3933
2012	75.3	60	70.3	53.4	0.1241	0.1290	0.3654
2013	81.9	65.9	69.7	53.0	0.1348	0.1416	0.3851

Table no. 7 Dynamics of total deposits and currency

Yars	Total Deposits	ALL Deposits	%
2009	662.4	369.1	55.7
2010	785.2	409.4	52.1
2011	875.2	452	51.6
2012	930.7	476.9	51.2
2013	950.1	494.3	52
2014(II)	946	493.3	52.1

Fig.Nr. 6 Dynamics of deposits and currency.
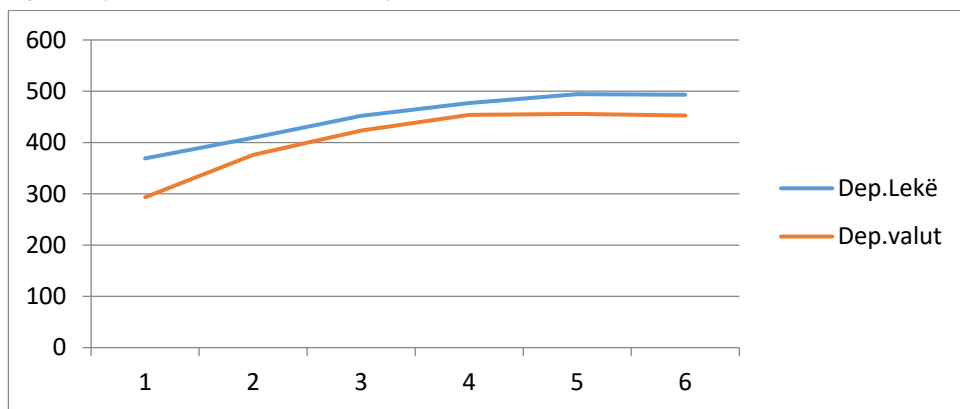
Table no. 8 Indicators synthetic deposits

Years	CR6D	CR4D	HHId	HTId	CCIdep
2009	81.8	68.1	0.1631	0.1623	0.4363
2010	87.6	72	0.1706	0.1701	0.4486
2011	86.3	72.7	0.1788	0.1745	0.4611
2012	81.2	67.4	0.1558	0.1508	0.4233
2013	86.6	72.1	0.1568	0.1583	0.4231

Concentration of synthetic indicators deposits are clearly at high levels belonging to more than the oligopoly structure of monopolistic competition. The Gini coefficient for deposits given in the table below. The data show that this ratio is high. Even we focus on this item. If we analyze two poles then most people have two much softer coefficients 0.242 and 0.319.

Table no. 9 Gini coefficient for deposits

2009	0.563
2010	0.576
2011	0.59
2012	0.543
2013	0.544

Fig.Nr 7 Lorenz Curve 2009 and Curve deposits deposits Lorentz 2013
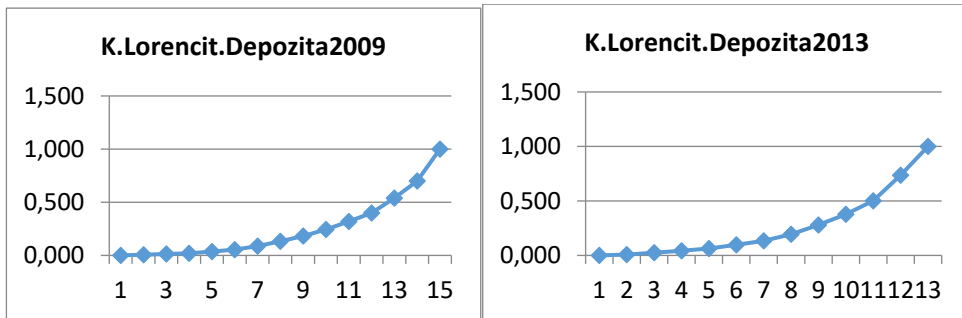
The conclusion is simple currency deposits have focus where six largest banks have 86.6 deposits, HHI and HTI are over 1500.

Table no. 10 synthetic indicator of profit

Years	CRF4	CRF6	HHIProfit	HTIprofit	CCIprofit
2009	70.9	95.3	0.2611	0.2505	0.5665
2010	89.9	96.5	0.2599	0.2618	0.5730
2011	78.6	95.9	0.2557	0.2546	0.5619
2012	84.8	92.9	0.3332	0.3232	0.6575
2013	92.0	96.6	0.3136	0.3168	0.6523

Table no. 11Tabela the Pearson correlation coefficient for the six largest banks.

	CR6 D+Ag j	CR 6D	CR 6K	HH Id	HT Id	HH Ik	HT Ik	HHI profi t	HTI profi t	CCI dep	CC I loa ns	CC I pro fit	Gin i Lo an s	Gini. Dep
CR6 D+Ag j	1	0.0 56 7	0.7 14 6	- 0.1 36 5	- 0.2 98 8	0.4 51 8	0.1 48 3	0.66 06	0.69 89	- 0.1 811	0.4 94 0	0.6 42 2	0.7 13 0	- 0.25 51
CR6 D		1	0.7 30 0	0.5 34 3	0.6 69 6	0.8 44 1	0.9 32 0	- 0.37 94	- 0.21 05	0.4 996	0.8 38 3	- 0.2 57 8	0.7 06 1	0.47 48

CR6K			1	0.1958	0.1944	0.8565	0.7135	0.2455	0.3921	0.1426	0.8788	0.3233	0.9728	0.0754
HHId				1	0.9616	0.5204	0.6057	-0.8338	-0.7864	0.9976	0.5364	-0.8334	0.3298	0.9912
HTId					1	0.5493	0.7020	-0.8969	-0.8233	0.9585	0.5489	-0.8604	0.2900	0.9627
HHIk						1	0.9483	-0.1484	0.0021	0.4630	0.9966	0.0582	0.8188	0.4162
HTIk							1	-0.3829	-0.2256	0.5580	0.9300	-0.2726	0.6702	0.5317
HHIprofit								1	0.9842	-0.8564	-0.1365	0.9881	0.1446	-0.8928
HTIprofit									1	-0.8171	0.0115	0.9964	0.2772	-0.8593
CCIdep										1	0.4803	-0.8616	0.2854	0.9969
CCIloansi											1	-0.0534	0.8564	0.4295
CCIprofitm												1	0.1993	-0.8980
Gini.Loans													1	0.2154
Gini.Dep														1

Students' First Language Skills After Six Years in Bilingual Education

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Abstract

The longitudinal study investigated the effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) on the development of children's literacy skills during their first six school years. In the three CLIL classes students studied, from the very beginning of the first grade, different school subjects in Finnish and in English. Three other classes were used as a control group. The students in those classes studied all school subjects in Finnish and started to learn English as a second language in third grade. At the beginning of the first grade, the level of school readiness was significantly higher in the bilingual classes than in the monolingual classes. At the end of the first grade, there was no significant difference in the literacy skills of the two groups, but after two study years, the reading and writing skills of the test group were significantly better than those of the control group. After four school years it was obvious that the children's creative writing skills had also benefited from bilingual teaching. The students in the CLIL classes had learned to pay attention to languages, as well to their mother tongue as to other languages. Moreover, they had more positive attitudes towards reading, writing and foreign language learning. Especially the boys' attitudes proved to be more positive in the CLIL classes than in the other classes. In addition, they enjoyed studying English and also studying through it. The students' spelling skills and ability to understand different texts were measured during the last month of their sixth school year. The measurements showed that the students in the CLIL classes had achieved significantly better first language spelling and reading skills than the students in the other classes. They made significantly less spelling errors and understood significantly better fiction, non-fiction, and newspaper texts. Furthermore, they showed more proficiency in deriving the meaning of new words from the written context than the other students. They succeeded significantly better in finding the most important facts of the non-fiction text and summarising the text than their peers in the other classes. It is worth mentioning that especially the boys seemed to have benefited from bilingual education: in the other classes the girls' skills were significantly better than the boys' but this was not the case in the CLIL classes.

Keywords: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), primary education, literacy skills, learning attitudes

Introduction

Foreign language competence is one of the main determinants of learning as well as personal mobility. Foreign language skills are needed for studying, employment, understanding of own and other cultures, and personal fulfilment. (Commission of the European Communities 2007.) However, a European survey on students' language competences shows that at the end of lower secondary education only four in ten students are able to have a simple conversation in a foreign language. At the same time, almost half of the Europeans say that taking part in a conversation in any foreign language is impossible for them. Consequently, it is important to improve the quality and increase the quantity of language teaching. This requires efforts in terms of teacher training, the development of new materials, and teaching methods. These investments will have a significant return, improving the efficiency of the whole labour market. The goal is that by 2020, at least 50% of 15 year olds is able to have a simple conversation in their first foreign language and at least 75% of the students in lower secondary education is studying at least two foreign languages. (Commission of the European Communities 2012.)

The national education systems of each state should enhance their efficiency in giving their students the language competences they need. The focus should be in 1) quantity (through early start, increased provision, teaching at least two foreign languages to all students, and increased exposure at school and through the media); 2) quality (through innovative teaching methods and teacher training, better opportunities of using language skills, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and development of ICT-based language learning resources); and 3) monitoring of learning results in order to identify strengths and weaknesses. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), mentioned above, can be an exceptionally efficient learning method because it increases language exposure, improves motivation, and links language acquisition to themes that have a concrete relevance for the learners. (Commission of the European Communities 2012.)

However, many educators and parents are concerned that teaching through a foreign language may have negative effects on the development of children's first language skills. In teaching, one should take into account that a child's mother tongue is the basis of all learning. A considerable amount of work in school involves reading and activities closely related to reading. Reading skills, including being capable of discovering the meaning and of finding information in written texts, and learning to remember this information and to relate it to previous knowledge, are the necessary tools for the study of almost any subject of instruction. (Hannon 1997; Whitehead 1999.) A child who does not learn to read and comprehend different texts in the early school years will have severe difficulties also when studying other school subjects. For instance, when studying mathematics and practical school subjects a student has to read and understand various instructions in order to carry out a task or solve a problem. Good readers are more successful in almost any school subjects than those whose reading skills are poor. Therefore, it is important to develop the children's language-based study skills systematically. They should acquire knowledge of language and literature in increasingly demanding language-usage situations and learn to evaluate and observe themselves as readers. Furthermore, they should learn strategies that help them to comprehend these diverse texts. The older the students get the more they need good reading skills to acquire new information and the more complex texts they have to be able to comprehend. (Bowyer-Grane & Snowling, 2005; National Core Curriculum for Basic Education, 2004; McGee & Johnson, 2003.)

In CLIL, the content of all teaching has to be concise in order to leave sufficiently time for teaching through a foreign language. The risk that this involves is that the children may not have enough time to practise their literacy skills. In today's society it is important that children achieve a good, versatile command of both their first language and foreign languages. Therefore, it was a matter of importance to find out whether CLIL can affect the development of children's literacy skills in a negative manner. Another matter that has caused concern amongst educators is the literacy skills of boys. In PISA 2012 (the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment) girls achieved better scores than boys in reading literacy in all OECD countries. A disquieting result is that between PISA 2000 and PISA 2012 the gender gap in reading performance widened in 11 countries. To close the gender gap in reading performance, new ideas aiming to attract interest and engagement among boys in literary culture are badly needed. (OECD, 2013; Välijärvi et al., 2007.) The aim of the study described in this article was to find out whether students' reading and writing skills develop equally well in CLIL as in regular education. Moreover, the study aimed to explore if there was a difference in the development of boys' and girls' literacy skills in CLIL and in regular classes.

First language skills

Reading is thinking cued by written language. A skilful reader finds – when reading fiction as well as non-fiction – several pieces of information in the text that make the understanding easier. Effective readers locate the basic facts from the text. When reading non-fiction, a reader needs to comprehend the topic, learn new facts related to it, and be able to find and remember the important information. (Scharer, Pinnell, Lyons, & Fountas, 2005.)

There are four key elements that are central to comprehension processes: prior knowledge, inferential reasoning, self-regulation, and affective variables connected to efficacy and motivation. The readers with prior knowledge of the topic and the structure of an informational text are the most able to mentally organize and remember the ideas the text provides. Inferential reasoning refers to a reader's ability to 'read between lines'. He or she makes connections that are not clearly expressed in the text. Inferential reasoning is an essential factor of skilled reading. A reader with sufficient prior knowledge of the topic makes more inferences than a less knowledgeable reader in order to make his or her comprehension easier. The term self-regulated reading refers to self-questioning and repair processes. Skilful readers are consciously aware of efficient information-seeking processes. They control these processes by choosing alternative strategies when others do not work. (Coiro & Dobler, 2007.)

Good readers summarise while reading and it helps them to remember and connect the important ideas of the text. Nevertheless, many students struggle with determining the main ideas and themes of the text as well as combining similar ideas, and synthesising them into a coherent whole. Often they just repeat most of the text or give a very vague statement. Still, a good summary should give a whole picture of the story and include only the important parts in the same order as the text as well as knowledge of how they are related. (Diehl, 2005.)

The process of writing can be defined as planning and reviewing. Planning includes idea generating, translating involves text generating and transcription, and reviewing comprises evaluating and revising. To become a good writer a student needs to learn to construct meaningful sentences that express his or her ideas, emotions and views appropriately and in a creative and mature style. In addition, a writer should have knowledge of how to use grammatically accurate language and

adequate syntactic, morphological and semantic elements in his or her texts. (Berninger, Abbot, Whitaker, Sylvester, & Nolen, 1995; Hurry & Doctor, 2007.)

An important goal of literacy teaching is to awaken students' interest in language and literature and give them a lasting positive attitude towards reading. Children who are motivated to read spend more time reading than their less motivated peers. Unfortunately, poor readers are often unmotivated to read. Consequently, the difference between their respective levels of reading skills becomes even more significant. The aim of literacy teaching is to support the development of students' ability to read, interpret and use different texts. Each student should adopt a habit of evaluating and observing himself or herself as a reader. In addition, he or she should learn to select appropriate reading material for different purposes and to find information in various sources. (Merisuo-Storm, 2006.)

There are numerous reasons why a person can be interested in reading and writing. Children can read for pleasure, to get new information, or because it is a part of a classroom task. Writing can be a tool for social interaction or a creative activity a child enjoys. Consequently, one can consider reading and writing as tools to be used in learning and communicating but also as interesting activities. (Nolen, 2007.)

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL)

There are at least thirty-three different terms that refer to some type of bilingual education. For instance, 'content-based language teaching', 'language-based content instruction', 'language sensitive content instruction', and 'content-enhanced teaching' refer to bilingual models where language and content are integrated. The term 'immersion' should only be used to refer to Canadian bilingual education and its replicas elsewhere. In European Union, two acronyms are used to distinguish European bilingual education models from other similar programs elsewhere: CLIL for Content and Language Integrated Learning and EMILE for Enseignement d'une matiére intégrée á une langue étrangère. CLIL is an umbrella term that is used to describe educational methods where subjects are taught through a foreign language. It refers to an educational approach where curricular content is taught through the medium of a foreign language to students participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level. However, it does not cover language maintenance programs for minority or lesser-used languages. In those programs, the entire curriculum is given in the minority language for its speakers. For instance, in Wales there are schools where Welsh-speaking children are taught in Welsh. In addition, teaching children of immigrant language backgrounds in mainstream language is not considered CLIL education either. (Beardsmore, 2009; Dalton-Puffer, 2011.)

The acronym CLIL is the platform for a methodological approach of far broader scope than language teaching. It aims to develop proficiency in a curriculum subject as well as in the language through which it is taught. Achieving this twofold goal requires an integrated approach to instruction and learning. In CLIL education, the non-language subject is not taught in a foreign language but with and through a foreign language. Therefore, the teachers should not only consider how languages should be taught, but also think about the educational process in general. (Beardsmore, 2009; Content and Language Integrated Learning at School in Europe [CLIL], 2005.)

Bilingual education uses two languages to educate generally, purposefully, equitably, and for the tolerance and appraisal of diversity. The narrower goal of foreign language teaching is to learn an additional language. Bilingual education aims also to help students to become global and responsible citizens as they learn to function across cultures and worlds. (García, 2009.) The differences between bilingual education programs and language education programs are displayed in Table 1.

CLIL programs include typically following characteristics: The language used is not a second language (L2) but a foreign language (most often English) that children encounter mainly in the classroom. The teacher is normally not a native speaker of the target language and instead of being a language specialist he or she is most often a content expert. The lessons are timetabled as content lessons (e.g. biology, music, history) and language experts teach the target language separately from CLIL lessons in foreign language lessons. Usually less than half of the contents in the curriculum is taught in the target language. In short, CLIL is a foreign language enrichment attached to content teaching. (Dalton-Puffer 2011; Nikula, Dalton-Puffer & Llinares, 2013.)

The view of content-based language learning as an efficient method of obtaining language proficiency has been supported by Krashen's studies about language learning. He distinguishes between language learning and language acquisition. Language acquisition occurs when a person receives and understands messages in a foreign language. It is possible only when he or she has the opportunity to hear a sufficient amount of language. The language material has to be selected to meet, for the most part, the student's level of understanding and yet to be partly beyond it. Thus, it is possible that the

student infers the meaning of new words and expressions from the context, and acquires knowledge of the language in the same manner as an infant acquires his or her first language. (Krashen, 1992.)

However, language usage is always interactive and, consequently, it is important that the students are not reduced to passive receivers. They should be encouraged to use the foreign language to communicate meaning and receive feedback from the teacher and from the other students. (Hedge, 2000.) When students get new information through the medium of a foreign language and have opportunities to practise their language skills in genuine communicative situations they find language learning purposeful and learn effectively. (Met, 2004; Richards & Rodgers, 2001.)

Study

The main goal of the study was to find out if bilingual education affects the development of students' first language literacy skills negatively or if children in CLIL education achieve the same level of literacy as their peers who study exclusively in Finnish. Another goal was to explore if there is a difference in the development of boys' and girls' literacy skills in CLIL and in regular classes. The development of the students of six classes in three schools in southern Finland was observed from the beginning of the first grade to the end of sixth grade. At the beginning of the first school year in these classes there were 138 students, 78 of them studied in the CLIL classes and 58 in the other classes. In the CLIL classes 20–25 per cent of the teaching was in English.

Table 2 shows what skills were tested in the five measurements that were conducted during the research period. The students' starting level was measured at the very beginning of their first school year. At that time, they were six or seven years old. The initial test was used to measure their general level of school readiness, auditory and visual perception, mathematic skills and memory. The results showed that the students in the CLIL classes had, as a group, better initial skills than the students in the other classes. This was due to the entrance procedures for the CLIL classes. When selecting students, the emphasis in many schools was laid on the applicants' linguistic skills. Therefore, it is not surprising that in the initial test the students in the CLIL classes had considerably more success in the tasks that measured phonological and phonemic awareness. However, it should also be pointed out that although the students in the CLIL classes showed, as a group, a higher starting level, there were on the one hand in the control group students who showed excellent performance in the initial test and on the other hand in the CLIL classes students who had poor initial skills.

The students' spelling skills were measured in first, second, and sixth grade with writing from dictation tests. When the children were in fourth grade the focus was on their creative writing skills and attitudes towards reading, writing and language learning. Three reading tests were used to measure the students' reading skills at the end of the first, the second, and the sixth school year. In the first and the second grade the reading tests included reading aloud and reading comprehension tasks and in sixth grade the reading test measured the students' ability to comprehend different kinds of texts. All the measurements were performed in class, and on average no more than one lesson (45 minutes) was used during the same day for measurements. The test results were analysed using an SPPS program. The results may have been somewhat effected by the loss in the number of the students. At the end of the sixth school year only 60 per cent of the students (n=134) were the same as in the beginning of the first school year. However, it is worth mentioning that in the CLIL classes the wastage rate of the students was notably smaller than in the other classes. The families were in most cases so happy to have their children in a CLIL class that they did not want to move them to another school.

In this article the main focus is on the sixth grade measurements and the results of the previous measurements are presented only briefly.

Writing

As was mentioned above, the students' spelling skills were measured in first, second, and sixth grade with writing from dictation tests. At the end of the first school year, there was no significant difference in children's spelling skills in the bilingual classes and the other classes. However, after the second study year the students in the CLIL classes made significantly less spelling errors than the students in the other classes (t= 4.83, p= .000). At fourth grade, the focus of the study was on the students' creative writing. They wrote a story about someone's journey to a place that is very different from where he or she lived. The writers were encouraged to use colourful and rich language, and invent interesting and amusing events. The stories composed by the students in the CLIL classes showed that they had learned to pay attention to their first language as well as to other languages. The Finnish language that they used in their stories was significantly more often colourful and rich than the language in the stories composed in the other classes (t= 5.19, p= .000). Furthermore, they described significantly more often and in a more detailed manner the differences between home and the

new place (t= -5.17, p= .000), as well as the appearance and the characteristics of the characters (t= -3.15, p= .002). There were 138 stories altogether. When selecting the twenty best stories out of them, the main criteria that were used were their individuality, eventfulness, story structure, rich and colourful language, and fluency of narration. The attention was also paid to the fashion in which the author sketched the difference between home and the new place and described the characters of the story, and whether he or she had shown original thinking or made clever remarks. Of the twenty stories that best met these criteria, seventeen came from the CLIL classes and only three from the other classes.

At the end of the sixth school year the students in the CLIL classes had significantly better spelling skills than their peers in the other classes (t= 4.22, p= .000). There was a strong correlation between the results of the sixth grade spelling test and the spelling tests of first and second grade (r= .44, p= .000; r= .65, p= .000). Table 3 shows the results of the sixth grade spelling test. In the CLIL classes 23 per cent of the students and only 10 per cent of the students in the other classes had excellent marks. In the other classes 10 per cent of the students had made so many errors in the writing from dictation task that their marks were very poor. No one in the CLIL classes had performed equally poorly in the task. In the regular classes, the girls' marks were significantly better than the boys' marks (t= -2.76, p= .007), however, this was not the case in the CLIL classes. Moreover, the boys' marks in the CLIL classes were significantly better than the boys' marks in the other classes (t= 4.24, p= .000) but there was no significant difference in the marks of the girls of the two groups.

In the sixth grade the most common errors in the students' papers were compound word mistakes and capital letter mistakes. In Finnish language there is a large number of very long words and compound words that are written as one word and often children have difficulties in writing them correctly. It seems, however, that the different ways of writing compound words and using capital letters in Finnish and English had not increased the number of these errors in the CLIL classes. On the contrary, the students in the regular classes made them significantly more often than the students in the CLIL classes (t= -3.37, p= .001; t= -4.46, p= .000).

Reading

After the first and the second school year the students in the CLIL classes read with greater accuracy and speed than the students in the other classes. After two school years, especially the reading comprehension skills were significantly better in the CLIL classes than in the other classes (t= 7.10, p= .000). When observing the students who started school with a poor level of school readiness or the students who started school with an excellent level of school readiness, there was no significant difference in regard to the development of literacy skills in the CLIL and the regular classes.

During the last weeks of the sixth school year, the students' reading comprehension skills were measured with a test that consisted of three different texts. In addition, the focus was on the students' ability to derive the meaning of a word from the written context and to summarise a text. The first text was a story written by H.C. Andersen, the second a newspaper article about H.C. Andersen, and the third a non-fiction text about orang-utans and their living conditions in today's world.

H.C. Andersen's story was called "What the old man does is always right". After reading the story, the students answered 20 questions. In this section of the test, the difference between the two groups was not significant (t= 2.21, p= .029, Table 4). However, the students in the CLIL classes proved to have heard or read more Andersen's stories than their peers in the other classes. They could significantly more often produce a title of another story by Andersen. The difference between the two groups was significant (t= 4.11, p= .000).

The second text in the reading comprehension test was a newspaper article about H.C. Andersen. After reading the article, the students' task was to answer ten questions and explain the meaning of ten words picked from the text. In these tasks, the students in the CLIL classes performed significantly better than the students in the other classes (t= 3.16, p= .002, Table 5). Their scores varied from 20 to 8 and the scores of the students in the other classes from 19 to 3. The students in CLIL classes performed especially better in word explaining task than the students in regular classes. Both, the boys and the girls in CLIL classes had significantly better scores in the task than the boys and the girls in the other classes (t= 2.65, p= .010; t= 3.25, p= .002).

The third section of the test proved to be the most difficult. The students were asked to read a non-fiction text about orang-utans and their living conditions in today's world and then write a five-sentence summary of it. It was stressed that the summary should include the most essential aspects of the text. In the CLIL classes there was no difference in the results of the three sections of the test. However, in the other classes finding the most important facts in the text and summing them up into five sentences appeared to be significantly more difficult than answering the questions in the two previous sections. In the CLIL classes almost half of the students (48 %) and in the other classes only 11 per cent of the students achieved excellent or very good marks in this section. In contrast, in the monolingual classes almost half of the students'

marks (46 %) were poor or fair but only 13 per cent of the students in the bilingual classes succeeded as poorly in summarising the text. The difference between the marks of the two groups was significant (t= 5.80, p= .000, Table 6). Also in this section of the test, both the boys and the girls in CLIL classes had significantly better scores than the boys and the girls in the other classes (t= 3.54, p= .001; t= 4.90, p= .000).

Attitudes towards reading, writing and language learning

The students' attitudes towards reading, writing and language learning were measured at the fourth grade. As was mentioned above, international assessments have shown that there is a significant gender gap in boys' and girls' reading performance in almost all countries. The differences in girls' and boys' skills are mainly due to their different attitudes towards reading related activities. These are a result of gender differences in values, goals and out-of-school activities. To decrease the gender gap, new ideas that seek to attract interest and engagement among boys in literary culture and that help them to find pleasure in reading, are badly needed. (Välijärvi et al., 2007.) Therefore, the positive results of the attitude measurements in CLIL classes were most encouraging.

The instrument that was used was a questionnaire including three twelve item sections (reading, writing, and language learning). Responses were made on a 4-point scale to avoid the possibility that students would select a neutral alternative. At that time the students in the regular classes had been taught English for nearly two years using a formal language-teaching method.   There was no significant difference in the attitudes towards reading and writing in the CLIL and the regular classes, whereas the girls' and the boys' opinions differed greatly especially in the regular classes. There the boys' attitudes towards reading and writing were more negative than the girls' attitudes. In the CLIL classes the boys' and the girls' opinions did not differ significantly in any of the twelve items in the reading section of the test. In contrast, in the other classes the boys' and the girls' attitudes towards, for example, reading books and reading aloud in class differed significantly. In the writing section of the questionnaire, writing poems was the only task towards which the boys in the CLIL classes had significantly more negative attitudes than the girls in the same classes. However, in the other classes boys gave, in addition, significantly more negative answers to the questions about being an author in the future, about writing to a pen friend, about keeping a diary, and about editing their texts.

When one examines the answers given to the questions on learning English, the difference between the students' attitudes in the CLIL classes and the other classes is clear. The students in the CLIL classes had significantly more positive opinions towards studying English than their peers in the regular classes (t= 4.86, p= .000). The total scores of the language learning section were significantly higher in the CLIL classes than in the other classes. It is worth mentioning that there was a significant difference (t= -2.98, p= .004) in the total scores of the boys and the girls in the other classes whereas this was not the case in the CLIL classes.

The results show that especially the boys seemed to benefit from the CLIL education. They had more positive attitudes towards reading and writing than the boys in the other classes. Consequently, they read more than the boys in other classes and as the results of the sixth grade reading and writing tests show, this had had a positive effect on their literacy skills.

Conclusion

The results of the study showed that bilingual education had not affected the development of the students' first language literacy skills negatively. After six study years the students in the CLIL classes had achieved significantly better spelling skills than the students in the other classes. Furthermore, the dissimilarities in spelling English and Finnish language did not seem to cause errors in writing Finnish. For instance, the different ways of writing compound words and using capital letters in the two languages had not increased the number of these errors in the CLIL classes. On the contrary, the students in the CLIL classes made them significantly less than the students in the other classes.

In sixth grade, the students in the CLIL classes understood different texts better than their peers in the other classes. They succeeded equally well in comprehending fiction, non-fiction and newspaper texts while the students in the other classes had much more difficulties in understanding the non-fiction text and the newspaper article than the narrative text. The students in the CLIL classes showed more proficiency in deriving the meaning of new words from the written context than the other students. This may be because they had learned to do that when reading and hearing the English language which often includes words unknown to them. In addition, they succeeded significantly better in finding the most important facts of the non-fiction text and summarising the text than their peers in the other classes.

The results revealed that in the CLIL classes the students' attitudes towards reading and writing were more positive than the attitudes of their peers in the regular classes. Although the boys, at the age of ten, did not appear to be as interested

in reading and writing as the girls, the difference between the attitudes of the two genders was not as apparent in the CLIL classes as in the other classes. Moreover, in the regular classes there was a significant difference between the boys' and the girls' attitudes towards language learning, whereas this was not the case in the CLIL classes.

Still, when assessing the results of the study it is necessary to keep in mind certain facts: Firstly, most parents whose children studied in the CLIL classes were interested in their children's studies and sought to help them to succeed in them. They attended parent–teacher meetings more often than parents on average. Furthermore, it is possible that they encouraged their children to read and write also outside school more often than other parents. All this has had a positive effect on the children's development. Secondly, the students in the CLIL classes showed, as a group, a higher starting level in the initial test six years earlier. Nevertheless, also in the CLIL classes there were children who at the beginning of the first grade showed poor starting level and in the regular classes children who showed excellent performance in the initial test. However, the results of the study show that even when the different starting levels of the two groups were taken in account the students' reading and writing skills developed at least equally well in CLIL education as when the students studied exclusively in their mother tongue. Studying through one or two languages did not appear to have any significant effect on the development of a student's literacy skills when his or her starting level at the beginning of the first school year had been poor of excellent.

The students in the CLIL classes had learned to pay attention to languages, as well to their mother tongue as to other languages. They were aware of several similarities and dissimilarities in the languages. For instance, in fourth grade the most distinguishable differences between the stories composed in the CLIL classes and in the other classes were related to the writers' consciousness of the existence of different languages. It was obvious that languages played a more important role in the lives of the students studying in the CLIL classes than for the students in the other classes.

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Tables

Table 1. Differences between Bilingual and Language Education

	Bilingual Education	**Foreign or Second-Language Education**
OVERARCHING GOAL	Educate meaningfully and some type of bilingualism	Competence in additional language
ACADEMIC GOAL	Educate bilingually and be able to function across cultures	Learn an additional language and become familiar with an additional culture
LANGUAGE USE	Languages used as media of instruction	Additional language taught as subject
INSTRUCTIONAL USE OF LANGUAGE	Uses some form of two or more languages	Uses target language mostly
PEDAGOGICAL EMPHASIS	Intergration of language and content	Explicit language instruction

Source: From García, 2009

Table 2. The five measurements conducted during the research period

MEASUREMENTS		
Measurement 1	**Measurement 2**	**Measurement 3**
FIRST GRADE AUTUMN - school readiness - auditory perception - visual perception - mathematical skills - memory	FIRST GRADE SPRING - reading accuracy - reading speed - reading comprehension - spelling	SECOND GRADE SPRING - reading accuracy - reading speed - reading comprehension - spelling
Measurement 4	**Measurement 5**	
FOURTH GRADE SPRING - attitudes towards reading - attitudes towards writing - attitudes towards language learning - creative writing	SIXTH GRADE SPRING - reading comprehension (fiction, newspaper text) - deriving word meaning from context (fiction, newspaper text) - summarizing (non-fiction) - spelling	

Table 3. The percentage distribution of the students' marks of the writing from dictation test in the CLIL classes and the other classes

SPELLING IN SIXTH GRADE		
marks	CLIL classes n = 62	other classes n = 71
excellent	23 %	10 %
good	70 %	56 %
fair	7 %	24 %
poor	-	10 %

Table 4. The percentage distribution of the students' marks in the fiction section of the reading comprehension test in the CLIL classes and the other classes

marks	CLIL classes n = 62	other classes n = 71
READING COMPREHENSION IN SIXTH GRADE (fiction)		
excellent	8 %	3 %
very good	32 %	20 %
good	48 %	57 %
fair	11 %	16 %
poor	1 %	54 %

Table 5. The percentage distribution of the students' marks in the newspaper section of the reading comprehension test in the CLIL classes and the other classes

marks	CLIL classes n = 62	other classes n = 71
READING COMPREHENSION IN SIXTH GRADE (newspaper)		
excellent	9 %	3 %
very good	34 %	22 %
good	48 %	50 %
fair	9 %	20 %
poor	-	5 %

Table 6. The percentage distribution of the students' marks in the summarizing section of the reading comprehension test in the CLIL classes and the other classes

marks	CLIL classes n = 62	other classes n = 71
READING COMPREHENSION IN SIXTH GRADE (summarizing)		
excellent	13 %	2 %
very good	34 %	9 %
good	40 %	43 %
fair	11 %	37 %
poor	2 %	9 %

Facebook as Space of Resistance for Indonesian-Postcolonial Identity

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Abstract

This paper aims to answer the problem of how Facebook functions to re-construct the Indonesian-postcolonial identity by means of narrative in marking the transition from colonized subjects to liberated beings. The reason why colonial discourse still dominates modern society is due to its ability to possibly re-generate the feeling of inferiority in native culture and perpetuate the patterns of behaviour even after the era of colonialism was over. Evidently, the coming of Internet in Indonesia is significant and highly relevant to postcolonial study only if it is grasped in relation to the preceding history of Indonesian 'old' media. If Internet is socially imagined as a powerful tool of opposition to authoritarianism, I will show how Facebook makes room for a voice of disapproval of the dominant systems and create an independent surveillance over state, opening up unconstrained participation of people who are used to live under authoritarian regimes. My analysis will be focused on the way Facebook provides a mechanism to formulate a 'new' community that hold power to form a collective struggle of those who were considered as the 'other' – the ones formerly excluded or marginalized from the oppressive discourse. Certain ideas are liberally spread out in Facebook, creating an unstoppable flow of resistance toward the dominant discourse and changing the face of the nation. I see narrative as the ideological apparatus that seeks to liberate marginalized subjects by giving them the power to interpret their own experience and subjectivity without conforming to the dominant discourse. The medium is now giving a sense of pleasure and fascination in designing the conception of being a free agent. The process of self-identification produces acts of contestation by making clear the fact that identity is historically unstable and an object of change and reconstruction.

Keywords: Identity, Narrative, Resistance, Postcolonial, the Other, Facebook

Introduction

Having suffered colonial domination and oppression for hundreds of years, Indonesia is struggling with the idea of being a nation in contemporary society. Even though the colonial period has ended, the colonial discourse remains and gives shape to anti-colonialist debates in the post-colonialist era which is materialized in the huge range of issues that shows the problematic concept of post-colonialism itself. The emergence of new media appears as a new area of enquiry within the discourse of post-colonialism and the problem of agency is the specific issue I focus on. The question of identity is central within postcolonial theories. It also has a considerable impact on the study of media. Postcolonial theories are continuously struggling with the idea of 'culture' especially when they claim to speak from the position of the marginal or the silenced. It means that these theories will always deal with identity as a construct, shaped and continuously transformed within new cultural conditions. The notion of agency is important in my thesis since I will scrutinize how identity under postcolonial discourse needs to be re-situated within the emergence of new media that put forward the political economy of signs as an inevitable part of hyper-capitalism. Thus globalization will never leave individuals free without trying to transform them as commodity. As the notion of power has unquestionably characterized the postcolonial discourse, it is interesting to see how new media have acted as an apparatus that bring the power of consumption as a means of understanding oneself. For this reason, my thesis is certainly an interdisciplinary study, positioning identity in contradiction - as an active agent that makes the most of new media but also nothing but a coded object materializing as an image.

Defined by anything but the West, Indonesia, which is living with the history of a former colonized country, was politically positioned to comply with the fate of being the 'Other'. Therefore, the notion of colonialism in this paper will be scrutinized within the discourse of Orientalism which gives a crucial impact in constructing the binary opposition of the Orient (the East) and the Occident (the West) in the contemporary system of representation. Said's thesis about Orientalism will be best in making clear that the Orient is not a natural condition - rather a construction made in order to support the authoritative position of the West, a western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient (Said, 1978; 3). The binary opposition the Orient - the Occident is not simply produced without involving a structured political domination between engaged parties.

While I focus my paper on the representational domain, I am fully aware that the relevance of postcolonial studies remains central. Its heterogeneous inter-disciplinary nature opens up diverse meanings and implications of the term 'postcolonialism'. The question of superiority and inferiority in the production of knowledge is mostly evident in the process of naming as it implies the power relation between the dominant and the dominated. A contemporary study on postcolonialism should take a specific case that illustrates the mechanism though which the former discourse of colonialism has been challenged by the emergence of new media as colonialism had deployed diverse strategies and methods of control and representation (Loomba, 1998; 19). As Orientalism proposes imaginative assumption about what Orient is, it is necessary to see how the so-called 'Orient' produces text about 'the self' instead of just becoming a fabricated construct, manufactured by the West. Therefore, the scope of my analysis in this chapter will be limited to answer the question whether the Indonesian-Orient can liberate themselves from the logic of subjugation and domination or reinforce the assumptions/stereotypes posed by the West to the Orient.

 I will advance my analysis by bringing the identity of the Orient into light pertaining to the problematical conception of agency in the virtual domain. Participatory culture as suggested by Jenkins has made it possible for the average consumers to archive, appropriate and re-circulate media content in powerful new ways (Jenkins, 2009; 8). Hence, it is hard to consent with Fernandez who says that postcolonial studies has a very few points of intersection (Fernandez, 1999; 59). Quite the contrary, key postcolonial issues, such as identity, representation, agency, gender, power and space have been inherently assigned to the new media discourse.

I have chosen Facebook as a specific case relating to the idea of agency, because during its rather short existence this social networking site has become the top-ranked site in Indonesia, beating Yahoo and Google.1 This fact was published in The Sidney Morning Herald and this news story triggered some debates among local religious groups, responding to the popularity of Facebook with accusations of spreading lies and gossips. When The Sidney Morning Herald announced about the popularity of Facebook in Indonesia, the article acknowledged Facebook as a current phenomenon, dictating public actions. In the article in this online newspaper, Facebook has been accused for strongly arousing moral indulgence, enabling people to exploit this site in an inappropriate manner. Facebook even brought together Indonesian Muslim clerics to come together and criticize the existence of this social networking site that has successfully attracted around 1-2 million people and makes Indonesia the fastest growing country on Facebook in Southeast Asia.2 About 700 Muslim clerics agreed and decided that Facebook is forbidden if it is used for spreading lies, gossips and sexual content, even though this edict did not carry any legal weight. The involvement of religious groups in the evaluation of Facebook has opened up a valuable debate about the meaning of technology for human experience and the consequences of adapting 'the self' in techno-culture, where identity is judged by the way individuals relate themselves to technology.

If technology continues to penetrate everyday life, it is understandable to worry about its capability to dominate both private and public spheres and challenge what was considered to be traditional values. Facebook can probably be perceived as seduction, provoking people to consume more texts and explore all the possibilities of what the medium can do. The seductive nature of the medium might also be the reason why the local government in Surabaya, the second biggest city in Indonesia, block access to Facebook and two other social networking sites for their employees during the office hours, arguing that civil servants, working for the local government, have wasted too much time using these services.3 What is it on Facebook that creates fascination and dread at the same time, establishes link between human and machine, fuses the real and the virtual in the new realm of reality', based on self-production and participation? This 'new reality' is the subject of my thesis which also bring me to examine how Facebook has promoted a space for resistance to the dominant ways of seeing by welcoming the users to create their own narratives and contribute to the definition of the new media.

New media now appear as a contemporary colonial discourse that works through the specific rhetoric, engaging people in a voluntary support of the imperialist projects. Facebook is a virtual world industry, an economic-oriented space intended to be the market leader in the real world. Sign becomes a commodity by generating 'needs' and offering a sense of individuality. The parade of images on Facebook reveals the fact that key categories of colonialism have been incorporated into the global market. Virtual commodities are linked with the actual substance, which distort the assumed border, dividing the virtual from the actual, which might not have actually existed before. It is intriguing to see how Facebook as a medium has captured the 'real self' and turned it into a sign that refers to 'the self'. At this point it is hard to recognize which one can

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1 http://www.smh.com.au/world/indonesia-gives-Facebook-the-nod-but-no-flirting-please-20090522-bi9v.html. Retrieved:10-09-2009
2 http://www.smh.com.au/world/indonesia-gives-Facebook-the-nod-but-no-flirting-please-20090522-bi9v.html &
http://globalvoicesonline.org/2009/01/11/indonesia-Facebook-users-on-the-rise/. Retrieved: 10-09-2009
3http://www.smh.com.au/technology/technology-news/Facebook-blocked-for-indonesia-city-employees-official-20090911-fjtt.html.
Retrieved: 10-09-2009

be considered 'the real self', since this digital apparatus replaces the real subject with an object. If this is the case, I wonder if Facebook has actually put an end to the notion of 'the subject'.

This makes me think that there is still a question that has not been answered adequately yet, namely, how the agency of the self should be re-positioned in the tension between the sovereign power of the subject, making the production of knowledge possible through re-narration, and the supremacy of the objects that forcefully transform any matters into signs? I believe that postcolonial studies need to be rethought within the political economy of signs, because colonialism is manifest in numerous different institutional and cultural practices. If this is the case, then I believe that the analysis of Facebook within the Indonesian context will produce a valuable study on how new media studies and postcolonial theory can mutually collaborate to tackle the challenge in incorporating the postcolonial subject not merely within a system of representation, but also by dealing with the propensity of the medium to absorb the content and question the supremacy of 'the subjects'. I will focus my analysis on the specificity of Facebook as the medium which brings the relation between the material and the ideological to light. The aptitude of Facebook will be elaborated to demonstrate the way postcolonial subjects represent themselves and are now responsible for their own images.

I will consider Facebook as narrative machine that provides freedom for users not only to relocate their world into texts within the realm of representation, but also to actually create the world in which the notion of agency manifests through the interpretation of events, without probing whether the events are real or imaginary. Rather I locate users' narratives within the social, cultural and historical frame in order to trace how Facebook gives form and mechanism for the reconstruction of the postcolonial subject. My research will explore the nature of Facebook and how it functions within the larger context of modern Indonesia. This thesis will define and typify what exactly within Facebook gives raise to the idea of the transformation of the colonized subjects into liberated beings in the contested sphere of the digital media. It is crucial to note that the agency of the self is placed in the paradox of having an ability to create narratives and being commodified as a system of sign at the same time.

Moreover, this thesis will also draw attention to the way new media possibly create a new form of narrative caused by its digital materiality - not simply technological, but also ideological. Considering narratives not only in terms of what they say or mean, but also in terms of what they do (Bassett, 2007; 41), I will closely delve into Facebook to give an idea on how postcolonial identity can be historically made and challenged by unmasking the work of new media as means to provide the subjects with a space to articulate their past and present, as well as organize their experience and make it meaningful to them. I will take Ricoeur's viewpoint that corresponds with Wittgenstein who says that the meaning of human existence is itself a narrative (Bassett, 2007; 27). By considering Facebook as a space allowing users to rethink current cultural moment, my analysis will be aimed to ask how new forms and elements of narratives evident in Facebook show that the relation between human and machine enables to rethink and reconstruct the agency of subject through the process of production and interpretation of texts. At this point, I depart from the premise that material reality exists outside Facebook, even though it can not be assured whether the narrative has been based on the real or imaginary events. What will be considered as 'the real' is everything that has been documented on Facebook, a cultural artifact that plays with three different principles of narrative discourse – mythic, historical and fictional (Ricoeur in White, 1987; 170). I attempt to uncover how the relation between these three principles turn human experience into signs, which possibly happens through human agents, active subjects and their quest for the meaning in their life.

Method

In order to produce critical insights for answer to the main research question this thesis is developed by investigating how the theoretical frameworks function throughout my analysis. I will draw on web sphere analysis and cybercultural studies to capture the means, patterns, artifacts, and mechanisms on Facebook with the intention to explore how postcolonial identities are reproduced through the relationship between the nature of Facebook as a medium and as a form of narrative, formed by abundant content produced by its users. My analysis is based on an understanding that Facebook brings about the problematical nature of the narrative in the digital age, since the process of remediation from old to new media has challenged the narrative's centrality and makes various forms of signs pervasive.

Since web materials are time-sensitive in their nature, an attempt to capture the reproduction of postcolonial identity should include the unique mixture of ephemeral and permanent aspects of the Web. This needs to be done as I will bring together the materiality of Facebook as a medium and the text - the content produced by the users. According to Kirsten Foot, there are two aspects of the ephemerality of Web content: firstly, it is ephemeral in its transience as it can be expected to last for only a relatively brief time, but still can be viewed again at a later time; secondly, it is ephemeral in its construction where the content, once presented, needs to be reconstructed or represented in order for others to experience it (Foot in Silver &

Massanari, 2006; 90). At the same time, Foot explains that the Web has a sense of permanence which is different from its predecessors (Ibid). I agree with Foot when she says that the permanence of the Web is somewhat fleeting, since it will be regularly demolished each time it is updated by its producers. However, this concept can not be fully employed to clarify the mechanism of Facebook, as it broadly gives room for the users either to restore prior content or to remove it.

The position of the researcher should be clarified and taken into consideration in order to ensure that the research material will be properly approached and investigated by answering the proposed research question. Having said this, I will interactively engage with the objects, since the position of the researcher in the hermeneutical cycle is critical and therefore requires participant observation, whereby the researcher will be an observer and a participant at the same time. This course of action is essential for the interpretation of texts as a way to engage with postcolonial subjects and identity, which will also be claimed and taken by the author of this thesis. For this consideration, as a researcher, I will actively engage with the texts investigated. It means that I will simultaneously play with the production and consumption of the text on Facebook. This should be done as means of understanding how the relation between machine and humans is persuasively affecting the formation of identity in the digital realm. This can be achieved only if I become part of the system - as a producer, turning myself into a sign, a text, and the object of study all at once.

There are two areas on Facebook as mechanisms of self-identification that I will investigate in order to see how subjectivities are performed by the postcolonial subjects, which are: 1) identification under the profile picture where the users can narrate their identity, and 2) political views under the section 'Info'. Considering the numerous amount of information that I can get from 1132 friends on my Facebook account, I will select only several relevant narratives that show variation of data.

Discussion

Re-Self-Narrating the 'Indonesian-Orient'

As the Orient was destined to be repressed and reduced to silence, new media have emerged to promote the participatory culture that provide a way for the Orient to have their own voices articulated and expressed without restraint. But it will be premature to suggest that new media stand only for the sake of the Orient, since no arena is completely free from ideological contestation. In order to show how the 'Orient' is a contested category and problematically constructed on Facebook, I will firstly take three statements made by the users on Facebook that address the idea of colonialism.

The first statement made by Jones Batara Manurung that directly articulates his thought into words: "Against Colonialism" as a way to portray his identity. I also take a look at the second statement made by Yordan M. Batara Goa on his profile which does not straightforwardly take in the word 'colonialism': "In which there is no exploitation of man by man, there is no exploitation of man by the state, no capitalism, no poverty, no slavery, no women who desperately miserable because of the double burden". The third statement is written by Budiman Sudjatmiko: "My life is going through the agreement I have made with the conscience of humanity. If we are willing to listen, this conscience of humanity will be here, sneaking in our childhood naïve questions. My life is seeking for the answers of those childhood questions". He also describes himself in these words: "I am a Palestinian in the West Bank of Jordan river, an Aymaran-speaking Indian who lives in the city of La Paz, an Afro-American in Mississippi... fighting for freedom, justice and liberation".

Yordan has cited one of Sukarno's speeches as a way to reveal himself and Budiman Sudjatmiko was well-known as Indonesian activist and politically abused in the New Order era. It is interesting to relate Yordan's profile with the fact that Sukarno employed Communist-rhetoric in his political system 'Guided Democracy'. Sukarno's vision of the nation was based on socialism. His support for the latter stems from his advocacy of the Third World as the opposition of imperialism, where the US and Britain are seen by him as the chief international agents (Vickers; 2005; 149). This policy was the complete opposite to the New Order which returned Indonesia to a basically pro-Western and pro-capitalist development (Philpott, 2000; 164). After Sukarno was overpowered by Suharto, communism was prohibited in Indonesian society which lead to the ban of any literature or media suspected of propagating this political agenda. There was nearly no media that gave significant space for self-articulation where Indonesian citizens could freely express their own political view and put their own viewpoint into words.

I see that the tendency of bringing the political affiliation publicly in the process of identification is made possible not only because Facebook provides the specific section about political view but also through the specificity of this medium in creating a space for 'forbidden' identity that formerly was restricted in the era of New Order and cannot be done in other kinds of media. Writing any statements that are opposed to the dominant discourse used to be considered as the act of threatening the unity of Indonesia and going up against the ruling government. The New Order effectively barred political activism and even political debate, exercising the authoritarian theory of media for the purpose of nation-building. (Sen &

Hill, 2000; 3, Kitley, 2000; 4). For me, it speaks to the fact that the emergence of new media fundamentally influences the formation and representation of the self since individuality is taking a crucial place in the media landscape.

Access to technological device is the vital thing needed to play part in the national discourse. Is the quest for hope to recover Indonesia from a long practice of colonialism finally realized by the new media? Have postcolonial subjects who are still striving to be completely free from modern colonialism worked out by indigenous people really been able to become the knowable man that can liberally perform their resistance strategically? Surprisingly, there is no word of Indonesia mentioned in these two statements and in other sections on his Facebook account. Instead of mentioning 'Indonesia', stating three other national identities all at once is his choice. At this point, narratives, symbols and rituals that constitute a sense of mutual and national belonging are something that can possibly be shared with other nations. Freedom, justice and liberation are what Budiman has in mind when he personally approaches the idea of nation, not by plainly ascribing the mutual sense of community as a nation but also positioning nationalism in the global perspective. Budiman Sudjatmiko has mentioned three different identities that both represent the trivial figure, marginalized groups of people that live in separate geographical space but share the same vision of freedom, justice and liberation. Every identity might experience the different sites of oppression, diverse ideological principles and each has to contribute to the very fundamental conception and vision of emancipation which are relevant to their unique characteristics.

The history of Indonesia is marked with violence therefore it is not surprising that most people see power as a destructive force that was frequently deemed in parallel with domination. Foucault makes a clear explanation that domination is not the essence of power and as a matter of fact, power is exercised upon the dominant as well as on the dominated; there is a process of self-formation or auto-colonization involved (Foucault in Dreyfus & Rabinow, 1982; 186 and Smith, 2006; 100). Foucault has made it clear when he envisioned that the fundamental technical inventions and discoveries, a new technology of the exercise of power has emerged which is probably even more important than the constitutional reforms and new forms of government established at the end of the eighteenth century (Foucault, 1980; 12). Mostly, users who address the key issues of colonialism do not clearly state how colonialism can potentially be materialized in contemporary world, even for someone who explicitly states the word 'colonialism' like Jones Batara Manurung.

Articulating his thought into words: "Against Colonialism" on his Facebook account, Jones Batara Manurung stimulates a question about what colonialism means on his account when he wrote this word and how diverse forms of struggle can be brought to light in the contemporarily society. At this point, there is no such thing as an inherent meaning since the readers consciously determine the meaning of what is written. This appears with their subjectivity and makes the authority over meaning present once they start to comprehend the word (Muller, 2004; 113-114). In order to understand how this works in new media, I need to clarify that there has been a change in the social and cultural implication of writing caused by the new media..

Where Am I Politically? Resistance and Power in the Digital Realm

I choose national issues depicted in the section of 'political view' on Facebook as a space that defines the subjects not only based on their political affiliations but also their capacity to overcome the possibility of oppression. Since the beginning, the Indonesian society has struggled to deal with diversity in political agenda which has frequently been seen as a threat to Indonesian unity. This illustrates current struggle between modernity and tradition. The parade of diversity in political principle is one of the radical changes that revolutionary transform Indonesian citizens from passive subjects into the subjects of knowledge.

There are quite a lot of political views stated by the users on Facebook which never imagined to be seen publicly before without causing a problem for the subjects such as: "Left Hedonic" (by Airlangga Pribadi), "Transrational" (by Novri Susan), "No Facism" (by Jojo HateFesbuk), "Liberal" (by Eka Rahma), "Abstain" (by Kristina Lydia), "Apathetic" (Cindy Tomasoa), "Other" (Harris Abdullah), "Neutral" (Alexa Saxon), "Political What?" (Satrya Wibawa) and "Proud to be the member of People's Democratic Party" (by Tulang Iyek Marpaung). I believe that a range of political views should be seen as the end of dominating and homogenous system of knowledge where individuals are not determined by dominant discourse in formulating and displaying their self-images. The self and the political are obviously conjoined regardless of how apolitical their statements are for whoever reads them. I know that I should retain information about the historical fact that politically relates with this word.

Convincingly testified, all those political declarations above are defending beliefs and becoming a struggle for emancipation. For me, they are arguing on the importance to keep identity heterogeneous by standing up against the Unitarian system that attempts to keep other voices but the dominant one silenced. When Kristina Lydia goes for "abstain", the political statements posed by Cindy Tomasoa have the same tone with 'abstain' as she states 'apathetic' in her profile which is also

analogous with Satrya Wibawa has 'political what?' in his Facebook account. The self and the political are obviously conjoined regardless of how apolitical their statements are for whoever reads them. I know that I should retain information about the historical fact that politically relates with this word.

Refusal to vote for any parties and abstain from Indonesian politics formerly was considered as a subversive act. As a matter of fact, individuals who decline to vote in the election are called golongan putih (golput). Literally, it means 'white group', but it signifies the non-voters. Even though the values and the consequences of abstainment are still debatable, the New Order had frequently propagated a campaign against golput even though there are no laws prohibiting the Indonesian citizens to abstain. Accused of being rebellious and disrupting the public order, Indonesian citizens were politically forced to vote while there were still individuals or groups who insisted to be non-voters and considered it as a kind of political act. Among various reasons why people do not vote, golput was commonly deemed as the expression of apathy toward the government and political order in Indonesia. Astonishingly, after the New Order was over and reformation era has come forward, the total amount of golput has significantly increased. According to recent survey in Indonesian election 2009, the number of golput has approximately reached 50 millions of people or 30 percent from Indonesia's total population.[1] Whoever abstained in the election can never be detected - these citizens remained anonymous, except for who choose to explicitly state political standpoint in public

Performing a Nation without a Nationality

Although Facebook is understood as a social networking site, the assumption that technology will consequentially be utilized to bring the world, strictly speaking, the others, closer than before has been challenged by a range of categories of subjectivity as it becomes harder to recognize who should be counted as the 'Other'. Facebook does not provide any section for nationality which means that this specific kind of identity categorization has been obscured and made invisible. If technology's greatest promise is to eradicate otherness as indicated by Nakamura (Nakamura, 2002; 4) and if the Orient take the chance to reveal their postcolonial identities and challenge the stereotypes projected by the West to them, how does it make their origin visible if it does not even appear on their Facebook account? It seems that the subjects on Facebook mostly use their personal social background as the basis of making a national statement to others. The fact that online world can easily be manipulated is well-understood which enables any virtual spaces to forcefully stand for their own sake and the subjects behind it.

Taking all statements, I am continuing my analysis into the point where the otherness functions well in picturing the profile of a nation with no reference to its own name. As I have mentioned before, the term 'Indonesia' has been concealed in all those political views. At this point, narratives, symbols and rituals that constitute a sense of mutual and national belonging are something that can possibly be shared with other nations. Freedom and liberation in political views are values attached by the users when they approach the idea of nation, not by plainly ascribing the mutual sense of community as a nation but also positioning nationalism in the global perspective. This is done by featuring ideas that represent the condition of marginalized groups of people that possibly live in separate geographical space but share the same vision of freedom, liberation and even rebellion. Every identity might experience the different sites of oppression, diverse ideological principles and each has to contribute to the very fundamental conception and vision of emancipation which are relevant to their unique characteristics. However, by posing the issue of self-sovereign in global digital media like Facebook, they all argue that this is an urge for all nations, especially those who still strive for liberation from colonial forces in all senses.

I agree with Nakamura's argument that chosen identities are not breaking the mold of unitary identity but rather shifting identity into the realm of the 'virtual' and it can definitely create and reproduce stereotypes as well (Nakamura, 2002; 4). Identity is truly traveling now, traversing the frontiers between the offline and the online screen. I also concur with Bhabha on his theory that postcolonialism will always operate through the dimension of time, history and space, both geographical and political by positioning new media as a space through which activities by which new identities, new geographies, and new conceptualization of the world are fashioned and performed (Young, 2001; 66). Formulating national identity can no longer be done by simply drawing a strict line that physically separates one object from another. Even though national heritages are apparently materialized in tangible or natural matter and marked out by geographical borders that did not happen by accident rather were contested, defended and constructed (McLeod, 2000; 68), national identity has possibly been envisioned by positioning one's nationality among others, exercising the notion of differences as well as similarity.

I believe that the invisibility of national identity does not automatically mean that national identity has not been taken into account. Being promoted from an object of history to the rank of creators (Abdel-Malek in Brydon, 2000b; 829), the Orients

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[1] www.nasional.kompas.com. Retrieved: 02-12-2009

should think how to call themselves. Living in the world called the Oriental, the resistance to the politics of Orientalism can be performed by asking what Said has asked in 'Oientalism Reconsidered' -who writes or studies the Orient, in what institutional or discursive setting, for what audience, and with what ends in mind? (Said in Brydon, 2000b; 848). Posing these questions will lead to a wide range of answers that convey a problem about how postcolonial identity (the Orient) can produce non-dominative and non-coercive knowledge without being trapped to think within the logic of colonialism.

Religion, Nation and Multiple Images of the Orient

When new media are believed promoting no boundaries in the physical world, the same thing also happens in the incorporeal realm where the border that constructs the basic conception of religion itself has been stretched out beyond the conventional principles. It is not my intention to say that before the reformation, Indonesian people were frightened to stand for what they believed. Yet it must be clearly recognized that every cultural phenomenon leads to significant changes in ways of thinking. I concur with Schaeffer (Schaeffer in Smith, 2006; 20) who claims that" If we are to understand present-day trends in thought, we must see how the situation has come about historically and also look in some detail at the development of philosophic thought-forms". I believe that the conception of the self will always be embedded by what the history has brought to the subjects and the way it shapes the actuality of identity in all notable moments. I will bring the historical context of Indonesians in order to show how this nation is very familiar with the tradition of violence even in the realm of religion. It needs to be done before understanding how new media, and Facebook in particular through the section of 'religious view', function as a break down that can potentially disrupt the dominance of tradition for having religious matter as a grounding of coercion.

 Islam, Christianity, Catholicism, Budhism, and Hinduism are five official religions acknowledged by the Indonesian government. Other believers are prohibited to engage in religious practices or worship and also are not allowed to bring up any disciples or followers. In Indonesian context, the first of the five principles in Pancasila, the philosophical foundation of the Indonesian state, which is 'Believe in the one and only God' (Ketuhanan Yang Maha Esa) has established a strong interrelation between the State and religion. All believers are not merely convinced by the dogma to have faith in God but are also required by the State to confess one of six officially recognized religions. This first principle was initiated as an alternative to the creation of an Islamic state, even though there were many who were in favor of founding the state on the basis of the religion of the majority (Vickers, 2005; 118). With the endeavor to recognize the value of other religions and minority groups, the first principle was set up to guarantee the rights of all Indonesian citizens to hold any acknowledged religions. In fact, the use of the term 'official religion' (agama resmi) is still debatable until now.

In 1978 the government issued the circular letter of the Minister of Home Affair which stated that there were only five religions in Indonesia even though the higher constitution, the former Presidential Decision No. 1/Pn.Ps/1965 1/Pn.Ps/1965 recognized Konghucu as a valid religion together with the other five. As a consequence of this circular letter, all citizens were ordered to fill in the religion section in their National Identity Card (Kartu Tanda Penduduk /KTP) by choosing one of five religions. Konghucu was excluded until K.H Abdurrahman Wahid, the fourth Indonesian president, annulled this in 1978 and acknowledged Konghucu again as one of six official religions in Indonesia. Even though the 1945 Constitution does not explicitly state these six religions, it is still generally assumed that Indonesia recognizes only them which leaves out other forms of indigenous spiritualism. Until now, religious affiliation still needs to be listed by all Indonesian citizens in their National Identity Cards which brings many discrimination practices based on religious differences in reality.

There are multiple images of the Orient portrayed on the section of 'religious view' on Facebook which should not be oversimplified as they reflect the intricate concept of culture itself which. Its "differential and relativist" functions are precisely what is important (Clifford in O'Hanlon & Washbrook in Brydon, 2000; 905). The absence of a unified identity is the most obvious feature displayed on Facebook and religious view is the section where the Orient is constantly performing their cultural differences, bringing any possible form of subversion, mockery and cynicism into play as an effort to deconstruct any single master narrative and reject all universal forms of cultural centralization. At this point, being modern or staying traditional may not be the main issue for the Orient. Rather what is at stake is the construction of new ways of exercising knowledge about oneself and the others. Facebook equally privileges the voices of indigenous individuals and gives space for the Orient to reinvent themselves in unpredictable ways.

The online religion emerges as a response to the call to deconstruct grand narratives. The word 'others' used by Nayarini Estiningsih when she defines her religious view on her Facebook account is quite provoking as it implies a distance, a separation from anything that has existed before. One intriguing statement is written by Muhammad Amin: 'Religion' and 'Atheism' are the same stupidity with different name whilst PennyRoyal Tea writes down 'Believe 1 God' for her religious view'. For many and nearly all people, cyberspace is a playful and sacred space at the same time. Imagination and vision

about the self, others, society and nation are all penetrating this virtual terrain and showing the unstoppable transformation of reality and history. Social, political and religious institution are about to change by the power of free will, a will for interpretation and multiple production of identities. Satrya Wibawa passionately envisages that spiritual experiences are expected to happen in cyberspace when he says this appealing statement in his religious view: 'God is in Internet! Believe me'. All these users are reluctant to state or choose one of 'official' religions. As an alternative, they put forward their enthusiasm of playing part in the self-determination and taking advantage of Facebook that allows their identities to be embedded as unconventional towards religious views. Some of them still correlate their religious view with the existence (or extinction) of God to different extents whereas others prefer to approach religious matter quite unconventionally. How can one comprehend such words like 'agnostic', 'toujours fidele', 'progressive muslim', 'proud to be infidels…they shall enjoy freedom, democracy, art and rock music', 'esoteric', 'inheritance' (warisan), 'monyetism' ('monyet' means monkey) or 'samawi religions' (agama samawi) with no trouble at the first reading of subject's account on Facebook?

Some phrases might be relatively more familiar because they make use of concepts that are generally recognizable and highly allied with religious matter. Some labels are considered as unusual for naming a religion since they widen the very conception of what should be considered as religion, especially when the enduring religious traditions have habituated the followers to get familiarized only with major religious affiliation which are Islam, Christianity, Catholicism, Budhism and Hinduism. In her book 'Give Me That Online Religion', Brenda E. Braser has explored more than one million operating online religion websites. They encompass every major religious traditions in the world, most new religious groups and innumerable social movements that function as de facto religion for their follower (Braser, 2001; 6). This online phenomenon provides evidence on the aptitude of new media to promote an interreligious understanding. The challenge to traditional religion has been set up not only by modern religious institutions but also it is made possible by every single individual in the virtual space. This way narrative introduces an opposing point of view, perspective, consciousness to the unitary web of vision (Said 1978; 240). For me, the fundamental issues of human and social life are now under erasure since everyone starts asking the essence of being which in my opinion arguing that there is no essential being that can escape from the historically-cultural shift. All ideas are seeking for self-expression and new media overpoweringly endows individuals with an immense power to pose their incredulity toward meta-narratives.

If the religious freedom comes to be construed as the individual's right to worship any god or none at all (Tipton in Arjomand, 1993; 274), it does not automatically render the position of religion outside of public life. But if God is in Internet as said by Satrya Wibawa, then God must compete with the others positioned as the center of religion in the online world. Religion may still need God, but speaking of religious view, any corporeal matters or forms of knowledge can potentially catch the attention of a new devotee without being institutionally engaged. The way the internet fascinates its users may be the main reason why Satrya Wibawa argues that God (must be) in the Internet. Re-fashioning God and giving Him/Her the new look that goes well with face of the digital era can be the case here, but erecting boundaries that formerly existed between faith and knowledge is quite liberating for many people. Religious skepticism (a religion without religion) may be the product of postmodern religious faith which is not linked to any particular dogma, doctrine and denomination (Smith, 2006; 119). If Satrya Wibawa's statement should be considered as a radical view for bringing the Internet as the new sanctuary where everything that people believe in God are already provided by technology, how about the indigenous religions which actually exist in the Indonesian society? Do new media bring their existence back or make them present in Indonesian people's lives after prolonged concealment in nearly all media representations?

Indonesian government has chosen to call the indigenous Indonesian religion as 'aliran kepercayaan'. It is analogous with a cult which means that it is not acknowledged as a religion, but only as a spiritual practice that believes on the existence of God. Personal experiences and relationships between the followers and their God is the basis of the practice that combines different system of religious beliefs with mystical elements that are typical to local values among particular ethnicities. In some areas in Indonesia, there are existing indigenous beliefs, such as the 'Sunda Wiwitan' embraced by the community in Baduy, Lebak, Banten and also known as CIGUGUR religion (and there are several other names), 'Buhun religion' in West Java; 'Kejawen' in Central Java and East Java; 'Parmalin religion', an indigenous Batak religions; 'Kaharingan religion' in Kalimantan; 'Tonaas belief' in Minahasa regency, North Sulawesi; 'Tolottang' in South Sulawesi; 'Wetu Telu' in Lombok or 'Naurus IslandSeram' in Maluku Province. These indigenous religions are degraded as a doctrine of animism, pagan or just as a cult as I mentioned before. The religious matter had been exercised by the government as the instrument of oppression instead of being developed as national heritage.

I used my personal Facebook account to ask other users whether any of them write down the indigenous Indonesian religion or not in the 'religious view' section. None of my friends on Facebook responded positively. This implies different meanings. The users may not know what the indigenous Indonesian religions are or they choose not to relate with traditional values. It is easier to find various religious views which are not rooted in Indonesian ritual or tradition. The Orient occupies the

virtual terrain and brings representational images posed by the West to trouble. This is the point of departure for the negotiation of the self, the process of destabilizing the firm construction of the Orient by progressively challenging any homogenous intellectual, cultural and political narratives.

If the essence of Orientalism is the ineradicable distinction between Western superiority and Oriental inferiority (Said, 1978; 42), does the formulation of contemporary religious view on Facebook point towards the idea of bringing the Orient closer to modern realities as a refusal to accept the binary distinction made by the West? When While Said says that everywhere among Orientalists there was the ambition to formulate their discoveries, experiences and insights suitably in modern terms (1978; 43), I personally find out the paradox between the potential to break out from the stereotypes of the Orient and the tendency to intensify the constructed figure of the Orient. By realizing that the construction of binary positions was based on the imaginative vision about the Orient who is oddly different – unusual, fantastic, bizarre, irrational, extraordinary, or abnormal (McLeod, 2000; 44) – and that history is made by men, 'religious view' materializes power exercised by what has been called the Orients in order to give shape to the new material reality of the Orientals.

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The Medicalization of Ethnicity in Vietnamese-American Women: Cosmetic Surgery and Hybridization

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Abstract

Within the growing proliferation of the cosmetic procedures in the United States and worldwide, the alteration of ethnic features dominate surgeries chosen by Asians. This study surveys a group of Vietnamese women who have undergone ethno-altering cosmetic surgery in the United States and Vietnam. The study utilized semi-structured interviews and participant observations to elicit the following information from participants and their families, friends, and coworkers: a) How does the cosmetic procedures affect their acculturation to the United States? b) How have their experiences affected their cultural identity? c) How have they experienced their surgeries in relation to the presence of western technology, images, and culture? d) How have their experiences with their surgeries affected their relationships with friends, families, and coworkers? Fifteen women between the ages of twenty-five and sixty-five participated in this study. All subjects immigrated to the United States after reaching fifteen years of age with 58% had their procedures in Vietnam. Major findings include the claim by all subjects that the surgery was motivated by a pursuit of Asian standards of beauty, but with the specification by them typical of a hybrid mix of Western and Asian features.

Keywords: ethnic identity, cosmetic surgery, plastic surgery, Vietnamese women, acculturation

Introduction

The sense of beauty and the inclination for status and success may differ from one ethnic group to the next. However, standards for beauty and status for some minority groups mimic the prevalent features and characteristics of the dominant group (Sarwer, Grossbart, & Didie, 2003; Slupchynskyj, 2005). The dominant group not only has the power in numbers, but it also has the power of influence. Taking on some of the influential characteristics may be one way minority groups can grasp some of the perceived power and status of the dominant group.

For several minority groups, ethno-altering of the facial features is one way to identify with the majority. Ethno-altering or changing one's ethnic appearance has been made possible with the technological advances of surgery. Some social scientists see plastic surgery as a step towards a modern version of ethnic cleansing for people of color (Boras 2007; Slupchynskyj, 2005). About 45% of cosmetic surgery on Asian Americans consists of eyelid surgeries, while twenty percent involves having nose implants and nasal tip refinement (Kaw, 1993; Nguyen 2005; Xuvn 2013). For certain minority groups, such as Asian Americans, African-Americans, and Latin Americans, ethnicity is distinguished by facial characteristics, followed by language and culture (Rosenthal, 1987). In altering ethnic features, distinctions between ethnic groups can be less defined and more apt to fit the western ideal of beauty (Bulbeck, 1998). Looking different for certain groups is a mark of their ethnicity and minority status.

Recent studies have indicated a growing trend in cosmetic surgery in U.S. ethnic minorities with Asian Americans having the largest increase in cosmetic procedures between 2007-2008 and fueling a market that aim to reach $17.5 billion by 2015 (American Society of Plastic Surgeons, 2013; Wimalawansa, McKnight, and Bullocks, 2009). The procedures for minority groups tend to be ethnically specific. Asians prefer blepharoplasty (eyelid surgery) and rhinoplasty (nose reshaping), while Latinos prefer breast and buttock augmentations.

Racial minorities often internalize the body images revered by the dominant culture's racial ideology. By revising their body parts, many Asian women are attempting to rid themselves of the effects of their internalized racism. These Asian women may consciously want plastic surgery to look beautiful, but their need to look more Anglo is an unconscious denouncement of their cultural identity (Kaw, 1993; Nguyen 2005). The results of the ethno-altering surgery have both advantages and disadvantages. Dubois (1993) contends that the emotional cost of assimilation outweighs the perceived benefits and may lead to more depression. Hence, looking less Asian can also improve their social status as racial minorities. Economic success implies easy assimilation into American society, while lack of success is looked upon as resisting acculturation

(Dubois, 1993). Having the surgery represents a mark of status, where one is finally incorporated into the technological world of the dominant, white group.

Method

Sampling

A small, non-probability sample (n=15) of Vietnamese women who have had ethno-altering cosmetic surgery participated in the study. The use of snowball sampling was used in finding participants with most participants acquired through friends, Vietnamese businesses, and various Vietnamese trade schools in the Houston and San Francisco. Participants met the following recruitment criteria: 1) a Vietnamese woman at least 18 years of age 2) having had ethno-altering cosmetic surgery 3) had the surgery in the U.S. or Vietnam 4) had the surgery with the past two years. The study utilized semi-structured interviews and participant observations to elicit the following information from participants and their families, friends, and coworkers: a) How does the cosmetic procedures affect their acculturation to the United States? b) How have their experiences affected their cultural identity? c) How have they experienced their surgeries in relation to the presence of western technology, images, and culture? d) How have their experiences with their surgeries affected their relationships with friends, families, and coworkers?

Data Collection Methods

Since little information or research has been implemented in studying the relationship between ethno- altering cosmetic surgery and acculturation, an exploratory, qualitative research design is the most appropriate for this study. A flexible method of interviewing would allow for examination of this issue, in which face-to-face, semi-structured interviews were used to guide questions as well as allow for exploration of important themes. With the difficulty of locating these subjects, phone interviews were also used to acquire subjects and data. The majority (14 out of 15) of the participants live in Houston, Texas for face-to-face interviews. Since one participant live in San Francisco, I conducted that interview by phone. All participants had agreed to have their interviews recorded by a digital voice recorder. No major costs in terms of special equipment or materials were needed.

Human subjects' approval was received prior to contacting subjects. Consent forms were given to prospective subjects to read and sign prior to the interviews. Confidentiality was the primary concern for some of the subjects. In many Vietnamese families, family secrets and struggles remain strictly within the family unit. Careful measures were used to ensure confidentiality for the subjects and their families. Although the interviews were conducted at the subjects' home, workplace, school, or businesses, the subjects set private areas aside for comfort and some degree of confidentiality. Accuracy was enhanced during the process of the study by keeping notes of the interviewing environment and recording both verbal and nonverbal interactions of the interviews. The interviews were transcribed from audiotapes and erased immediately after transcription.

While the interview schedule made it easier to gather large amount of information in a short period of time, it also had limitations. Although the interviews did not require translation since the researcher is fluent in Vietnamese, translation from English to Vietnamese may not be accurate due to certain Vietnamese expressions that do not have their equivalence in English and vice versa. In addition, the participants might not have understood the questions and might have provided vague, incomplete, or distorted responses for other reasons. The accuracy of the data is dependent upon the honesty of the participants' responses.

Data Analysis

Unstructured data gathered in this study was recorded and analyzed manually. Since some of the interviews were in Vietnamese, initial transcriptions were in its original language and translated into English afterwards. Data were compiled and compared for common themes and specific responses of interest. First I listed and clustered similar topics together, and then I formed them into columns. Columns consisted of major topics, unique topics, and leftovers. Data that did not match specific categories were collected and examined for other important themes related to the research.

Results

The qualitative descriptions of these Vietnamese women who have undergone ethno-altering cosmetic surgery revealed complex motivations for having surgery. The findings supported the aim of the study by allowing these experiences to have a presence in the limited collection of literature about Vietnamese-American s. This study pointed to other areas of research concerning acculturation and racism. Past research on acculturation and racism did not explore the experiences of Vietnamese-American women in this capacity. Therefore, the findings supported the aim of the research by generating descriptions of the Vietnamese women's experiences and understanding of their ethno-altering cosmetic surgery.

Participants

The age range for this group of fifteen subjects was twenty-five to sixty-five years of age, and all fifteen subjects in this study immigrated to the United States after reaching fifteen years of age. Thus, all fifteen subjects spent their childhood and adolescent years in Vietnam, which also meant they were all first generation Vietnamese refugees. The time of immigration ranges from the first immigration wave of 1975 to the most recent immigration of 1997. Eleven out of fifteen lived in Houston, Texas, and one resided in the San Francisco area. Both areas have a high concentration of Vietnamese population.

United States citizenship was not a good measurement for national affiliation and cultural identity due to the variation in the time of immigration. Another reason was that all the subjects identified themselves as Vietnamese people with or without the United States citizenship. Two subjects out of fifteen believed that having U.S. citizenship meant being less Vietnamese. Those two participants felt that obtaining a United States citizenship meant betraying their affiliation with Vietnam and their ancestors. On the other hand, ten out of fifteen perceived U.S. citizen status as increasing resources, not as a change of national or cultural identity.

In terms of the socioeconomic background, the subjects ranged from working class to upper-middle class status. Five came from a working class background. Five out of the fifteen subjects fell in the middle class status, and two were classified in the upper-middle income bracket. The socioeconomic status of these women in Vietnam was difficult to measure as the earned income and time of immigration varied among the women. Interestingly, all fifteen subjects were educated in Vietnam, with the high school as the highest level of education completed. Below is brief information on some of the participants in the study. I have used pseudonyms and changed some background information to ensure confidentiality of the participants.

Mau

Mau, a thirty nine year old store clerk, gave the above statement about her motivation to alter her eyes and enhanced her looks, as well as improving her health. Mau immigrated to the United States with her family at the age of seventeen in 1975. She obtained her citizenship in 1983 and had her cosmetic surgery in 1984, less than a year after acquiring the American citizenship. When asked about short time span between two significant events, she remarked, "I wanted to do both at once: being an American and looking better."

Hoa

Hoa was a thirty-seven year old seamstress who came to the United States in 1985 at the age of twenty-five. She had her surgery two years prior to her resettlement in the United States. Hoa was considering applying for citizenship in the future. The need to prepare for the resettlement and acculturation process appeared to be the reason for her cosmetic surgery. She worked as a seamstress in a tailor shop nearby her residence and was married with three children. Hoa had plastic surgery on her eyes, nose, and chin. I wanted to look better. Bigger eyes are better with two folds instead of one. Besides, my original eyes reminded my mother of her hated father.

Linh

Linh was a forty-four year old housewife who immigrated to the United States in 1984 at the age of thirty. She obtained her citizenship in 1997 at thirty-seven years old. Her eyes were made larger with the double folds in 1982, also two years prior to her immigration. As with Hoa, acculturation played an important role in the decision to have surgery. However, Linh's

altering of her eyes also impacted her relationship with her mother, who associated Linh's original eyes with the conflictual relationship with her mother's father.

Dao

Dao, a thirty-three year old hairstylist, wanted to fit in with her friends. Her motivation appeared to deal primarily with peer group relations, in which she wanted to join her friends and cooperate with them in the cosmetic surgery endeavors. She only had her eyes fixed but remarked how she regretted the surgery, which she had in Vietnam when she was twenty years old. She came to America in 1994 at the age of thirty and claimed how she did not want a citizenship here because she wanted to remain Vietnamese.

Lan-Truc

Lan-Truc was a twenty-seven year old nail technician who came to the United States in 1993 at the age of twenty-four.

She was not a citizen but would like to become one in the near future. She had her nose surgery when she was eighteen years old with her parents' permission. It also seemed to be the natural method to enhance her looks since so many members of her family endorsed cosmetic surgery.

Khanh

At forty-three years old, Khanh reflected her motivation to fit in with her friends and the community when she had her eyes altered at the age of twenty-six in 1980. Khanh came to America in 1990 when she was thirty-six and obtained her citizenship one year ago. She worked as an attendant for a dry cleaning store and was married with three sons. Khanh noted she felt so naive and young when she had her cosmetic surgery. During an interview, she claimed, "I became afraid after I had it done. I didn't think about it until after I came back to the doctor's office and saw blood on someone else's face." Khanh als she regretted the surgery:

Hang

Hang was twenty-four years old when she came to the United States in 1979 with her husband and their four children. She had her eyes and nose surgery in 1983, at the age of twenty-eight, and obtained her citizenship six months later. At forty-three years old, Hang worked as an assembly worker for a major computer corporation. She emphasized how the surgery made her feel better: "It was something I wanted before I came to America. To me, it was part of coming here and living here. " Hang perceived the surgery as part of the resettlement package and a new beginning for her family as they were impoverished in Vietnam.

Thu-Thuy

Thu-Thuy immigrated to America in 1997 with her husband and their twenty-year-old son. She was forty-five at the time of the interview and was working on her licensure as a manicurist. Although not yet a citizen, Thu-Thuy was looking forward to being a US citizen in the future. Thu-Thuy had her eyes altered in 1980 when she was twenty-six years old. Her motivation for the surgery was peer group relations: she saw all her friends with the ethno-altering surgery and wanted to join them. Thu-Thuy regretted her surgery and wished she never had it done.

Phuong

      Phuong immigrated to the United States in 1975 with her husband and their three children. Phuong was twenty-five-years old when she resettled in America. Her husband died five years later in a car accident, leaving Phuong widowed but with a large sum of money from his life insurance. Phuong decided to go into real estate with the money and became successful. She had her eyes and nose altered in 1982 at the age of thirty-one and acquired her citizenship within a year of surgery. Her motivation for the surgery was to make herself more presentable and more marketable as a saleswoman and as an American.

Tien-Hanh

Tien-Hanh was twenty-one years old when she had her nose surgery in Vietnam. With much distress and conflict with her family after the surgery, Tien-Hanh felt guilty for having the surgery without her family's permission. At the time of the interview, Tien-Hanh was working as a nail technician in salon owned by a family friend. She was twenty-five years old at the time of the interview. Tien-Hanh immigrated in 1997 and looked forward to becoming a citizen. For Tien-Hanh, the cosmetic result of the surgery pleased her, but she regretted defying her parents' objection to the surgery. She talked about the difficult period after the surgery involved family conflict, although her family eventually accepted her altering her face.

Huong-An

Huong-An was thirty-two when she had her cosmetic surgery in 1988, and the doctor she referred to was a well- known Vietnamese plasticsurgeon in the San Francisco area. Huong-An immigrated to the United States in 1985 by herself. Though she had a sister in Texas, Huong-An wanted to be on her own in California. She married within a year of her surgery and became a United States citizen in 1993. Although it was convenient for Huong-An to have her ethno-altering surgery, Huong-An also wanted to look better and to fit in more in the new country.

Minh

Minh had her eyes and nose surgery by an American doctor in 1990 at the age of thirty. Minh, who immigrated to the United States in 1975 at the age of fifteen, was more skeptical about the skills of Vietnamese doctors. Although she identified herself as Vietnamese, she perceived the American doctors as more knowledgeable. Minh attended one year of high school in America but dropped out and married at seventeen. Her cosmetic surgery was a celebration of her success as an entrepreneur with a chain of grocery stores. Minh associated the surgery with a mark of success and status.

Findings of Acculturation

Acculturation was a motive for the ethno-altering surgery with some participants. The findings also showed that having the surgery symbolized status. These findings supported past research on Asian-America n women and plastic surgery, in which status was a strong motivator for some women (Kaw, 1993; Cuong 2013). The Vietnamese women in this study associated the surgery with "making it" because the ethno-altering surgery was a luxury only the wealthy can afford.

Acculturation is a process where elements of both one's own culture and the new culture are accepted to suit one's resettlement needs. For many of these women, the ethno- altering surgery prepared them for different stages of the acculturation process. Seven out of the fifteen subjects interviewed had their surgeries in Vietnam. Two out of the seven women had their surgeries within a year of coming to the United States. Linh reported the relationship between immigrating to the United States and the cosmetic surgery, "A lot of people wanted to have the surgery in hopes of coming to America. They figured that it's cheaper to get it done in Vietnam, and it makes it easier to adjust to America. I was anticipating on coming to America and had mine done right before we left." Hoa, another participant, explained the need to blend in more by stating, "We've heard so much about American technology and wanted to catch up somehow. Surgery was one way." According to Linh, the cosmetic surgery helped her, and others like her, prepare for their initial adjustment in a new country. Tien-Hanh noted that some women do try to acculturate by having the surgery, "I do believe that some people do fix their noses very high and eyes very big to look Anglo. They do it so they can fit in more before they come to the United States. It's so unnatural. I wanted mine to fit my face."

For the five subjects who had their surgeries in the United States, their associations to the surgeries varied. Two out of those five women had the surgeries within a year of their citizenship. For Hang, the surgery was a kept promise made by her husband. Mau wanted the fat in her lids removed so she would not look so "sleepy." However, both women saw their surgery as one step further in resettling in America. Hang remarked on the timing of the surgery: "I had it done right before I got my citizenship, and it felt right. They go together. I was promised this before coming here so having it made it complete." The surgery and the citizenship were one package. Phuong altered her looks in order to feel more competitive in the American market. Minh celebrated her business success with her surgery, which represented status for her. Huong-An wanted the surgery in Vietnam but eventually had it done in the United States.

Findings of Standards of Beauty

The standards of beauty reported by the subjects were labeled by them as Asian but specific features mentioned as ideal were western. All research participants immigrated to the United States after reaching fifteen years of age with 58% had their procedures in Vietnam. Major findings include the claim by the participants that the surgery was motivated by a pursuit of Asian standards of beauty, but with the specification by them typical of a hybrid mix of Western and Asian features.

The findings show that all the participants in this study had the ethno-altering cosmetic surgery because they wanted to look more beautiful. Vietnamese culture regards beauty as an important virtue in women. The four virtues for ideal feminine beauty are (a) to be a good housewife (b) to have a beautiful appearance (c) to speak well and softly (d) to be of good character (Kibria, 1993). Looking beautiful, for the participants in this study, is part of being a woman. To not want it is abnormal.

The main motivation for all fifteen subjects interviewed for this study was beauty as the primary reason for the cosmetic surgery. As Minh stated, "Women need to be beautiful. If their noses are flat and eyes are small, they should get it fixed. Women should be beautiful, and everyone wants beautiful things." The standards of beauty for all fifteen women were similar with regard to high noses and bigger eyes with double creases, not just one fold. Hoa described the need for bigger eyes: "The eyes are the windows to the soul. That's why we have to keep it open and big like the people on TV. " Another participant, Khanh, explained her reasoning for the popular ethno-altering surgery in the Vietnamese community in the United States and in Vietnam: "We want to fix it to enhance our Vietnamese features and to make it look natural. We can't look natural if we were to look Caucasian, " Huong-An noted, "You can't have it too high; then you look white. You can't look too whit e."

On the other hand, four out of the fifteen subjects thought that many other Vietnamese women change their looks to have more westernized features. Thu-Thuy commented on the need to look more Anglo: "Asian women having surgery to look more Anglo because they see the beauty of western features, and they also want that because there are so many magazines and beautiful American women on television." Accordingly, Huong Linh denied having her surgery to look more Anglo but attributed it to others:

"There are people who want to look more Anglo. That I have seen, but not for me. I can fix my own features, but I still can't change to look white. No matter how you fix it. The Americans know that you're Vietnamese. You can change all you want, but you'll still be Vietnamese, although some people do want to look more American and they change to look that way. I think you

can't change your ethnicity, but some people try to with surgery. I didn't. I just want to enhance what I have."

Nevertheless, all fifteen subjects admitted to wanting to look as if they were mixed with another race. The ideal result from surgery was for it to look natural without the Vietnamese features of a flat nose and small eyes. All fifteen subjects esteemed looking "mixed" with another race. Tien- Hanh stressed the ideal of the surgery was to look more mixed and not white, "We don't want to look white--just more mixed. We want to enhance our Vietnamese features. My friend actually looked Japanese when she had hers done. I just wanted to look like the way she had hers but to enhance my own features." Hoa summarized her friends' reactions after the surgery: "It looked so good that everyone thought I was mixed with Indian blood!"

All fifteen subjects ascribed successful and satisfying surgery to luck and the skills of their doctors. Mau described her experience of the surgery: "To get away from the surgery without harm and looking decent is luck. Some people are not that lucky. I recommend going to surgery in the morning when the doctors are alert. " Hoa described her doctor as "unique with a keen eye for beauty. He was careful and knew what he was doing." Minh, who did not trust Vietnamese doctors, went to an American doctor because "they're more professional and less likely to mess up."

The subjects who regretted their surgeries talked about how they would rather have their natural features back because the original features matched better with their facial structures. Three out of fifteen subjects regretted their surgeries, as in Thu-Thuy's remark, "I had small eyes with drooping lids, but I'd rather have that now because they match my face more."

Findings of Family Relations

An unforeseen effect of the ethno-altering surgery is on the family and community. Family relations were affected by the surgeries for many participants, with Confucian values and implications being one source of conflict around the surgery. The majority of the participants (60%) spoke of shame and guilt for going against the Confucian principle of filial piety and

dishonoring their family honor by altering their inherited facial features. Several women saw improvement in their family relations after the surgery. They believe that changing their facial features have improved their circumstances and fate.

The Vietnamese family usually consists of the nuclear family along with extended family members. The fifteen participants interviewed in this study all ranked their families as the most significant relationships in their lives. Nine out of fifteen participants reported that their surgeries affected their families. Five out of those nine participants had conflicts with their family members regarding the surgery. Mau talked about the surgery causing some friction between her and her mother:

"I didn't tell my parents. My husband knew about it. His family had their noses done. I didn't want my mother to know. She didn't need to know. When she found out, I felt guilty as if I took something away from her."

Thu-Thuy experienced the conflict with her husband and her shame for dismantling a filial piety, "My husband couldn't understand why I wanted to change what my parents have given me. I felt ashamed." Khanh reflected on how family was against her surgery for it went against their beliefs and culture:

"My family did not know about the surgery until afterwards. My mother was so upset. She said it was unnatural. They were something God had given to me and my parents have given to me. I shouldn't have changed it. Vietnamese custom dictated it. I wanted to fix my nose, too. But I went to a psychic who told me not to do it. He was upset at my eye surgery and said that I had tampered with fate. Fixing the nose would only make my bad luck worse."

Linh, however, had mixed results in her family. Her surgery cause some marital conflict with her husband as she described her interaction with her husband:

"He was against it [surgery]. I think it's because he didn't want other men to look at me. Men are selfish in that way. He told me not to change what my parents and God had given me. According to him, the surgery was going against fate and a need to compete with others. I disagreed. After I had the surgery, he liked the results. You see? Beauty is a way to keep the happiness in the family. Men look at pretty women all the time. It's a way to keep your husband."

On the other hand, Linh's relationship with her mother changed for the better:

"This surgery made me look different. I had my grandfather's eyes. They were very small, and my mother was not getting along with him. It was difficult for me because my eyes reminded her of my grandfather. After the surgery, my eyes were bigger and much different. They didn't look like my grandfather' s eyes anymore. My mother didn't feel as cold to me as she did before the surgery."

Linh altered her eyes, and according to a common Vietnamese belief, her fate. Ironically, her relationship with her mother improved as a result of altering of the "fate" on her face. Another participant, Khanh, went to a Vietnamese psychic after her mother became furious that she had her eyes altered. Khanh related her experience:

"My mother was so upset that I had changed something that was natural, that God gave me, and my parents, too. Vietnamese custom stated to keep things natural. But I wanted to fix my nose also. So I went to a psychic who told me not to do it. He was also upset at my eye surgery and said I had destroyed"

Contrary to Khanh's experience, four of the fifteen participants had positive relationships with their family before and after the surgery. Three women felt closer to their families, some whose members had already had cosmetic surgeries. Lan-True shared her newfound closeness with her family members:

"I never knew how it would affect my relationships with my mother and my brother. I guess I always felt left out. They both had theirs fix years before I had mine. I didn't expect something like this to bring us together. Especially something you have to fix! [giggled]"

Huong-An grew closer to her husband, who kept his promise to pay for her cosmetic surgery. In Huong-An's words, "It was one of the few promises my husband kept, and it made all the difference."

Discussion

Ethno-altering cosmetic surgery may be one derivative of Vietnam's long struggle against colonization and acculturation. With its western origin and influence, ethno-altering cosmetic surgery seems popular with several generations of Vietnamese-Americans. Vietnamese women have altered their faces in the United States and in Vietnam as it is cheaper and more discrete. Vietnamese doctors, trained overseas in the US and Europe, bring western technology and culture back to Vietnam (Cuong 2013; Brown 1970). The circulation of techniques, technology, and images has made cosmetic surgery a pinnacle of medical tourism and globalization. In fact, Vietnamese women are altering their faces not only in the United States but also in Vietnam. Vietnamese doctors, trained overseas in the United States and Europe, bring western

technology and culture back to Vietnam. Although cosmetic surgery usually attracts women, some advertisements in Vietnamese magazines and newspapers also include men. The surgery advertisements focus mainly on raising nose bridges and cutting folds into the eyelids (Boras, 2007; Kaw, 1993; Wimalawansa, McKnight, and Bullocks, 2009). The advertised features are ethnically specific, yet the reasons for the increasing percentage of Vietnamese women, as well as a handful of men, choosing such surgery need further exploration. Although a certain number of Vietnamese men had these surgeries, this research focuses on women and their understanding of their cosmetic surgeries.

Wanting to look mixed supported the historical experience of Vietnamese people in the literature review. Vietnamese identity involves history, and Vietnamese history consists of continuous colonization and domination by foreign powers. The desire to look mixed is part of a Vietnamese identity, which incorporates the oppressive history of its people. In fact, this research illuminates the image of being "mixed" with another race was the look preferred by all participants. The participants perceive looking stereotypically Vietnamese as less attractive than looking mixed. According to the results, the ideal standard of beauty for these Vietnamese women consists of a blending of western features with a Vietnamese face.

Interestingly, the findings supported the notion that imported western images affected Vietnamese women's view of themselves and what they considered beautiful. The presence of media images on television and in magazines skews the standard of beauty toward to Anglo features. Some participants alluded to the effects of western images on the standards of beauty in Vietnamese women. They denied being influenced themselves by the western standard of beauty, but projected such standards onto others. Projection, a defense mechanism, refers to the process of attributing unwanted or bad feelings or thoughts of one's own to others.

The standards of beauty for all the participants reveal a desire for Anglo features. Eighty percent of the research participants claim that eyelid surgery changes their "sleepy eyes" to a more "awakened look, " which gives them more control of their lives. The "sleepy eye, " a term used to classify Asian eyes, condenses the images of passive, docile, slow-witted, and unemotional Asian women. Movies often depict these sleepy eyed beauties as objects of desire that are childlike, submissive, silent, and eager for sex (Hagedorn, 1994). The increasing number of facial surgeries on Asian women may result from a reaction against the association of negative stereotypes with their Asian features (Nguyen 2005). To combat some of the depression and isolation stemming from being and looking different, this study claims that plastic surgery has helped many Asian women look less stereotypically Asian.

Although this study focuses on some aspects of racism in the surgery, these experiences of acculturation are specific to the first generation Vietnamese-American women. They also bear witnessed to the war that ended the colonization of Vietnam and a long aftermath of resettlement and confusion. I would go one step further and argue that Vietnamese people have historically use acculturation as means of surviving the continuous presence of foreign domination. Vietnamese people use acculturation as a cultural coping mechanism. The findings also speak to the resettlement literature. A couple participants stress the need to remain Vietnamese by not wanting an American citizenship. The resettlement literature discusses how being a Vietnamese refugee means having to leave the ancestor's land and be separated from the family, the history, and culture. It comes with a feeling of shame, of not living up to one's Confucian obligation of continuing ancestral and familial traditions. A couple participants feel that obtaining a United States citizenship meant betraying their affiliation with Vietnam and their ancestors. On the other hand, a couple of the participants view the ethno-altering surgery as a symbolic of their acculturation. They altered their looks around the time that they acquired their United States citizenship. They viewed the citizenship and the surgery as one package, a package of acculturation and of their new lives in the United States.

Studies have found that Vietnamese women acculturate differently from Vietnamese men (DuongTran, 1996; Kibria, 1993; Matsuoka, 1993).   The resettling in the United States provides new opportunities for both Vietnamese men and women. Vietnamese women, however, are often caught between their new access to resources in the United States and their traditional role in the family (Kibria, 1993). They struggle to balance the two conflicting demands of economic survival in the new country and maintenance of their familial expectations. Matsuoka (1993) notes that women are affected most by changes in family and community functioning because they lose their networks and social supports and feel estranged from the new social processes and expectations of roles and behaviors in the United States. One study found that feelings of isolation and depression are more prevalent in Vietnamese women than men (Matsuoka, 1993). Although depression is common in this population, a strong desire and willingness to learn about and adapt to life in the United States can balance depression (Haines, 1989).

An unforeseen effect of the ethno-altering surgery is on the family and community. Many Asian families, especially Vietnamese families, live under the Confucian ideal of filial piety, which holds children eternally indebted to their parents (Ebrey, 1993; Jamieson, 1995). To cut, alter, or remove any part of the body is a crime against one's parents, as well as

the heavens (Ebrey, 1993). Asian children learn from a very young age that their bodies are gifts from the heavens and their parents and ancestors; to intentionally change any part of the body means rejecting the family. Kaw (1993) contends that cosmetic surgery can further alienate people from family and their cultural identity.

Vietnamese women, who have had traditional roles in the families, find the new culture and economic opportunities confusing. They are often caught between taking advantage of more economic opportunities and keeping their traditional roles. Most Vietnamese women have been reared with Confucian ideology in which men dominate women (Kibria, 1993). A Vietnamese woman often marries young and takes on a subservient role in her in-laws' household. She has little domestic status until she produces a son. Traditional Vietnamese values dictate that a woman has three submissions: to obey her father, to obey her husband, and to obey her eldest son (Kibria, 1993). The need for Vietnamese women to work in the United States, which gives them more authority at home, causes problems for the family. Many husbands cannot understand why their wives are not living up to traditional expectations. On the other hand, the wives struggle with adapting to their new freedom while trying to maintain their traditional role at home (Kibria, 1993). One important virtue of an ideal Vietnamese woman is being a good housewife, which means partially means being able to keep the family together. Some of the participants believed that having the surgery help keep the family together. Looking beautiful would prevent the husband from running off with another woman. In this respect, the surgery was working with the Confucian ideal of the perfect woman.

Many Asian families, especially Vietnamese families, live under the Confucian ideal of filial piety, which holds children eternally indebted to their parents. To cut, alter, or remove any part of the body is a crime against one's parents, as well as the heavens. Findings for this study support other research on Vietnamese cultural identity (DuongTran 1996; Kibria 1993; Matsuoka, 1993; Nguyen 2005). The distinctive features of family life, particularly its cooperative and collective manifestations, remain a source of cultural pride and self- esteem. Some participants spoke of shame and guilt for going against the Confucian principle of filial piety. By altering their facial features, these participants had violated what their ancestors and the heavens gave them. Their regrets and sadness support past research on Asian women and plastic surgery, in which depression was common in many Asian women after having the plastic surgery (Kaw, 1993). Part of the depression came from the break in family relationships. The findings spoke to change in family relations caused by the participants' surgeries, some for the worse, and some for the better. Some participants experienced better relationships with their families as a result of the ethno- altering surgery. Although they still operate within Confucian context, the surgeries had helped family relations. The participants and their family members believed that having the ethno-altering surgery changed their fate, both the women's and their families' fates. The participants whose family relations were poor prior to the surgery experienced improvement in the relationships after undergoing the surgery. A change of fate was the explanation.

Conclusion

In summary, all participants in the study had ethno-altering cosmetic surgery because they wanted to look more beautiful, in which beauty is equated with success. The findings support the notion that imported western images affected Vietnamese women's view of themselves and what they considered beautiful. The presence of media images on television and in magazines skews the standard of beauty towards Anglo features. The participants altered their looks in order to change the stereotypical Vietnamese features of a flat nose and small "sleepy eyes" to more western features of a high nose bridge and the "awakened look." Despite wanting Anglo features, the participants did not want to look completely Caucasian but preferred the image of being "mixed" with another race, a hybridity of racial features. Moreover, having surgery also symbolizes status, which also has a socioeconomic impact. Nevertheless, altering one's look can affect family relations. Some families criticized altering inherited features as a insult to their family honor and the natural balance of face and body, while others saw improvement in familial relations after the surgery. Regardless of the outcome, the Vietnamese women in this study initially had ethno-altering cosmetic surgery to feel better about themselves and to attract positive interactions with others. With its western origin and influence, ethno altering cosmetic surgery seems popular with several generations of Vietnamese-Americans. Some people would go as far as ethno-altering cosmetic surgery to make assimilation easier. Many Vietnamese people, particularly women, have adopted to a western standard of beauty. The $17 billion cosmetic surgery industry plays an active role in reproducing these cultural ideals and influences. Some Vietnamese women, as with many other Asian women, seek to acquire the ideal Western images under the knife of cosmetic surgery.

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Adaptation of Municipalities to The Spatial Evolution of Skënderbegas Commune, Albania

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Abstract

The article presents an accurate scientific assessment of the physic-geographical, historical, socio economic and cultural assessment of Skënderbegas commune, Albania. The main purpose of this paper is to present these components in different time stages, by noting new qualitative elements. For the composition of this article we are based on a long observation and research work, across the geographical area of this commune, as well in terms of natural, demographic, cultural and economic aspect. An important role has had the numerous surveys have been conducted with the local residents, as well the use of an extensive literature related to subject of study. At first, it is provided a general assessment of the geographical position, landscape, geological construction, climate, hydrography, soils and vegetation. Further, it is made an analysis of the population of all the villages of the commune in question, highlighting the different rhythms the population from 1926 to 2013, and providing explanations for the decline in number of the reside each village. To demonstrate this performance, a chart is compiled, and respective analysis is done. An important place occupies the evaluation of patriotic and intellectual figures of this commune, their contribution to independence and freedom. Further it is made an assessment of the economy and lifestyle of these inhabitants, pointing out the problems that they have. At the end of the article are given the general conclusions and recommendations.

Key words: evolution, population, nature, economy, lifestyle

Introduction

The commune is located in the south district of Gramsh, in the central part of Albania. The total area of the commune is 80.1 km2. Skenderbegas commune includes 13 villages which are: Skëndebegas, Bletëz, Ermenj, Fushëz, Harunas, Kotka, Kullollas, Lemnushë, Nartë, Siman, Shëmbërdhenj, Vidhan and Zenelas. It is situated on this geographical coordinates: northern latitude is 40043'15' and 40048'52'' while eastern longitude is 20012'19'' and 20017' 22''.   From archaeological evidence it results that in some villages of this commune, there have been early settlements, such as in Vidhan and Skenderbegas villages, where their tracks date the VII-VI century BC. The center of the commune is located 17 km from the city of Gramsh and 50 km from Çorovoda city.

According to local inhabitants the denomination of several villages result as follows: The name Skënderbegas is linked to the legend of passage of the "national hero Skanderbeg" with his army during the fifteenth century. The name of Bletëz relates with the presence of many bees in that village. The name of Shëmbërdhenji, according to the renowned archaeologist Neritan Ceka (Tirana), comes from St. Mbërdhirët, identified with 40 Saints, who died wrapped in a frozen lake of Sebasties (Ceka N). The name of Nartë is known even in other territories of the country. Referring to Siman name, it was formerly called Sqimar, even now it is still used by the elderly with that name. Similar denomination is found in Indonesia, Iran, Pakistan and Mali.

Method

During the drafting of this article, we are based on the method of direct observation in the geographical area of this commune, studying closely; its nature, geological construction, landscape, climatic conditions, soils and vegetation. Also an important attention is occupied by the research methods based on the documentary data of the past, as well as the current ones. To assess as more accurately the time stages of development for this municipality, many questionnaires have been compiled with the inhabitants of these villages, where

many important conclusions have been drawn. The basic resource materials are obtained from the archives of this municipality, the registrar's office, the district's archive, various editions such as; The monographic "The nature and people in Tomorrica province ", "Tomorri in front of us" etc.

Results

The geological construction of the territory is simple. The geological structures are Tomorricë-Devolli syncline (western side) with Paleogene flysch rocks) (Middle Oligocene). In Tomorica's syncline there is a decrease, mainly, 10-150, whereas in Devolli's one up to 600. In southeast the flysches have tectonic contact with the covering structure of Koshnica Mountain. The geological construction is spoken more specifically in the monograph "The Natural Heritage of Tomorrica", which is written by Lireza. Q and Sala. S. The sandstone cliffs are widely used for the building and covering of the houses, walls, yard, etc, while clay-alevrolit rocks are used for handicraft production (a few) of tiling and bricks. A long time ago, it was even used for the preparation of crocks.

The geological construction and surface leaks have defined the morphological features and geomorphologic processes of the slope. The main forms of the landscape are hills and valleys. Their feature is the scalable morphology (peak, quaestor hills). Heights stagger is from 250-260 m (valley of Tomorica) to 638 m (south of the village).

In the flichy territory there are limestone blocks (olistolite). Sandstones are used for the building and covering of the houses (slate), limestone for lime. They are both used in erosion mounds, wall buildings; etc. The landscape is hilly- pre-mountain. It is formed by flysch with morphological escalations (Lirëza & Sala, 2013).

The quaesto landscape (5-6 peaks) is best expressed in the sector toward the peak Bregu Maise (618.2 m) and the neighbourhood Shimër-Tomorricë valley (7 foothill- quaesto). Ridges are built by the sandstone-conglomerates. Subsequent pass between them (width about 250-300 m) in the clay-alevrolite packages are used for pedestrian and rural roads. The landscape has an average degree of horizontal fragmentation up to 3 km\km2 in northwest of Shimër while in the southeast; it goes up to 4-5 km\km2. In this area are formed some small foci of erosion. The reforestations around 30 years ago have limited their expansion. They are surrounded by arable land. In general, the slopes have a small average incline, therefore it is facilitated the expansion of arable land.

The valleys are represented a little from Tomorrica's one and its branches on this slope (Shtegu i Lerës, etc). Generally, in the slopes proceed natural vegetation and a few geomorphologic processes of the slope. Near and around the village, over 100 years ago, the natural vegetation began to be replaced by arable land. Sloping backs with small inclines are preferred and chosen for the construction of houses (the streams of Shkollas and Shimëri, Shtegu i Leres).

The valley (2.5-3 km) in the east-west part is obsequent. It has almost symmetrical slopes and winding due to lithological causes. In the river bed, there are identified small rapids. On the northern slope, the vegetation decreases, the agriculture expands the erosion and slides increase. In the south of the valley (the branch of Kurajt: 2-2.5 km) are identified the same morphological characteristics, but differs on better storage of the vegetation in the basin. The black pine arrives near the valley of Tomorrica.

It is included in the Mediterranean- hilly climate area. (HIDMET Institute, 1984). The geographical position makes it open to the winds and a significant number of sunny hours radiates on it. However, Tomorri Mountain deprives of sunny time in late afternoon at winter. Small heights of landscape do not allow lower temperatures, excluding extraordinary meteorological events.

The hydrography in the commune of Skënderbegas is represented by the upper part of some left branches of Devolli, the right branches of Tomorricë (Shtegu Lerës, Shesë, Gurrës, Përroi i Thellë, Kostonisë Shpellës, Sekës) and some other resources. Those are short, but the ones that are discharged on Tomorrica are longer and not with a small bed incline. Lera's Path (3 km) starts near the Mais hill (618 m) and ends in Tomorrica (270 m). Near the village, the two main branches unite at 510 m altitude. These are temporary in the case when Lera's Path is fed by small resources.

The genetic types of lands are represented by: brown gray, brown and auburn forestry lands, but the most dominant is the first type (up to 600 m altitude). It has the largest agricultural uses that are liked for many agricultural crops. In the last 20 years olive is added too. The two other types have limited extent and only a few by brown lands are used in agriculture. The vegetation of shrubs are better preserved in northern of Shkollas, on the left of rural roads and on west of Shimër neighbourhood (small areal). It seems clear that the expansion of arable land has influenced a lot. The pine forest of Skënderbegas (32 ha) extends in the heights from 400 to 500 m up to 1500 m (Qiriazi and Sala, 2007), it is well

preserved, but the fire (August 2008) significantly damaged its surface (on right of the rural road)

The wild fauna is rich, relatively well (wolf, fox, rabbit, hedgehog, marten, badger, weasel, etc.). Brown bear and boar are visitors on winters with heavy snow, when they go down to the village; they harm the livestock and maize. There are plenty of birds (partridges, falcons, wild pigeon, jay, blackbirds, sparrows, nightingale, turtledove, owl, cuckoo horse, etc).

However, inappropriate hunting of the last 15 years is damaging the wild fauna (hunters from the districts, and even foreigners). They shoot at any time by killing as much as they can without paying taxes at the commune. Illegal hunting damages the welfare of the inhabitants too.

Nature has been kind with this commune (climate, forest, fauna, landscape), but the commune and residents have to change the way of use, made so far in favour of nature and socio-economic opportunities. Skënderbegas is connected with rural roads as Gramsh, Bletëz, Ermenj, Vidhan, Fushëz, Zenelas, Siman etc. There is a daily transportation line Gramsh –Vidhas - Gramsh. There are 10-12 private cars (various types) and 2-3 tractors for agricultural work (higher cost). The electricity system is linked with those of Kodoviat and Kërpica and supports well the present loads, despite the increasing use of household electrical appliances (rural exodus). The power is used for showers and rarely for cooking. Residents like the wood warming (low cost). However, it is verified that inhabitants pay regularly the electricity that they consume.

Population in years

In 1926 there were 650 inhabitants in Skënderbegasi (Selenica, 1927) while in 2010 there were 439 inhabitants (217 males, 222 females) and over 100 economic immigrant males).

In 1926 the village of Narta had 127 inhabitants, in 1989 there were 400 inhabitants, in 2012 there were 333 inhabitants (163 males and 22-25 third ages). In 1926 there were 115 inhabitants Kotka village (Selenica, 1927). After 1990 many inhabitants have left their residence toward : Greece(8-10 people) Italy (6-7 people) and 3 people in England while referring to the families are identified: 17-20 families in Tirana, 3-4 in Durres and Elbasan, 4-5 is the number of families in Gramsh and 2-3 families in Fier and Vlora.

Harunas village had 164 inhabitants in 1989. After 1991 the population was involved in the emigration and migration. In 2008, there were 143 people (67 males, 76 females in 29 families); in 2012 it had only 80 inhabitants.

Lemnushë village had 45 inhabitants in 1926 (Selenica, 1927) while in 1989 there were 115 inhabitants and in 2012 there were 55 inhabitants (20 females and 12 males). High exodus in search of a better life has reflected the dominance of females. There are identified 25-30 inhabitants who are immigrated to Greece. (The Office of Statistics of Skenderbegas, 2014).

Kullollas village had 83 inhabitants in 1926, all muslims (Selenica, 1927); in 2008 it had 168 inhabitants (75 males, 93 females) and 49 families; in 2010 it had 164 inhabitants (74 males and 90 females, 48 families). Over 20 inhabitants followed the seasonal emigration helped by the visa's liberalization (The Office of Statistics, Skenderbegas, 2014).

Ermenj village had 172 inhabitants in 1926 (Muslims-Bektashi Selenica, 1926), in 1989 there were 486 inhabitants, in 2010 there were 210 inhabitants (110 males and 100 females, 45 families, 20 of them followed seasonal emigration; 2012 it had 140 inhabitants (85 males, 14 pensioners). (The Office of Statistics of Skenderbegas, 2014).

Fushëz village had 136 inhabitants in 2008 (according to gender, equal number) and 40 families; in 2010 it had 119 inhabitants (62 males and 57 females) and 36 families. 10-12 males follow seasonal emigration in Greece. Siman village had 150 inhabitants in 1989, while in 2008 resulted to be 129 inhabitants (47 males and 82 females, 30 families), and in 2012 there were approximately 100 inhabitants. (Basha , P. 2005, In front of us, Tomorri).

Vidhan village had 189 inhabitants, in 2008 there were 154 (81 males, 73 females and 39 families), in 2012 it had only 70 inhabitants (40 males and 30 females). After 1991 around 10 families emigrated to Greece and Italy, 5-6 to Tirana, 2-3 to Durres, Elbasan and Gramsh etc.

Zenelasi village had around 100 inhabitants in 1989, while in 2013 (after 1990 exodus) it remained 35-40 people (gender differences, 2-3 people), 26-30 people have emigrated to Greece, 5-6 families to Tirana and Gramsh, 2-3 to Durres, 2 Elbasan etc. Below is given the graphic that present the population of this commune.
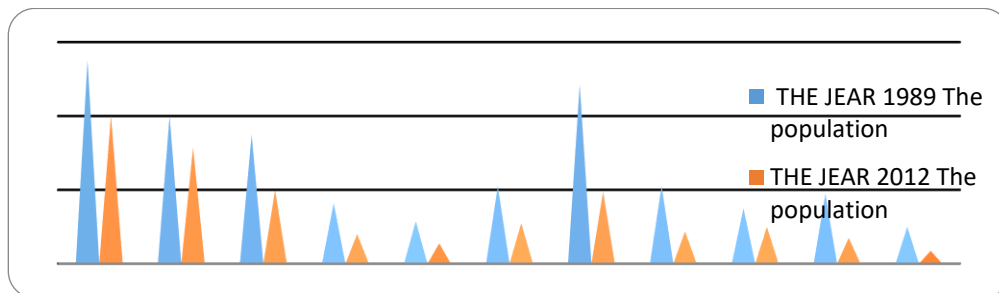
Chart 1. The Performance of the population in the villages of Skenderbegas commune

From the analysis of this chart, it results that from 2008 to 2012 the number of inhabitants in this commune has decreased. This is related to the evacuation from these rural areas toward the urban ones and in emigration.

From this commune have come up many well known figures in national rang. Xhile Liçi is one of the national figures. His name is given to the school and to a neighbourhood in Gramsh. He is relatively less known, so we are giving its main activity.

He was born on 2.01.1878. The economic difficulties forced him to emigrate (around 1895) in Follorine, Selanik, Manastir and other towns in the Balkans and Turkey.

In 1911 he joined with the call of the Great Powers for the independence of Albania and together with Asllan Shahini they represented Tomorrica and Gramsh at the Assembly of Vlora (28/12/1912); they authorized Ismail Qemali as representative for these regions.

Ermenj village is the place of birth of Abas Ermenji (1913-2003), one of the leading figures of the National Front. He made his secondary education in Shkodra. With a scholarship from the state, he went in Sorbon (France) for undergraduates. He worked as a professor at the Lice (1938). He was against the Italian occupation, therefore was arrested and deported (1940) in Veneto island (Italy). One year later, he came back and started organizing the National Front. The patriot Dervish Rizai published in Korca "Faith in homeland" (1933). He has written "We are here on this land since it can't be remembered, no homeland no religion, " in "Faith in religion". He admired and had as an idol the great represent ant of the Albanian renaissance, Naim Frasheri, by calling him as "The heart of Albania, the

fountain of wisdom, torch of the childhood, and saint of humanity". (Albanian Encyclopedic Dictionary, 2010)

During the National-Liberation War, the partisan forces were increased, especially the tribes Çongo, Çela, Shimri, Zisko, etc. The martyrs are reminded by the monument at the centre of the village. The village was burned and robbed (1943-1944) by the Germans. In 'Qafa Kashtes' area was developed the battle between the German and partisan forces. The National-Liberation Anti-Fascist Council was set up in March 1943. It was liberated by the V-the offensive Brigade in July 1943.

Economy and lifestyle

It became a cooperative in 1957, and later it was united with Nartë, Bletëz, Kullollas and Fushëz villages. The first chairperson was Mete Koçi , followed by Bexhet Osuni, Perikli Mali, Fidai Sadiku, Belul Koçi and Misto Perja. In 1967 the village was proclaimed the center of the united cooperative Skenderbegas (Kullollas, Bletëz, Harunas, Nartë, Shëmbërdhenj (Upper), Fushas and Menkollar). The economic activity has always remained the agriculture associated with climatic-terrestrial conditions. There was cultivated mostly wheat (35-40 kv\ha), maize (100-140 kv\ha), beans (20-22 kv\ha), rye (15-18 kv\ha), tobacco, vine, fruit trees, etc. A major part of the work (plowing sowing, harvesting-threshing) were performed with agricultural engineering (old technology).The transport was made by animals, private cargo and the cooperative truck. The storage, separation, etc, were made as elsewhere (typical communist, unfair). Livestock was represented by smaller livestock (350-400 head), cattle (70-80 Cows and animals of work. Vegetables and fodders were also produced. In the 70s the residents received 80 ALL/day/work, while 10 years after result to be 70 all. In 1989 it had an united Middle School (Agriculture), nursery and garden, museum, palace of culture, hospital, shops with mixed articles (Dictionary, 1986)

After 1990 some new houses have been built, but 30-40% has maintained the architectural tradition.

The funding is supported by the immigration's income, mainly from Greece. Buildings have many new architectural elements, more functional for the lives of the house wife such as drinking water; .

The main direction in the economic development has historically been the agriculture, vineyards and livestock. In this commune there have been major agricultural

damages (28 July 1978) from hail. The tobacco, vegetables, potatoes, corn, etc. were damaged more severely. In the '70-'80 it was in the centre of the united cooperative-village with the same name (1950 inhabitants). Today it is the centre of the commune (Upper Shëmbërdhenj, Bletëz, Ermenj, Fushëz, Harunas, Kullollas, Kotka, Nartë, Lemnushë, Siman, Vidhan and Zenelas). In the '80s in wheat and potatoes were respectively taken 30-32 kv\ha and 140-145 kv\ha. The cooperative was among prominent in Gramsh, even in tobacco production, smaller livestock cattle in concentrated stalls (Nartë, etc.) It had 60 heads of cattle\ha in the stalls. A huge development had the beekeeping, which is renewed, relatively well. (Sala, S and Lireza, Q, 2014)

Residents plant what's convenient to them. The inhabitants have paid priority attention to cultivation of the vine, fruit trees, also the olive, which is defined by the market finding and fast profit. There are families who receive economic assistance. Residents produce (craft) brandy, dairy, pickles, figs, almonds and dried vegetables, etc. These products are extremely good, thanks to the sun and climatic-terrestrial conditions. The Production costs are high in comparison with other areas. Priority is still the household consumption. With lots of difficulties, inhabitants find little brandy, grapes, fruit and dairy market. The residents have in their tradition the metal and wood working, just for fun. It is saved just a little the working in handloom, while earlier they prepared clothing, carpets for domestic needs. It is still preserved the tradition of protecting the arable land from erosion. About 60% of the arable land area was opened in the years 1950-1985. (Archive, 2012)

About 90 % of households have land patent, but a significant area is abandoned and left barren. There are identified are as covered by landslides 4-5 ha and nearly double of them are facing high erosion. Ownership dispute are resolved by understanding with the local government. The commune's administration has 9 employees. The collected revenues are negligible compared with the salaries that they take. Funding from the state budget, that's not the right way!

For the future, the nature and human resources enable the development of agricultural activity: fruit trees, vine, livestock, beekeeping, potato, tobacco, etc. But politicians and decision- makers have to change many things. They have to consider as priority the local territorial organization and the state's assistance politics for the funding of agriculture. Now days, villagers require assistance to promote the incensement of production.

After the 90-s the number of socio-cultural objects is declined, due to mass dismissals of residents to cities like Gramsh, Elbasan, Tirana, Durres, etc. and in emigration. In all municipalities operate seven businesses, three kindergartens, eight elementary schools, three 9-year-old schools and one high school, located in the centre of the municipality.

Discussion

From what we have introduced above, it results that Skëndebegas commune has a total area of 80.1 km2 and a population of about 3, 000 inhabitants. It lies in the district of Gramshi, in central Albania, with generally hilly- mountainous landscape and with hilly- mountain Mediterranean climate.

The commune has 13 villages connected with rural roads between them, and also with the centre of the district, the city of Gramsh. Natural and climatic conditions are favourable for the development of agriculture, livestock and viticulture, but the lack of investment in agricultural mechanics; infrastructure has caused the decreasement of crop yields. Likewise the trading of various products, due to damaged roads is inadequate. The population from year to year has decreased sharply, because residents seek for a better life. In these conditions we recommend that;

The research conducted by the Albanian State, to carry out a comprehensive administrative-territorial reform is imperative too. This commune, such as many others, cannot provide incomes; the administration of this commune is funded by the state. The aim of this reform is to reduce the number of communes, taking as basic criteria their geographical area and number of inhabitants.

The state has to encourage private initiative in the villages of this commune, by supporting them even with soft loans. Finally more caution should be taken to improve the road infrastructure, therefore more investment have to be done.

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Class teacher trainees' conceptions of their own learning, mentoring and tutoring in teaching

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Abstract

Class teacher education in Finland differs in several aspects from the training the future teachers get in other countries. First, the training takes place at universities. Second, it takes five years to finish the studies. Third, along the teacher's certificate the students get the master's degree. Fourth, the teaching training takes place mainly in the training schools connected to the universities. Fifth, the students entering the Finnish class teacher education are older than in many other countries. The teaching practice at the Department of Teacher Education in Rauma Unit is divided into four practice periods: basic teaching practice 1, basic teaching practice 2, thematic/research teaching practice, and subject specific teaching practice. The training is altogether 26 study credits out of 300 ECTS. The teaching practice is supervised by tutors who are teachers within the department of teacher education, in Finland they are usually lecturers of different subjects, and by mentors who are teachers working at the schools where student teachers are trained. This article focuses on how student teachers reflect their learning, and how they evaluate practical training and the role of a tutor and a mentor. The research instrument is an electronic questionnaire, which the trainees answered after each four training periods. The number of respondents was 239. The type of research is qualitative. The results of the study show that during the first training period some of the trainees started to think about teaching as a profession. In addition, they started to understand the role of a mentor. However, they claimed that some mentors had not found out the main idea of mentoring. According to the students, several mentors clung to their own ideas and did not enable the reflective thinking of trainees. During the second training period trainees started to see a teacher as a transformer of knowledge not just a deliverer of knowledge. In this practice, a tutor as well as a mentor had an important role in advising a trainee to take a more independent role. The third teaching practice included teaching of several different school subjects. Consequently, the roles of a mentor and a tutor were sometimes confusing for the trainee. The mentor was supposed to give theoretical advice and the latter practical advice. During the fourth practice student teachers could understand the children of different ages better as well as reflect their own behavior in the classroom more skillfully than in the first practice.

Keywords: Teaching Training, Mentoring, Tutoring

Introduction

While reading literature connected to this topic one can very easily notice that the teacher education, especially for those aiming to be class teachers, varies in different countries (e.g. the Netherlands, the UK, the US, Greece) as well as the teaching practice. According to Zanting, Verloop, and Vermunt (2001) teacher preparation has typically been situated in schools rather than in higher education institutions. Whereas in Finland teacher education has been a part of universities since 1974, which year was a turning point in the Finnish teacher preparation. The teacher education became more academic. Since then, there have been various changes in the class teacher education.

The Finnish class teacher education has been built according to the Bologna Process to consist of two academic degrees; a lower academic degree of 180 credits completed in three years and giving a student the Bachelor's degree (BA), and a higher academic degree of 120 credits completed in two years ending at the Master's degree (MA). To get the certificate for teaching a student has to attain MA. (Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi 2006.)

By the time the students enter a university, they have been at school 12 to 13 years, at least, and they have observed the work of their teachers and usually have formed some expectations about the role of a teacher. They might have formed very deeply grounded beliefs and attitudes about teaching (Karavas & Drossou 2009). In Finland, it is very hard to enter the teacher education. Consequently, most of the students have attended several times to the entrance exams, and some of them have experience about teaching that they have got by serving either as a school aid or a substitute teacher. This setting gives a challenge to the teacher education.

Definitions of the terms

Class teachers are teachers in comprehensive schools who are teaching mainly grades 1 to 6, but they are also qualified to teach grades 7 to 9 in certain subjects; the age of the pupils varying from 7 to 15.

Concepts such as a mentor and a tutor get different meanings in different contexts (Krull 2005). The term 'mentoring' is frequently used. It is also a term that has been used for a long time (Le Cornu 2005) in many connections and among different occupations. In many countries, the term 'mentoring' has been connected also to teaching. Lai (2005/2006) made a review of the mentoring literature and found that "there is no agreed conceptualization of mentoring among teacher educators and educational researchers" (p. 107). A similar conclusion can be read in the article of Levine (2011). Usually, mentoring includes the interaction between a new professional and a veteran professional (who has been chosen as a mentor). For this reason it is essential to determine how these concepts are understood in this study, and which concepts are used in parallel meaning.

 Mentors are teachers working at the school where student teachers are trained. Since the system of the teacher training in Finland compared with other countries is different, class teachers (in Finnish luokanlehtorit) of the Finnish training schools (in Finnish normaalikoulut) are called mentors. They can also be teachers at the local schools, who are assigned for the training of the university, as the custom is in many other countries (Zanting et al. 2001; Taylor 2008). Tutors are lecturers, who supervise prospective teachers within a department of teacher education. In the recent literature, one can find a concept the university tutor (see Taylor 2008). In Finland, they are usually lecturers of different subjects (mother tongue, mathematics, history etc.), who are called in Finnish didaktikot (the concept stems from the word didactic). They could also be named as university teacher educators (Taylor 2008) or university supervisors (Zanting et al. 2001). Teacher trainees are student teachers, who practice teaching at the university training school (also called lab schools) and are supervised by mentors and tutors. They are also called in this article as prospective teachers.

The qualification requirements for all teachers (mentors) working at a Finnish training school may also differ from the ones, who are acting as mentors in other countries. The Finnish teachers have to have at least a Master's degree including so called pedagogical studies (60 ECTS credits). In addition, before appointed to this position they have to have a minimum of two years of full-time teaching experience, they have to obtain good teaching skills that they prove by giving a demonstration lesson when applying for a vacancy. Furthermore, the teachers of teacher training schools have to be experiment and research oriented, since one of the aims in teaching practice is to create an innovative and analytical attitude among the prospective teachers. (Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi 2006.) The qualification requirements for tutors are minimum of a Master's degree for university teachers and a Doctor's degree for university lecturers.

Teaching practice in Finland

Teaching practice is an essential part of a teacher education, as are the roles of a mentor and a tutor in creating a harmonious and productive working environment. A mentor and a tutor must therefore encourage open and clear communication, encourage everyone to contribute to discussion, make everyone feel valued, and ensure that the training has clear objectives and they are achieved. A good mentor and a tutor who encourages trainees to be creative in thinking must also be able to appreciate their answers and solutions. This means that the interaction between a mentor or a tutor and a trainee should be positive, open and encouraging. The atmosphere in tuition should generate critical thinking, but also openness. A prospective teacher should feel that his or her thoughts and perspectives are being appreciated and valued. (Soininen 2004.)

The teaching practice at the Department of Teacher Education, Rauma Unit, in the University of Turku, Finland, is constructed according to two stage structure. During BA studies the students are obliged to take part in two training periods, which are a part of intermediate studies and called the Basic Teaching Practice 1 (BTP 1; 5 credits) and BTP 2 (7 credits). The objectives for BPT 1 are: to support trainees' development into professional teachers by giving them an opportunity to become familiar with the tasks a teacher is responsible for, by allowing them to practice their communication and interaction skills in classrooms, and by applying theoretical studies in practice. Another objective is that they learn teaching and learning methods; teaching, planning, practice, observation, and teaching assistance and participation in general class work. The objectives for BTP 2 are: to enhance trainees' knowledge in planning, teaching and assessment, and to strengthen teaching and learning methods; teaching, observation, planning, teaching assistance, tutoring other school activities. These two teaching practice periods are done in pairs in certain school subjects. After BA degree a student can continue to advanced studies that include the Thematic Teaching Practice (TTP; 7 credits) and the Subject Specific

Teaching Practice (SSTP; 7 credits). The objectives for TTP are in short: to develop the skills required to enhance personal teaching style, and to learn to analyze and evaluate students' as well as one's own work, and to get acquainted with home and school partnership. The objectives for SSTP are in brief: to plan, to carry out, and evaluate larger teaching sessions in connection with curricula, and to practice in taking more individual responsibility of teaching. These two training periods are individual training periods, which means that a trainee is responsible for all that takes place at school during one week. The practice is more compact than BTP 1 and BTP 2. One credit is approximately 27 hours of workload. Practice periods are not graded with numbers, only pass – fail.

Theoretical frameworks

The literature provides several models of mentoring, but in this article only three of them are specified. The first one is called the apprenticeship model or the master-apprentice model, where mentors usually have the role of a model. In this model teacher trainees observe experienced teachers in their work and form ideas about the process of teaching. The second model is the competency model or the clinical supervision model, in which novice teachers learn to teach by practicing different teaching strategies and techniques under the observation of mentors as well as tutors. The third model is called the reflective model. In it, the students are required to evaluate critically different ways of teaching in order to extend their teaching repertoire and develop their deeper understanding of the process of teaching. (Franke & Dahlgren, 1996; Zanting, Verloop & Vermunt, 2001). The change from the apprenticeship model to the reflective model of teaching should be seen during the teaching practice periods. Lai (2005/2006) sees mentoring as a process of skill acquisition, which is connected with technical activities: 'the mentor passing on a "bag of tricks" to the mentee' (see also Jakku-Sihvonen & Niemi, 2006) or as a process of enculturation to the school world. Mentoring seen as a process of skill acquisition is a narrower definition than mentoring as an enculturation process.

The teacher trainees themselves should have a cognitive psychological view on learning and teaching. This means that learners (here student teachers) should be active, constructive and self-directed, and they should construct their personal knowledge and understanding, their own philosophy to teach. What is a role of a mentor in this process? Zanting et al. (2001) have mentioned several roles they have found from the literature. They point out that this role can be much more than a role of being a model or an instructor; it can be an information source for tips and advice during training. A mentor can be called a challenger, a coach, a supporter or an evaluator. Mentors use much more time with the trainees than university supervisors (tutors). Zanting, Verloop and Vermunt (2003) argue that mentors' practical knowledge is crucial in teaching practice. The literature shows that student teachers are focusing more on their own teaching than on the mentor's teaching skills. Mentors should provide possibilities for trainees to explore mentor's knowledge and beliefs about teaching (see also Crasborn, Hennissen, Brouwer, Korthagen & Bergen 2011).

It is obvious that the practical studies are one of the most important parts of the teacher education, which according to Jyrhämä (2006) plays a key role in how teacher trainees see their profession in the future. All teacher education programmes include so called theoretical studies and teaching practice. The most often asked question is how to combine these two elements most efficiently? Students do not seem to understand the connection between theory and practice or the ability to apply theory to practice develops slowly. In this, the role of a university supervisor (tutor) comes up. Usually, tutors represent one of the school subjects (e.g. mathematics, history, mother tongue) and they teach students the theoretical structures and teaching strategies of their subjects. Also other studies, such as educational psychology, social psychology, educational philosophy, special education, should be connected to practice. Mentors and tutors should have a common agreement about how and what to teach to student teachers. It is important because a tutor supervises a trainee and observes his or her teaching only couple of hours during the training period, but a mentor spends the whole training period with a prospective teacher. Everyone should be able to adjust his or her attitudes, values, and beliefs, which he or she should adjust to meet the others' attitudes, values and beliefs.

The physical learning environment, the context, which is a combination of cognitive and emotional structures where mentoring and tutoring take place, should be safe, harmonious and pleasant. There should be a good understanding between the three parties shown in Figure 1.
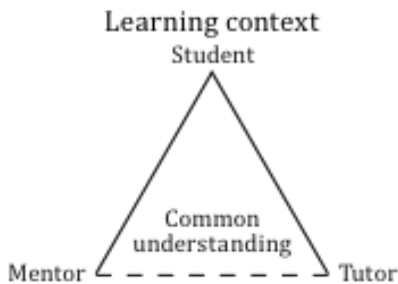
Fig.1 The connection between the three parties during a teaching practice

As shown in Figure 1, there are always three actors involved more or less actively in teaching practice. The learning context is either the university and its teacher education curriculum or the teaching training school and its curriculum. Both curricula should be active for each of the three parties. A common model is that during his or her academic studies, the trainee is aware of the tutor's (a subject didactics lecturer) curriculum, and during the teaching practice he or she is aware of the mentor's (a class teacher) curriculum. The important fact is that also mentors and tutors should be familiar with these two curricula. Figure 1 also implicates that tutors, mentors and student teachers should work in triads (see also Taylor 2008). This means "that student teachers' work is done in complex settings where an array of people with varied histories, understandings, beliefs, and perspectives on instruction and curriculum interact" (Valencia, Martin, Place & Grossman 2009, 304). Several studies (e.g. Bullough & Draper 2004; Veal & Rikard 1998) also show that triads are hierarchical; in most cases university supervisors are regarded as those being on the top. However, in Figure 1 a tutor (university supervisor) and a mentor (class teacher) are on the parallel level, because their roles can be considered equal in the process of teaching practice in certain aspects.

Student teachers learn from experts who are their mentors and tutors. For this reason, one should be aware that always when having a conversation either between a mentor (tutor) and a trainee, or between these three parties, attention should be paid to the quality of the professional dialogue (Harrison, Lawson & Wortley 2005). One should teach by one's own example of how to bring critical reflection on practice. For this reason, among other things, it is important for mentors to be methodical not only for tutors. Harrison et al. (2005) found out in their intervention that there is a proportion of prospective teachers" whose capacity and/or willingness to reflect become a significant feature in their professional development" (p. 288). Their working definition for critical reflection on practice is that it is about the exploration of 'why' and 'how' something is (or might be) done. It is important to notice also that the act of describing something (in this study one's own learning) is an individual interpretation, where one stresses some particular features and may leave some very important ones outside.

Method

Aims and research questions

The aims of the study are: first, to see how student teachers reflect their own learning during different teaching practice periods, second, to find out what the trainees' perceptions and views of mentoring and tutoring were after each teaching practiced period, and third, to reflect the teacher trainees' comments on the aims of the practice periods in order to change the practice towards more open and sensitive training. The specific research questions are: What the trainees have learned during the teaching practice periods? Does a trainee or a mentee see her or his mentor as an authoritarian instructor or as a supportive facilitator? Does the role of a mentor change during the four training periods?

Research instrument and data

After every training period, the trainees have to fill an electronic questionnaire including four questions: 1) What have you learned during your practice period? 2) What was good in the practice period? 3) What would you change within the practice period? 4) Do you have something else to comment? In this article, the answers are used as a database and the intention is not to answer the questions mentioned above but to see the texts as a whole. The main intention is to see how

the roles of a mentor and a tutor raise from the students' answers during the different training periods. The second intention is to give the reader an example of how a supervising process is constructed in the Finnish teaching practice.

The first training period (BTP 1) takes place during the spring semester of the second year of the studies. The second training (BTP 2) is during the fall semester of the third year of the studies. The third training (TTP) takes place during the fall semester of the first year of the Master's degree. The last training period (SSTP) is at the beginning of the spring semester of the second year of MA. The database of this article includes the answers of the students who filled the questionnaire after their first training period, BTP1 (n=68), after their second training period, BTP 2 (n= 52), after their third training period, TTP (n= 65), and after their last training period, SSTP (n=54). The data was given anonymously; consequently the gender of the tutors, the mentors or the student teachers is not available.

Though the data is large in numbers quantitative methods are not used when analyzing it, instead the qualitative answers of the student teachers' beliefs of their own learning were read using case study methodology and the grounded theory approach. The data analysis was guided by the first question mentioned above. At the first stage, the data was read several times to get the overall view of the answers. The second stage was to color-code certain words and sentences to find out, which were the main themes that could be raised from the text connected to every four practicing period. The numbers after every example show on the one hand to which training period (I – IV) it is connected, and the other hand the number of the answerer (1 – 68). Since the answers were written in Finnish, the examples were translated into English as identical in meaning as possible, and in the way the trainees had written them.

Results

The answers varied considerably in content; there were answers from two words to 212 words; from no more than some concepts to specific concepts; from surface learning to deep learning. This implicates that there were huge differences among the students' conceptions about their learning. Some of them had really concentrated in reflecting, what he or she had learned, but from some answers could immediately be seen that the respondent had not paid any attention to the question.

During the first training period (BTP 1) the trainees learned technical, concrete and practical things. In addition, they had already learned to reflect their own learning. The role of a mentor was also important during this practice period.

"One has to put effort on lesson planning and pay attention to all possible things. (Also those that you cannot even memorize.) At first we did the lesson plans much too inaccurate. Fortunately, our mentor told us right away that we need to include all possible, also pupils' probable reactions / comments related to the topic that is taught. The concept "lesson" got a new meaning. We noticed that 45-minute-long lesson is often after all too short. With good planning one can use it most effectively." (I/14).

"I learned all kinds of things that I don't bother to begin to list. Most important were practical things that make teaching easier. I got guidance in every (4) subject, and it helped a lot . From the teacher (mentor) I got plenty of new ideas, for example, of teaching religion. I learned to act with the second graders, before this I have mainly worked with 5 – 6 graders." (I/31)

Next quotations show the problem that was demonstrated in Figure 1. It seems that the mentor and the tutor do not cooperate, and the trainee uses this situation; "learns to please them". Some of the mentors seem to keep tightly to their own ideas and do not enable student teachers' reflective thinking. The trainees learn very easily to please the mentors and the tutors, and they act as they are wanted to. This leaves no space for trainees to act according to their own strategies or use new teaching methods.

"I learned to please the tutor and the mentor. The problem in this training period is that there exists no co-operation, and it is bad for a trainee. We have to make the plans so that the both shall sign the paper, and they won't do it unless the plan is exactly how they want it to be. Of course, there are exceptions, but some of the teachers (mentors) are such who do not accept one's own new ideas to their classes. I imagine that during the first training period the main goal is to learn, for instance, by doing mistakes. It is better that I will see through my own performance the problems than that the mentor says that it is not possible to do it like that "because we have this kind of habit in this classroom" or "because I have been as a teacher already for so long that I know that it does not work". Maybe the mentor knows what he or she is talking about, but it does not help a trainee." (I/68)

 "Didactics lecturers (tutors) often stress that trainees should try different things. In practice class teachers (mentors) have quite often a clear "vision" about teaching. As a trainee I feel sometimes that I am between 'the tree and the bark', on the

one hand I am encouraged to try and on the other hand I should do it in a way it has always been done. It is often very frustrating! To this I need coherence". (I/20)

These examples reveal that cooperation between the tutors and the mentors who are working in the same triad does not always function. There is a great need for tutors and mentors to enhance their own supervising. The result is similar to the one Veal and Rikard (1998) reported.

The second basic training (BTP 2) was very similar to the first one, but now the four subjects that the trainees practiced in pairs were different. However, the training took place in the same classes in most of the cases under the same mentor, although the tutors changed due to the different school subjects. While students' reflections were very similar to the first ones there was one significant change: now a child or children were mentioned in most of the answers.

 "I learned to pay more attention to pupils' own experiences as a base of my teaching. Our mentor supervised us (like at the first training) giving advice, how to get children to become active knowledge processors. I also learned to give more space to conversational teaching style; a teacher does not need to explain everything, so pupils' own thoughts became now more out. Thank you for the mentor, who is really an expert!" (II/9)

 "The best were the new challenges and possibilities in teaching. The other good thing was the feedback discussions with the class teacher (mentor). She (he) gave constructive feedback about my teaching and gave good hints to different situations. She (he) made me also to think my own teaching and (made me) to reflect, what I myself thought about it, and what went well and what went wrong in my teaching. The teaching environments as well as the teaching facilities were good." (II/15)

 "I learned a lot, thanks to my XX supervisor. I got new views to my teaching, like how to use (different) concepts in teaching. XX gave a lot of good advices before, during and after the lessons. I tried to learn from XX as much as I could in order to get new views to my teaching for my future teaching career. Methods were new to me, but I noticed that there is a lot of good in them. I will use them also later. In music teaching I got support that I also needed. I found out how a music lesson has to be constructed and from what strings to pull to get children to become stimulated. Thanks to XX!" (II/21)

The student teachers also learned how to work with pupils of different ages. Maybe during the first training period there was so much new to be learned that the children's age did not show up in the same meaning as during this second training.

"I learned to work with the first graders (in Finland they are approx. 7 years old), I learned to manage the class. I also learned more about the subjects. I learned to be more persistent with the other trainees in the same class and to take up feedback." (II/32)

When reading the students' comments after the two training periods, it was found that the mentor's role was similar to the one in the competency model explained before. The students do not any more regard them as role models in a way they did during the first training period. It is also worth mentioning that now the students' comments included only a few mentions about the tutors.

The third teaching practice (TTP) differed from the two previous ones. Now student teachers taught in their practice class all the lessons during a whole school week. Their practice covered not only teaching different subjects, but also all the other work a class teacher has to do during a week, such as keeping an eye on pupils during the lunch hour and the breaks between lessons, consulting with parents and so on.

"I learned a lot for example, when for the first time my lesson was video recorded in the studio class. It was really instructive to see the video! In top of all I got acquainted with a pupil with learning disabilities. That was the first time I was in an elementary class, and in fact it was good to see how much time is needed there." (III/21)

"I was also satisfied that I got feedback of every lesson I taught. Good was also that the teacher (mentor) did not interrupt my teaching but gave the feedback after the lesson. This strengthened my authority and affected the controlling of the class." (III/24)

The quotations above show that also video recordings of the lessons were found to be very educative. Watching the recordings with mentors and tutors is an excellent way to reflect one's action in the classroom. In didactic seminars, student teachers can share their opinions and ideas about teaching practice. These seminars were found very educative and important.

The fourth and last practice period (SSTP) took place at the beginning of the spring semester. The students' comments showed, among other things, that they had learned how to assess pupils in various ways. Since they had already some knowledge about different school subjects, which are taught at the primary level, they were able to get deeper to a subject and use new methods.

"I learned a lot of new things. Actually, I can say that during this training period I got out most for my future career. This was mainly due to my mentor who was supportive, encouraging and gave constructive feedback. I learned a lot since I was for the first time at this grade level. Teaching one subject ten hours makes you learn. I am not good at the subject I taught, so I had to work hard. (IV/2)

"This was the best practice of all! The class teacher, pupils and the environment supported my own teacher hood. I learned that having a good supervisor has a great meaning. I got support, help and possibility to carry out my own ideas. From several other trainees I heard that some class teachers who are so fixed to their own ideas do not allow student teachers to try anything new." (IV/8)

Altogether the training periods were found to be very good among most of the trainees. As mentioned earlier, teaching training is a very interactive process in which mentors (tutors), trainees and pupils are interacting. Class teachers (mentors) are always in charge of the class where a trainee is practicing. However, as the examples below show, the trainees also mentioned things that needed to be improved:

"Practice needed really a lot of work, and the days stretched nearly around the clock in planning the lessons. Group /personal guidance in different subjects were more effective if there were exact times when a teacher is present in order to give topics. Now a lot of extra time was spent "running after teachers" when I was trying to meet the teacher to get his or her topics. One could have used this time in planning the lessons. This happened again at the end of the practice period, when I needed the teacher's signature in my practicum card. I also found problematic the subjects in which there was only one lesson to teach. During one lesson there is not enough time to get acquainted with the topic and teaching is just touching the surface." (1/15)

"It seems that the training school does not have common rules of how the aims of training are mastered or how feedback is given to a trainee. For instance, while some teachers (mentors) want to have an hour-long feedback session every day, the others have them hardly ever. In TTP training one topic was the co-operation between home and school. Some, including yours truly, had to come to the parents evening and give a "presentation" about one's own training week, when the other trainees did not have this kind of obligation. Due to this the workloads differed greatly, and one cannot talk about equity…." (III/ 38)

"Students are not necessarily paid attention to. It would be polite to respect also trainees even if one is a class teacher. Also trainees have a very tight time schedule. Sometimes one has really to be resilient no matter how hungry and tired one is. Supervising teachers should also be flexible in some amount. 'I have to be then at coffee break'. I think this is an improper comment when we were trying to make an agreement of the time schedule. It should be left unsaid. The teachers get their salary, too. The supervising teacher sits at the end of the classroom, goes through his /her calendar and chews bubble gum mouth open. – A good example for us trainees. Sometimes it makes you wonder if the supervising teachers have got any training at all. How to give feedback? This is, however, the most important part of training." (IV/7)

"I don't know how teachers are instructed to supervise, but at least my motivation to study dropped during this practice because all the feedback I got was negative. The substitute teacher was the only one from whom I got concrete hints for teaching and positive feedback. At the department, they always emphasize to use in feedback the so called hamburger model, both positive and critic. I understand that the meaning of practice is not to make a student to wonder one's own teacher hood or in general turning to the field, instead one should be encouraged and supported in building of one's teacher hood. I wish that also supervisors concentrated on this in the future." (IV/13)

The last examples include several good advises for supervisors. It is of great importance how the trainees are spoken to. All teacher educators, no matter in which role they act, should remember that they serve as role models for future teachers. Prospective teachers learn to interact and use different dialogue models during their education. One should not take it for granted that one is ready for supervising that instant one gets a position as a teacher educator. For this reason, it is also important to educate the supervisors.

Discussion

In different teacher education departments in Finland, there are great differences in the amount of teaching practice. There has been long lasting debate of how much practice a teacher trainee should have. The truth is that no one can tell the quantity or the quality of training which would be optimal. The results of this study are similar to the results of Franke and Dahlgren (1996); the student teachers consider that the practical part of their education is the most important one. Another question that needs to be answered is; how much supervision or advice the mentors and tutors should give to trainees during the teaching practice. As the results of the study show, the trainees find the advice of the mentors to be more useful

than the ones given by the tutors. In future, more attention should be paid to the role of a tutor in the teaching practice process. Nevertheless it is essential that tutors and mentors have the same goals concerning the training. Sometimes, as can be seen from the examples above, it is very confusing for a trainee to work in a classroom with different instructions given by the two parties.

The pivotal question is; what kind of roles a tutor (a university educator) and a mentor (a class teacher) take in the process of teaching practice? Do they give instructional support or psychological support to trainees (see Krull 2005) or are they preparing trainees for classroom management (see Clement 2010)? It is obvious that, as Jokinen and Välijärvi (2006) state "new teacher professionalism means more collegial collaboration, more sharing of different practices and more mutual support than before" (p.99).

Teacher education enhances all the time. When the new fall semester 2014 starts, the curriculum of the teacher education at the department of teacher education, Rauma unit, in the University of Turku, Finland, is already different than the one explained here, and hopefully it is also more effective. When planning the new curriculum, the aim was to keep in mind as well the feedback that had been received from the trainees as the statement by Järvinen, Kohonen, Niemi, and Ojanen (1995) "those involved in designing and putting into practice pre-service teacher education curricula need to be aware of the kinds of seeds they provide, both personally and as an institution" (p. 132).

We should also take in consideration the idea Le Cornu (2005) mentioned in her article: "There is a shift away from the mentor as expert, hierarchical one-way view to a more reciprocal relationship." (p. 356) She also refers to previous literature and terms such as co-mentoring, mutual mentoring, collaborative mentoring and critical constructivist mentoring which she says are reflecting the changes. Though Le Cornu is adapting this change to peer mentoring, we would like to see this change also among university tutors and mentors (see Figure 1). If cooperation between these two works well, it serves as a model for a student teacher, how people who might have different views to a topic can appreciate each other's views. This also needs open dialogue.

The interaction between the key triad members has been found to be complex (Valencia et al. 2009), but we should understand that it is a "collective" activity also involving many other actors than the key members of a triad: the pupils of those classes student teachers are teaching as well as other members of the school and the university community. This was also found in the answers of the trainees.

Although the results are not transferable to another teacher education, we found similarities with earlier studies, as we pointed out above. One of the major problems that emerged from the student teachers' answers was that most of the studies have concentrated on dyads; other important problems were related to the cooperation between tutors (university supervisors) and student teachers or mentors (cooperating teachers) and student teachers. It is obvious that more studies are needed about triads. Another interesting research question would be; how the gender affects the supervising process? Taylor (2008) argues that there are still very few studies done in the context of professional university programs like in the area of initial teacher education concerning learning of student teachers. As she states "these studies are important in that the findings are of consequence in the improvement of university teaching and student learning " (p. 68).

In teaching practice, mentors' role is to enhance trainees' professional skills, promote student-teachers' reflection on their practice, such as the lesson planning and lesson delivery as well as provide assistance and support. Altogether, their role is to facilitate prospective teachers' induction into the world of teaching and the school environment (Lai 2005/2006). The role of a mentor is more practical in comparison with the role of a tutor, which is a liaison between theory and practice. As Lai pointed out, mentoring can be seen taking place in a formal and informal manner. By the formal level of mentoring Lai means pre-lesson conferences, where a mentor and a trainee discuss about the planning of lessons and delivering them, the observations of a trainee's lessons, and post-lesson conferences where these two parties discuss the performance during the observed lessons. The informal level of mentoring is everything informal or unplanned supervision that takes place during the day. According to this definition, we could see the work of tutors to be more formal, since they observe the lessons of a trainee only some hours not being present the whole day.

While reading the reflections of the students who attended to the four teaching practice periods, there was no clear evidence how the students processed their learning in teaching. During the first two periods, working with peer students and different subjects were in the center. One could say that the objectives for these two training periods were mastered, but students could not express exactly what they had learned, in most of the cases they only wrote what they had done during the training. There seemed to be so much to learn during the first basic practice that students could not see a pupil who came to the picture during the second basic training. The whole "picture" of teaching and a teacher's world opened for trainees during the third teaching practice period when they could teach a whole week. The fourth and last teaching practice strengthened and deepened their skills and knowledge in learning and assessment.

There is still much to be improved in teaching practice though the objectives of the training periods were mastered. The students should learn how to critically reflect their own practices (Harrison et. al. 2005) and social skills in teaching and learning situations. The co-operation between tutors, mentors and student teachers needs to be improve as well as the timing of the different training periods (among other things).

One can also question how reliable these answers were? Usually, when filling the questionnaire for the first time it is done properly, but already when doing it for the second time it seems to be for some students an obligatory task and this reaction could also be seen in the third and fourth time. One of the main questions to be negotiated in the near future is, for what reason is this kind of feedback data collected from the student teachers; is it only for the teacher education department, or for the training school, or is it for the students themselves, or to all these participants? What is the advantage of the feedback? It is obvious that more research on this field is needed, but which is the best form of collecting the data; is it a portfolio where students write their learning diaries, is it an interview, or is it an observation, or something else? The modern technology (see Grove, Strudler & Odell 2004) provides new learning platforms, which should be used in teaching practice. In-service training for mentors and tutors should also be provided. Teacher educators should see the importance of these two roles, and not take it for granted that everyone who is appointed to be a mentor or tutor is right away qualified for supervising prospective teachers.

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MULTICULTURALISM IN INDONESIAN NOVELS AS A CULTURE-UNITING DEVICE

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Abstract

This study aims to describe multiculturalism in Indonesian novels in the post-independence era. The sources are eight novels written from 1970s to 1990s. Multiculturalism is analyzed using social theories on the basis of cultural pluralistic mosaic. The findings show that multiculturalism in Indonesian novels is manifested in the use of a variety of languages in the works, understanding of social classes, citizens' devotion, inter-religion understanding, expressions of affection, and inter-nation marriages. Multicultural novels can serve as a culture-uniting device.

Keywords: multiculturalism, pluralism, culture-uniting device

Introduction

Indonesia has more than 13, 000 islands and the people speak in more than 500 languages, have a variety of beliefs and religions, and consist of several ethnic groups, resulting in the difficulty appreciating multicultural facts. Frictions appear among people with different beliefs and religions due to radicalism and a show-off of ethnic characteristics resulting from the regional autonomy policy necessitating that a leader must be an indigenous person and the existence of envy of particular ethnic groups because of economic inequality. All of these affect multiculturalism in Indonesia.

Besides, the understanding of multiculturalism may vary because of the infiltration of foreign cultures in their variety of forms such as fashion and lifestyle, the economic and cultural penetration, the information access, and the communication and transportation, making multicultural adaptation easy. The cultural penetration due to globalism is unavoidable in society. As a result, local values have to compete with global values parallel to advancement in education, science, and technology, resulting in penetration that can explain the relationship of individuals in society with a variety of religions, ethnic groups, languages, and cultures.

Indonesian novels that reflect multiculturalism can be used as one of the media for understanding multiculturalism because novels contain ideas, views, and enlightenment for issues related to ethnic relationship, religions, social classes, and communities with a variety of problems. Understanding and appreciation of multiculturalism will eventually be able to create understanding of cultural differences, which are unavoidable.

Through characters, settings, atmospheres, and issues presented in novels with a variety of ethnic groups and cultures in Indonesia, people can use them to contribute to strengthening a culture-uniting device to avoid conflicts related to religions, ethnic groups, and social classes in order to appreciate multiculturalism.

A novel as a literary work genre presents a variety of problems in human life, including relationship among human beings, interaction between human beings and their environments, interaction between a human being and the self, and interaction between a human being and God. A novel as a literary work contains the author's dialogs about life and environment. It is an imaginative work based on the author's consciousness to offer life model that s/he idealizes in dealing with problems in society and to express multicultural discourses.

The novels discussed in this paper are those related to multiculturalism in terms of issues related to religions, ethnic groups, and social classes and those written during the post-independence era in a variety of contexts. They are already criticized by literary critics and have a lot of readers. Therefore, such novels are assumed to influence the readers, moving in a parallel way to Indonesian multicultural society.

The novels under discussion are Bekisar Merah (2005) and Kubah (2011) by Ahmad Tohari, Burung-burung Manyar (1993) by Y. B. Mangunwijaya, Keluarga Permana (1978) by Ramadhan Karta Miharja, Laskar Pelangi (2006) by Andrea Hirata, Para Priyayi (2003) by Umar Kayam, Pengakuan Pariyem (2008) by Linus Suryadi AG, Canting (2007) by Arswendo Atmowiloto, and Tarian Bumi (2003) by Oka Rusmini.

Multicultural Politics in Several Eras

Indonesia has diversity in terms of ethnic groups, religions, races, social classes, customs, and traditions. Such a reality is attributable to the geographical factor; there are thousands of islands and people live in separate islands. In Indonesia there are different levels in terms of culture and civilization; among communities, there are wide cultural disparities or gaps. Most people still live in the agricultural world with their local cultures and few people have entered the world of information and technology with global culture (Azra, 2007).

With such geographical and cultural conditions, since the independence the Indonesian government has formulated a cultural political strategy to accommodate a variety of existing cultures in accordance with Constitution 1945 Article 34 regarding attempts to develop culture. Indonesia's cultural strategy was influenced by the Dutch and Japanese colonialism during the colonial periods and this continued in the old order era during the administration of President Soekarno as the first president of Indonesia (1945-1966), in the new order era during the administration of President Soeharto as the second president who was an army general (1966-1998), and in the reform order during the administration of President BJ Habibie as the third president who was a doctor of airplanes.

During the colonial period, the Dutch applied the ethical policy to compensate colonialism in the fields of irrigation, immigration, and education. The traces of the Dutch ethical policy are still left today. The agricultural system in Indonesia still adopts the irrigation system made by the colonial government in the form of river dams and irrigation channels. In addition, there are still architectural traces in buildings which were formerly Dutch buildings in several big cities in Indonesia. The distribution of people to several islands during the Dutch occupation was made to fulfill the needs for workers in the agricultural sector to process agricultural crops such as tobacco, clove, nutmeg, pepper, quinine, and other agricultural commodities. Besides, the distribution of people was also made to satisfy the needs for workers in lead, oil, gold, and other mineral mining.

The traces of the Dutch ethical policy in education were apparent in the establishment of schools with the Western style for indigenous people who were employed as lower-class employees for the benefit of the Dutch colonial government. Meanwhile, for higher education for the Dutch people or indigenous aristocrats, STOVIA was established. Through such higher education, national movement figures came up. However, the Dutch colonial government still applied social classes for citizenship. The Dutch divided Indonesian people into groups of White Skin (European and Indo-European people), Foreign East (Chinese, Arabic, and Indian people), and Indigenous (native inhabitants). The differentiation of citizens had implications in relation to laws and treatments. The White Skin and Foreign East people conformed to the Dutch laws and the Indigenous people conformed to the custom laws. As a result, the former was able to obtain the Dutch higher education and the latter was able to obtain only lower education.

During the Japanese colonial era, there was an opposition against the hegemony of western values and cultures. However, at that time there were reforms among young intellectuals pioneered by Sutan Takdir Alisyahbana. They invited literary authors to come back to eastern values. The eastern values, however, were not those existing in kingdoms of Sriwijaya, Majapahit, and Mataram, but those in the Indonesian culture free of the pre-Indonesian cultures and oriented to the western culture. The westernization of the pre-Indonesian cultures got an opposition. Those who were against the western culture were of the opinion that they could select what was good in both values to develop the Indonesian culture. The Japanese colonialism which lasted only 3.5 years did not have much effect on the color of the Indonesian culture. During this era, there were physical destructions resulting from the romusha (forced labor) and forced cultivation policies.

During President Soekarno's administration, the government formulated the national identity in Pancasila (five principles) and Constitution 1945. The government also embraced all groups in NASAKOM (Nasionalisme, Agama, dan Komunis = Nationalism, Religion, and Communism). The birth of NASAKOM was a manifestation of Soekarno's appreciation of pluralism. During this era, nationalist parties such as PNI (Partai Nasional Indonesia = Indonesian National Party) and religion-based parties such as PSII (Partai Syarikat Islam Indonesia = Indonesian Islamic Union Party), NU (Nahdatul Ulama = Muslim Clergy Awakening Party), Indonesian Christian Party, Indonesian Catholic Party, and PKI (Partai Komunis Indonesia = Indonesian Communist Party) flourished. However, Soekarno's closeness to PKI and the enforcement of the Guided Democracy through the Decree of 5 July 1959 gave authority to LEKRA (Lembaga Kebudayaan Rakyat = People's Cultural Institution), an organization under Indonesian Communist Party, which triggered a cultural polemic between LEKRA and MANIKEBU (Manifes Kebudayaan = Cultural Manifestation), coloring the course of Indonesian literature.

The birth of LEKRA was opposed by young intellectuals lead by Goenawan Mohamad with MANIKEBU refusing the statement of politics as commander social realism. MANIKEBU proposed a concept underlying arts on the basis of universal

humanism in viewing the national culture. The conflict between LEKRA and MANIKEBU indicated that in that era proponents of each group appreciated differences.

During President Soeharto's administration, the government tried to deal with pluralism issues in the jargon Bhinneka Tunggal Ika (Unity in Diversity) although it remained a jargon. The government enforced cultural uniformity politics in order to maintain power. The government's jargon accommodated plurality but in reality the cultural practices were mono-cultural, dictatorial, and authoritarian. If a thing threatened the power maintenance, the government was ready to carry out repressive and discriminative actions and even violence was legally conducted by the government. The most outstanding action was that done to ex-prisoners of G30S/PKI. The mono-cultural politics on behalf of development stability destroyed the local genius culture. All organizations had to use the single foundation, namely Pancasila.

During BJ Habibie's administration, known as the reform era, the government annulled Pancasila as the single foundation in introduced other ideologies, especially religion-based ideologies. The government also introduced decentralization or local autonomy. During this era, the press freedom developed, marked by the issuance of Act Number 40 Year 1999 regarding press that gave freedom to the press industry management not under the government's control like what happened during Soeharto's regime. The traces of freedom in the government at that time were left in multicultural practices, especially in the freedom of expressing opinions, embracing religions, and being involved in politics. Literary people nowadays can express ideas on political, social, and cultural matters without the government's censorship.　A political survey which was prohibited during Souharto's administration could be freely conducted during BJ Habibie's administration.

Multiculturalism in Indonesian Novels

Multiculturalism is related to groups of people with different cultures and characteristics living and residing in a particular place and they can be differentiated from one group to another. Each society has its own culture and it becomes the society's characteristic. Multiculturalism is related to the idea and attitude to view cultural diversity as a fundamental reality in society's life. A person's open attitude towards shared life will accept plurality as a must which is unavoidable.

According to a social theory proposed by Gracia (1982), there are three types of multiculturalism. The first is the Anglo Conformity, in which individuals with different backgrounds in terms of religions, ethnic groups, and cultures are united in a dominant union. The second is the Ethnic Synthesis, in which individuals with different backgrounds are united in a new identity union, and former religions, ethnic groups, languages, and cultures mix and become a new identity. The third is the Cultural Pluralism Mosaic Analogy, in which individuals with different backgrounds in terms of religions, ethnic groups, and cultures have rights to express their cultural identities democratically without marginalizing the minority group's cultural identity. For example, when individuals in society have Javanese cultural background, national background, or international background, they have rights to express their cultural identities and to develop their cultures without disturbing each other. These three are able to develop pluralistic society.

Indonesian novels reflecting multiculturalism can be used as of the media to improve understanding multiculturalism because novels contain ideas, views, and enlightenment for issues concerning relationships among ethnic groups, religions, social classes, and communities with a variety of problems. Understanding and appreciation of multiculturalism through novels will eventually be capable of creating understanding of cultural differences which are unavoidable. Understanding of multicultural novels will in the end strengthen the cultural bond among cultures, including national and international cultures. Therefore, there is no dichotomy anymore concerning the national culture and the local culture, and even every individual or community is a culture creator (Dewanto, 1992).

Multicultural Novels as a Culture-Uniting Device

Understanding of multicultural literature cannot be separated from the idea of contextual literature and postmodernism. Contextual literature develops new realistic ideas by placing literature as a factual historical product to understand real problems in society (Heryanto, 1985). Such a historical process, as Faruk HT (2001) states, is a struggle of political interests among society members. Therefore, the center of the literary world totality is political interests. Historical novels by Pramudya Ananta Tur, YB Mangunwijaya, and Mochtar Lubis show these.

In addition to representing political perspectives, literature presents a cultural political perspective in deconstructing the mainstream of the patriarchal view. Saman (1998), a novel by Ayu Utami, and Tarian Bumi (2000) by Oka Rusmini provide answers that literature is capable of positioning problems of women's bodies which have so far been exploited by men. Saman, besides exploring women's rights of their own bodies, also explores conflicts of economic interests between local society and national, or even global, society. In Tarian Bumi, women are able to set their own goal although they have to oppose the strict division regarding social stratification on the basis of castes in Balinese cultures.

Multicultural issues are also presented in YB Mangunwijaya's novels Burung-burung Manyar (1981), Roro Mendut (1983), and Burung-burung Rantau (1993), Linus Suryadi AG's Pengakuan Pariyem (2008), and Umar Kayam's Para Priyayi (2003). The atmospheres in these novels stimulate pluralism in Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian language) because the characters use the Indonesian, Javanese, English, and Dutch languages. The characters in these novels also refer to social classes in Javanese society with their affection, humility, sincerity, and wholeheartedness as shown by the following quotations:

"Sedang Kang Lantip, dialah guru saya. Bukan dia banyak mengajari saya, tapi karena kerendahan hatinya, ketulusan dan keikhlasan hatinya. Sejak semula saya mengenalnya di Wanagalih dan Wanalawas saya sudah langsung menyayanginya. Kemelaratan dan kemiskinan asal usulnya sebagai anak pungut di Setenan Wanagalih, tidak pernah membuatnya kecil hati, terlalu rendah diri, minder. Sifatnya yang prasaja, sederhana, apa adanya dan biasa itu sering membuat saya panik di dalam hati" (Kayam, 1992: 283).

("Meanwhile, Kang Lantip is my teacher, not because he teaches me much, but because of his humility, sincerity, and wholeheartedness. Since I knew him for the first time in Wanagalih and Wanalawas, I directly had affection for him. The poverty due to his origin and position as an adopted child in Setenan Wanagalih has never made him annoyed and inferior. His plainness, modesty, and being realistic and ordinary often make me in a panic heartily.")

The quotation shows a humble attitude making Hari have affection for Lantip although Lantip is not his own elder brother. Lantip, who was born in a poor family, respects people who help him so that he can survive.

Issues of the relationship between aristocrats and common people and masters and servants are presented in the novel Pengakuan Pariyem (2008). When it is revealed that RM Cokro Sentono's son, Raden Bagus Ario Atmojo, makes the servant, Maria Magdalena Pariyem, pregnant, he is willing to take care of the baby in her womb without embarrassment. The principles of harmony, mutual help, affection, and joy which become part of multiculturalism are narrated in the novel, which has been translated into English and Dutch. In a similar manner, a harmonious social relationship is depicted in Canting (2007), a novel by Arswendo Atmowiloto. The novel presents the smartness of a woman to survive as a business woman. Through her business she can support 112 batik employee families, although she was formerly a servant before getting married to Raden Ngabehi Setrokusumo. The novel shows that women can be autonomous in running businesses in society (Wiyatmi, 2012: 228).

Issues of devotion, social relationship, affection, and perseverance in carrying out professional demands are depicted in the novel Laskar Pelangi (2006). The novel has been translated into German and English, the title of the English edition being Rainbow Troops. It tells about ten elementary school children in Belitong struggling for obtaining primary education. The exemplar deeds in the novel are the devotions of Bapak Harfan and Ibu Muslimah, who teach in a remote area with poor educational infrastructure facilities. However, as teachers they are capable of educating elementary school children to develop noble characters that respect others without looking at ethnic, social, and economic backgrounds. The novel becomes a bestseller in Indonesia and is filmed with the same title. One of the effects is that the setting of the novel becomes a tourist destination.

An inter-religion marriage issue is presented in Keluarga Permana (1978), a novel by Ramadhan Karta Hadimaja. It presents a perspective concerning consequences of a marriage with different religious backgrounds. It is about a Moslem family that educates their daughter strictly without giving her chances for socialization. Permana, after his resignation, builds a boarding house. FX Soemarto, a young man who is a Catholic, is a tenant who falls in love with the girl, Farida, who has so far been confined in isolation. Then, Farida is pregnant, making all family members who are Moslems angry. After getting married and converting into a Catholic, Farida finally dies when she is hospitalized. Before she dies, the nurse treating her whispers syahadat (Moslem confession of faith) and she dies as a Moslem. From the novel it can be learned that to manage a family well it is necessary to respect women and one's religion or belief in order to live happily. The understanding of the author, who is a Moslem, and its readers leads to inter-religion faith understanding.

Forgiveness in the Islamic perspective is presented in Kubah (2011), a novel by Ahmad Tohari. Karman, as a Moslem, converts himself into a communist and an atheist because he is provoked by revenge. However, because of Haji Bakir's exemplary deeds, affection, attention, and forgiveness, eventually Karman realizes his mistakes in embracing communist ideology and becomes a Moslem again and has an opportunity of making a mosque dome without payment. Karman tries to find his way back to God.

Issues of inter-nation marriage are depicted in the novels Saman (1998) by Ayu Utami, Burung-burung Manyar (1981) by YB Mangunwijaya, and Bekisar Merah (1997) by Ahmad Tohari. The character Mbok Wiraji, who is raped by a Japanese soldier, gives birth to a baby daughter called Lasiah or Lasi, who is very beautiful as an Indo-Japanese girl. However,

because she is from a lower social class, Lasi cannot have an option on the basis of her conscience, although actually she can have it.

Understanding of issues of social, political, religious, and ethnic interactions in multicultural novels will eventually be capable of providing strong insights into multiculturalism as a culture-uniting device. Understanding and appreciation of differences in the end will strengthen pluralistic principles which are unavoidable in Indonesia with its slogan Unity in Diversity leading to true multicultural society.

Closing Remarks

To end the discussion, it can be concluded that multicultural novels can play a role as a culture-uniting device in global society which tends to be pluralistic and multicultural. However, the multicultural nature does not mean value-free. Multicultural novels containing local, national, and global cultures can express cultural identities without neglecting unique characteristics through the principle of appreciating new cultures.

Multicultural novels that can be used as a culture-uniting device are those the authors write as media of communication among nations to present multicultural values without confinement of identities, ethnic groups, religions, and social classes. Multicultural novels can serve as an alternative for expressing multiculturalism in modern society.

In the midst of the nation's low interest in reading and the increasing inclusive spirit, multicultural novels are necessary as a reading alternative providing enlightenment at school and higher education. The socialization of multicultural values can be done in literature learning at school, multicultural novel discussions, and seminars on multicultural values carried out in both academic forums and co-curricular activities.

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Social and religious values to create a peaceful atmosphere in Albania and in this regard, its continuing contribution

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Abstract

Human being is created to live in dignity in an appropriate disposition of society. This way of life brings many necessities. Because human beings are different from other living things, they build cities, they get married, they build organizations and they set up various professional organizations. According to their own rules, these organizations have their obligations. All human beings are obliged to comply with it. It's not a surprise if sometimes they can't comply because they are facing serious problems. During 1997 Albania experienced bankers' crisis, the state authority has been shaken in a very serious way. During this period, in certain parts the country suffered the security weakness and the administration has passed into the hands of mafia embodiments. In this study, a comparative study was used to figure out social problems within various social ethnic structure in order to solve existing conflicts in the society. Also, the secondary data were utilized to clarify the whole theme. This study focused on the causes that why some cities didn't experienced social crisis during 1997, the same ethnic structure, and also we are trying to focus on the tolerance between religious and sectarian groups in this country which are an example to the world media that influence the formation of the social and religious values. We suggest that tolerance appears a good option to overcome social problems when there is a conflict within the society.

Keywords: Values, Peace, Crisis, Albania.

1. Introduction

The biggest feature that separates man from the other creatures was that it was created as a social being and lives his/her life in society according to certain rules. This is a mandatory situation for the man & woman as being homo-sapience. Because it is not possible to speak about peace in a society where people do not live through complying the rules. In the course of time, this situation has not changed. Even though we had developed societies in terms of technology and richness, but for civilized societies; social respect, peace, and values became more important in order to protect the particular nations. Therefore, the societies are ready to gain these lost values and made great sacrifices in this endeavor.

The last years, many societies in the west encountered serious social problems as the side effects of industrial revolution. Most nations face the main problems such as; immorality, family problems, drugs that have serious impacts on the structure of society, even though protecting groups have been established in some countries after World War II. Despite numerous measures were taken, these problem are growing, and in some states they are reaching worrying situations.

One of the main problems of the 21st century is the provision or failure for providing social atmosphere of peace. Wars, rebellion of the people against the authorities and errors that are made are as old as the history of humankind because of natural part human. The duties to prevent possible problem rest on nations and societies. Especially some of the problems that adversely affect the structure of society arise from the man himself. We must prevent the prevailing and potential factor that is known as "man" has it, and also we should made preventive arrangements accordingly.

As mentioned above, making faults, fault itself and extensive violation of the rules are found in human nature. The most important point is to reduce the maximum of these and to organize activities to deter people in these works. Also we believe that universal human values as well as different forms of life that belong to many societies play a very important role in shaping the consciousness of responsibility, duty and virtue of individuals and also society.

Man was created in such a way that has the ability to do evil and he also tends to do well. It is formed as a result of education received by society and family as well as systematic education that is provided in educational institutions. For this reason, We know that education of generations with the religious and social values is one of the solutions that can prevent these problems. Because when we confront people who are problematic adults anyway we observe that how they are grown up far away from moral and human values. We take in to account that in the essence of problems, the followings appear as domestic violence, divorce, etc. and also the negligence of spiritual and human values.

The purpose of this research is to analyze the importance and benefit of religious and social values in Albania, it is a state and close in the strategic and geographical position in the Balkans. More than that, it plays a major role in the formation of an atmosphere through peace and dialog.

2. Literature Review

Society can be defined as a union with people who collaborate on some common goals. This set of people in fact is a set of binding. Man is programmed to live in society. Man is a social creature. Because companies are congregations gathered around a particular rule. One of the main conditions of living together is rule and regulations and harmony. People have difficulty living in the community because of being created by different natures, dispositions and also in various families.

Because of living by certain rules, societies have formed the culture of living together. We can call the culture of living together as social peace. Peace is one of the main conditions for the formation of a highly relaxed and happy society where its individuals have confidence in each other. The terms of primary cultures are: mutual respect, acceptance of people in the position they are, and being aware of the behavior of individual responsibility, and also respect for rules and laws in order to live in peace. Establishment of social peace is the most important condition for the formation of healthy and balanced societies.

Ergil D.(1998) relates the establishment of healthy relationships with the development of the pitfalls screening, and an understanding of the anthropological and also cultural changes, but not only in political or ideological terms. The most irreplaceable condition of a good-liveable life is being away from wars and strife.

While Seyyar A. (2010) says that if it does not ensure social peace in society then there will be a transformation which brings serious problem in society. But, security of social peace is possible by developing the awareness that is necessary for supporting each other, and also the process of social dialogue and communication.

Kılıç R.(2005) makes it known that in the foundation of coexistence are some important elements. With the foremost is respecting their laws and regulations. On the other hand, the social and religious values are considered important. Social values are those that we call habits, tradition etc.. At the same time, the religious values are related to religious commands and temples of worship. Prohibitions such as "sin", "shame" or "forbidden" are prohibited by religion, morality and jurisprudence as well as they are thought as obstacles that put limits to human freedom. From this aspect, we can say that living in peace and security is possible with the limits that put forward morality, religion and jurisprudence.

Sancaklı S.(2009) has emphasized the place that religious and moral values are available in society. According to him, religious and moral values are very important for the formation of a healthy individual and society. In his viewpoint, religion is the guarantee of living healthy and safely in society. The loss of these values gives way to spiritual decay and destruction of society. Consequently, it also brings its demolition.

For this reason, these values should be given proper importance and should follow policies that protect these values and ensure passage of their posterity. So educational institutions play important roles for the transmission of values to future generations, also the media is important in their transmission to different age groups. In addition to, sins and errors are the main factors of moral decay. The rules of morality are elements that inhibit individual regardless of age. With the loss of these spiritual elements, starts the period of faults and mistakes. (Altıntaş H. 1989)

In Albania, religious and social values serve for the formation of a more peaceful atmosphere. In general, the Balkan and especially Albania is a region that has recently become very delicate at this point. The fight which took place some time ago in Kosovo, that fight is an indication that this region is founded on more delicate balances. In Macedonia, Greece, Italy there considerable amount of Albanian population and besides creating balanced policy on this region, it is essential the preparation of educational programs for citizens to proceed and protect the culture of coexistence. Now in some key points, we will try to analyze religious and social values that have influence in the construction of peace.

3. Discussions

1. Galleries, an example for interfaith dialogue activities. Albania is a country where most of the population is Muslim. Furthermore, in different parts of the country people are also Orthodox and Catholic. Despite the fact that the population has the same ethnicity, they practice different religions, as an example for Europe as well as for world-wide. For many centuries, there was no clash in religious aspects. Nowadays even more marriages are available between citizens of different religions. Families are tolerant about the religions of their children`s choice. This ensures the continuity of a peaceful atmosphere.

Another value which contributes in the religious peace in Albania are also the religious celebrations. Muslims as well as Christians celebrate these holidays in a brotherly atmosphere. In all cities, the greatest representatives of the state visit the respective representative and congratulate them. For example, in Ramadan when E id-ul-adha starts, the president, prime minister, ministers, ambassadors, etc. they all congratulate the Muslim Community in Albania. In addition, the representatives of other religions act in the same manner by sharing the values of the beautiful state.

2. Cooperation in times of crisis. In 1997, Albania passed through a banking crisis and had rebellion in all cities of the country. At a certain period, in these cities there was not provided state authority while the direction of the city was taken by the militant groups. One of these cities is Shkodra. In this city Muslims live with the Christians. In this difficult time, there was widespread news which upset both the Muslims and the Christians.

According to news, there was a rumor that Muslims would burn Catholic church and the Christians would burn the mosque. Even the banking crisis had reached its peaks. This statement shocked the residents of Shkodra. But, thanks to the tolerant atmosphere of living together in Albania for centuries, it became clear that the goal was to enter the conflict between Christians and Muslims. Therefore Muslims went to defend the church while the Christians were going to defend the mosque. In this way the problem was solved and it was such a solution that changed the progress of history. Albanians even in the biggest crises, have shown tolerance to protect other values besides their values.

3. Acting according to the values in times of crisis. As already stated above, Albania had experienced a crisis in 1997 where the direction of the city was taken by various illegal groups and events were not pleasant. The most important point of this topic is that while in some cities many events were occurring in the religious aspects in some other such events were superficial. In cities where these events were numerous people came and were collected from different locations. In countries where values such as kingship, neighborhood, friendship, and society had greater importance, these problems occurred less, while in other cities where this values had little importance, these negative phenomena were encountered more. For example, While in a small town like Cerrik, there were policeman killed, in a town like Kavaja where nothing happened like this.

4. Example about Neighborly Relations: Albania has been an example to the world in terms of neighborly relations. Albanian Muslims and Christians live in the same neighborhood, in the same street together; even marriages with members of these religions are founded. This way of life has also created its own challenges and requirements. But with these requirements exceed Albanian people has exceeded the sample application in the world. In Albania there are no separate living areas for Muslims and Christians.

People from different religions live in peace together in the same floor, in the same building and in the same neighborhood. Individuals' behavior has contributed significantly this revealed atmosphere of peace. I would like to give an example of this behavior. There are of course some responsibility neighborly relations. Visits on special occasions made at each other are some of them. Sensitive point here, which is forbidden for Muslims to defeat Christians, is the use of pork. Christians are aware of this situation and they use to have different pots and pans in their homes. When Christians cook something for Muslims they use these pots and pans. Even in the 90s in Shkoder was organized a meal for Muslims in the village but they couldn't find other meat except of pork meat, so they bought the meat from other villages. Such a sensitive thought among Muslims and Christians can be an example to the world and this has led to an atmosphere of peace. Even a simple pot or pan in creating the social order of society is seriously effectible.

5. Respect for Religious Values: In the early 1990s, after the end of communism, Muslims and Christians have helped each other to organize ancestral graves. On the other hand, after the end of communism they used to participate at each others special days, Friday and Sunday worship will be an example to the world and an image of peace in the religion.

4. Conclusions and findings

Peace and tranquility are among the key needs of the societies. Providing such an atmosphere depends on individual basis and on the sacrifices of their worldview. Societies that have a higher outlooks on values to ensure peace and tranquility make great sacrifices. In times of crisis these features have influence and a double importance. Societies that pay attention to values and that tend to respect them in difficult times, find easier to solve even the most difficult problems. For this reason, in the name of the values that run these societies, there should be made the appropriate programs in the institutions of formal and informal education in order to edify due values for the protection of society in difficult situations.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS OF ETHNIC EXTREMISM IN MUSLIM YOUTH

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Abstract

The aim of the research was to reveal the correlations between the extreme forms of ethnic identity and some personal traits involved in intercultural communication. Also the task of the research was to analyze cultural specificity in ethnic extremism manifestations at Muslim youth. 420 young people from 6 regions of the world (Russia, China, South America, Africa, the Middle East and Central Asia) took part in the research; among them 81 people from the Middle East countries and 60 – from the former soviet Central Asian countries. 14 psychodiagnostic techniques were used to measure various personal features associated with cross-cultural communication. The technique "Types of ethnic identity" (G.U.Soldatova, S.V.Ryzhova) was applied for diagnosing the types of identity with different degrees of ethnic tolerance that were marked on a wide range of ethnocentrism scale. We used statistical techniques: Kruskall Wallis test, Multiple range tests, multifactorial dispersive analysis, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The comparative analysis of young people, who responded high scores in extreme form of ethnic identity (ethnic bigotry or fanaticism) (147) and those who showed low levels of ethnic bigotry (134), revealed that persons inclined to ethnic bigotry were less tolerant not only for other ethnic group, but to any manifestations of individuality and to other social groups: they were more egocentric, not able to adjust themselves to different situations and people. They couldn't control their negative emotions and were less able to recognize the other's emotions by facial expression (especially fear, disgust and contempt). Also they were not sure in the world controllability; are less flexible in their activity control. Correlation analysis on general sample showed that ethnic bigotry inversely correlated with the life purposes awareness, internal locus of control, positive self – image, social and emotional intelligence, flexibility in the activity regulation. Positive correlation of ethnic extremis with disbelieve in the world controllability, egocentrism and apartness in interpersonal relations were revealed. Correlation analysis in Arab and Central Asian two subsamples showed some specific relations of ethnic bigotry and personal features. So, we can conclude that generally ethnic extremism correlates with rather controversial and conflict styles of self-realization and communication. Young people with extreme attitude toward other nations clearly realize their life goals, but they don't believe in their approachability and don't have enough abilities to interact with other people feeling the apartness in their personal interaction. The styles of interethnic communication of young representatives of different Muslim nations have some common features with the representatives of other nations, and have some specific features as well. Arab youth ethnic extremism correlates mostly with social stereotypes and hostility to other social groups, and Central Asian youth extremism correlates with intolerance to the other people individuality manifestation. Personal resources for the ethnic extremism reduction could be - for Arab people - their self - control in emotions and activity; and for the Central Asian people - concentration on their life goals. The research was supported by the Russian Humanitarian Science Foundation, project № 13-06-00673.

Keywords: Ethnic Identity, Ethnic Extremism, Ethnic Bigotry, Fanaticism, Intercultural Communication, Ethnic Tolerance, Ethnocentrism.

Introduction

Globalization processes taking place in the modern world, in addition to a large number of positive effects have some negative trends. In particular, the blurring of ethnic boundaries leads to the growth of national consciousness among the population up to its extreme manifestations. Intensification of intercultural contacts not only enriches the interacting cultures mutually, but also leads to an intensification of ethnic conflicts, to the growing of ethnic fanaticism manifestations and interethnic conflicts fomenting.

Ethnic extremism and fanaticism are often discussed in close conjunction with religious fanaticism; it is assumed that differences in religious persuasions are the main factors of the ethnic conflicts. This has led some to the conclusion that ethnic conflicts may be an inevitable result of intensive intercultural interaction.

In the modern world terrorism has become associated primarily with the Muslim religion. (Franz, 2007). The attacks committed by a tiny number of young Muslims cause the stigmatization of young Muslims around the world (Franz, 2007; Mythen, G., Walklate, S. & Khan, F., 2009; Mcdonald, 2011). "The West has stereotyped Islam as a strange religion, completely different from Christianity or Judaism" (Cesari, 2002). Young Muslims have been the object of ideological struggle between the security, developing methods terrorism combating and terrorist recruiters. Also in recent times appears the information on the involvement of representatives of other religions in Muslim terrorist organizations.

In this regard, for psychologists the personal characteristics of young people who are prone to ethnic extremism are of particular importance. It is also important to research into the role of personality factors, religion, and social situation in the radicalization of ethnic attitudes of young people.

Extremism in interethnic relations we consider 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 (Sumner, 1906). 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.

Berry (1997) 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). 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.

Thus, psychology already formed certain ideas about the nature of ethnic extremism and fanaticism. But to optimize cross-cultural contacts and reduce ethnic conflict it is necessary to identify cross-cultural features of ethnic extremism manifestations, as well as to reveal their personal and social factors.

Method

Participants

The sample included 420 students of different Russian universities from 5 regions of the world: Russia (69) South East Asia (80), Africa (60), South America (69), The Middle East (81), Central Asia (60) from 50 countries. The ages of the participants were 18 -25 years old, the mean age - 21.3 years old. Among the participants were 188 boys and 162 girls. Religious affiliation of the subjects: 123 - Christians, 152 Muslims, 75 Buddhists, 70 persons didn't report their religious affiliation.

Materials

Personal Information Form: This form was consisted of questions about gender, age, country of origin, university, religion.

The technique "Types of ethnic identity" (G.U.Soldatova, S.V.Ryzhova). This technique 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)

For investigating personal factors of ethnic identity types we used the techniques for diagnosing different personal qualities involved in intercultural communication (Chebotareva, 2012-2014, Novikova & Ibadova, 2009, Novikova, 2010)

"Indicator of Stress Overcoming Strategies" (D. Amirhan) measures the severity of strategies: problem solving, searching for social support, avoiding problems (ignoring them). (Yaltonsky & Sirota, 1996).

"Test of the Life Meanings Orientations" (D.A.Leontev) is an adapted version of " Purpose-in-Life Test" (PIL) (Crumbaugh, Maholick). The test assesses the overall meaningfulness of life, and also contains five subscales, reflecting the components of it. The subscales conditionally are divided into two groups. The first group reveal proper life meaning orientations: the goals in life (the future), the richness of life (the present) and satisfaction with self-realization (the past). The second group

of scales is devoted to internal locus of control: one is about general philosophical belief that control is possible, and the second is about the belief in the person's own ability to exercise such a control (self-image). (Leontiev, 2000).

"Scale of base convictions" (R. Janov-Bulman) The technique was developed in the framework of the cognitive concept of the base beliefs. In accordance with it one of the basic sensations of a normal person is a healthy sense of security. For R. Janov-Bulman, it is based on three categories of base beliefs that make up the core of our subjective world: belief that the world is good rather than evil; belief that the world is full of meaning; belief in the value of one's own "I". This method identifies eight categories of beliefs: benevolence of world, benevolence of people, justice of the world, control over the world, randomness of life events, self-worth, self-control, luckiness. (Soldatova & Shaygerova (Ed.), 2003)

"Scale of social distance" (E. Bogardus) in modification of V.N. Pavlenko and S.A. Taglin. In this modification, the subjects were asked to choose from the list of all possible social roles, which they agreed to provide the typical representatives of particular ethnic groups. We offered to the students to estimate their desired distance with representatives of all the studied regions. (Stefanenko, 2006).

"Who am I ?" – Twenty Statements Attitude Test (M. Kun, T. Macpartlend) we used for investigating the qualitative characteristics of personal identity. It is non-standardized self-report version. The respondents had within 12 minutes to give twenty different answers to the question: "Who am I?". The responses received were processed using content analysis. (Burlarchuk & Morozov, 1999).

" Measurement of social intelligence" (J. Guilford) diagnoses four abilities, namely the ability to foresee the consequences of the behavior; understanding non-verbal communication; understanding verbal expression; holistic understanding of the interpersonal situations dynamics.

"Questionnaire of emotional intelligence" (D.V. Ljusin) measures the emotional intelligence (EI) which is interpreted as the ability to understand own and other people's emotions and to regulate own and other people's emotions. (Lusin & Ushakov (Ed.), 2004).

"Gnosis Facialis Foto" (J. Merten, J. Spang) consists of 28 pictures, which show the following emotional states: joy, fear, disgust, surprise, anger, sadness / grief, contempt. The photos show the male (14) and female (14) Caucasians. Each emotion was represented by 4 photos (2 male, 2 female photos). (Bezmenov & Belovol, 2007).

"Style of self-control" (V.I. Morosanova). The statements of the questionnaire are included in the six scales allocated in accordance with the basic regulatory processes: planning, modeling, programming, the results assessment, and personal regulatory traits: flexibility and independence. (Morosanova, 2004).

Adaptation (A.I. Krupnov) Five scales of the test reflect certain problems and difficulties in the foreign students adaptation (associated with the implementation of sociability, confidence; severity asthenic emotions, inability to regulate them, the strength of feelings of nostalgia and alienation). In general, these scales reflect the degree of disadaptation. Last scale - adaptability - reflects a person's willingness to interact constructively with the new environment. (Chebotareva, 2012)

Person's adaptation to the New Social and Cultural environment (L.V. Yankovsky , T.G.Stefanenko, M.S.Panova) The technique includes six scales: the first three of which (Satisfaction, Interactivity, Conformity) show quite "positive" indicators of intercultural adaptation, the following three (Depressiveness, Nostalgia, Alienation) - certain problems in adapting (Sonin V.A., 2004).

Tolerance Index (G.U.Soldatova, O.A.Kravtsova, O.E. Hukhlaev) helps to determine the overall level of tolerance and the degree of ethnic, social tolerance and the tolerance as personality trait (Pochebut, 2005).

"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: Mann — Whitney U-test, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Procedure

The procedure of the research was approved by the Department of Social and Differential Psychology of Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (PFUR). All the questionnaires were translated into English, French, Spanish, Arabic and Chinese, the translated versions were pre-tested. Each subject was offered questionnaires in their native language (or in the language, which he/she use since their childhood). The survey was conducted personally by PFUR psychology students among their compatriots studying in various Russian universities. Each test was performed during 3-5 meetings, 30 minutes each.

Results

At the first stage of the data analysis the entire sample was divided into three groups based on the level of diagnosed ethnic fanaticism. The group with high levels of ethnic fanaticism included 134 students, a group with medium level -- 138, and with low level - 148. Next, we conducted a comparative analysis of students with high and low level of ethnic fanaticism (p= 0.000000…).

Finding of differences between students with high and low levels of ethnic fanaticism

We have found statistically significant differences in severity of all types of cross-cultural interaction. Students with low fanaticism showed higher level of positive ethnic identity (p=0, 02). Students with higher level of ethic fanaticism showed higher levels of all studied deviations in ethnic identity: ethnic nigilizm (p=0, 03), ethnic indifference (p=0, 05), ethnic egoism (p= 0, 000000…), ethnic isolation (p= 0, 000000…).

Students with high fanaticism showed less willingness to cooperate with other ethnic groups representatives (p = 0, 05), especially great distance they felt with the representatives of Africa (p= 0, 001) and Central Asia (p= 0, 001).

Significant differences were found between these groups in the general level of communicative tolerance, as well as in many individual scales of the test. Persons with high level of fanaticism showed significantly higher level of communicative intolerance (p = 0, 003). They also more often use themselves as a standard when assessing the behavior and way of thinking of other people (p=0, 0004), try to change, reeducate their partners (p=0, 05), try to fit their partners for themselves, to make them "convenient" (p=0, 0007), not able   to hide or smooth over their bad feelings when faced with some uncommunicative characteristics of their partners (p=0, 03), not able to adapt to the character, habits and desires of others (p=o, 002); intolerant to physical or mental discomfort caused by the other people (0, 02).

In the sphere of the base convictions the only statistically significant difference between two studied groups was discovered in variable of belief in randomness of events in the world. Persona with high fanaticism to a greater extent share this conviction (p= 0, 007). People with low fanaticism mostly believe that some predefined order of world events exists.

We found that students with different levels of fanaticism differed in their ability to recognize facial expressions of emotion. Students with high fanaticism in general recognized mimetic emotional expression worse than people with low fanaticism (p = 0, 04), in particular, significant differences were found in the recognition of fear (p = 0, 01), disgust (p = 0, 01), anger (p = 0, 05), contempt (p = 0, 04).

In the sphere of self-regulation the only statistically significant difference between two studied groups was discovered in variable of flexibility. Persons with high fanaticism were much less flexible in their activity than persons with low fanaticism (p= 0, 003).

There were no statistically significant differences between two studied groups in intercultural adaptation, stress overcoming strategies, life meanings orientations, social and emotional intelligence and general tolerance (diagnosing with «Tolerance Index» test).

Finding of correlation analysis

The types of ethnic identity displayed statistically significant correlations with almost all the studied personality characteristics that define the nature of intercultural interaction, except stress overcoming strategies and intercultural adaptation (Yankovsky test). Totally 304 statistically significant correlations were found at the significance level p ≤ 0, 05. Therefore, in this paper we are presenting only correlations of ethnic fanaticism. It should be noted that the variable of ethnic fanaticism found the smallest number of links to personal characteristics, as well as variable of ethnic indifference. All the other ethnic identity types found much more significant correlation with personal characteristics.

High level of fanaticism in interethnic relations demonstrates significant direct correlation with the general level of communicative tolerance, as well as with the same variables, in which significant differences between the groups were found: perceiving themselves as a standard when assessing the behavior and way of thinking of other people (p=0, 0004), try to change, reeducate their partners (p=0, 05), try to fit their partners for themselves, to make them "convenient" (p=0, 0007), not able to hide or smooth over their bad feelings when faced with some uncommunicative characteristics of their partners (p=0, 03), not able to adapt to the character, habits and desires of others (p=o, 002); intolerant to physical or mental discomfort caused by the other people (0, 02).

Also the inverse significant correlation of ethnic fanaticism with ethnic tolerance level was found.

Among the indicators of foreign students intercultural adaptation the sense of alienation showed a direct significant relationship with their fanaticism in intercultural relations. The high level of ethnic bigotry is inversely correlated with the number of social roles provided by representatives of almost all considered ethnic groups except South-East Asia and South America.

In the field of life meaning orientations ethnic fanaticism found significant correlations with the general level of life meaningfulness, with clear understanding of one's goals in life and with internal locus of self - control.

In base convictions ethnic fanaticism found direct correlation with the conviction in random character of the world events in, which once again confirms the above described Mann-Whitney test data. And also correlation of fanaticism with awareness of their own "I" values was discovered.

Although significant correlations of fanaticism with overall levels of social and emotional intelligence have not been identified, there were links to their individual scales. In particular, ethnic bigotry inversely related to the non-verbal expression understanding and understanding of emotions (especially the emotions of others). Correlation analysis also confirmed and supplemented Mann-Whitney test data, finding significant correlations of ethnic bigotry with the general ability to understand the emotions of facial expressions and with abilities to understand almost all emotions, checked by the test, but emotion of joy.

In self-regulation styles U-test data also have been confirmed, significant inverse association of behavior flexibility with fanaticism was detected

Finding of differences in ethnic identity styles between students belonging to different religions

The aim of the next stage of our study was to compare the styles of ethnic identity of students belonging to different religions. We conducted a comparative analysis of three groups: Christians, Muslims and Buddhists. Every religious group included students from different regions of the world. Statistically significant differences between the groups for any variables of ethnic identity were not revealed. Only the trend can be noted that Muslims had somewhat less pronounced positive ethnic identity than the other, and a bit higher level of ethnic isolationism. In levels of ethnic fanaticism these three groups did not differ significantly: average levels in all three groups were similar.

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Finding of cross-cultural analysis of ethnic identity styles of Muslim students

At the next step, we conducted the comparative analysis of ethnic identity of Muslims young persons from two different regions of the world: the Middle East and Central Asia.

The overall ethnic identity profiles of in both groups were similar. In ethnic identity of the students from the Middle East and from Central Asia prevailed positive ethnic identity (12.9 / 15.4 respectively, max = 20), all deviations from this type were much less expressed. Among other types most strongly expressed were ethnic indifference (9.6 / 10.5), followed by ethnic bigotry (9, 2 / 7, 9), then ethnic isolation (8, 7 / 6, 2 and, ethnic egoism (8, 3 / 5.9). Least of all in both groups went ethnic nihilism (7.0 / 4.8). For all of the variables the differences were statistically significant. The most significant differences were in the levels of positive ethnic identity (p = 0, 00002), ethnic nihilism (p = 0, 00007) and ethnic fanaticism (bigotry) (p = 0.020). For the remaining scales differences were at the level p = 0.05.

To better understand the differences in the two groups' ethnic extremism manifestations, we conducted a correlation analysis of all variables of interest for each of the subsamples.

In the group of students from the Middle East, as well as in the total sample were found significant direct links of ethnic bigotry with general communicative intolerance, especially with 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 fit partners for themselves, to make them "convenient". Here as well as in the total sample fanaticism was associated with a sense of alienation in interpersonal relationships in situations of intercultural communication, and with conviction in randomness of the world events.

In the total sample ethnic bigotry was inversely related to ethnic tolerance, but in this group it was associated with intolerance to different social groups, somehow different from the dominant culture in the society.

Fanaticism's inverse correlation with behavior flexibility revealed in the general sample, in this group didn't reach the level of significance. But here specific for this group inverse correlation of ethnic fanaticism with the ability to simulate future results of activities was detected.

Among the life meaning orientations, as well as in the total group, ethnic bigotry was inversely associated with the clearly perceived goals in life. In the area of basic convictions the correlations differed from general trends. For students from the Middle East ethnic bigotry was inversely related to the belief that life events may be controlled, and it was directly linked with the belief in the people benevolence.

The significant correlations of ethnic bigotry with variables of social intelligence in this group were not found. But there were more than the in the total sample significant inverse links with the various parameters of emotional intelligence, in particular, with interpersonal and intrapersonal emotional intelligence, understanding emotions (primarily of the others) and regulation of emotions (especially one's own).

It is interesting that among the variables of emotions recognition in facial expressions were found only one significant correlation of ethnic bigotry - with the recognition of fear.

In the group of the Central Asian students we discovered less correlations of ethnic fanaticism with communicative intolerance than in total sample. Here it is linked only with 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 and desire try to change, reeducate their partners.

At the Central Asian students ethnic bigotry inversely correlated with all types of tolerance under consideration (ethnic, social and personal), but mostly - with ethnic one.

In the field of cross-cultural adaptation the level of ethnic fanaticism not only directly correlated with the sense of alienation, as in the total sample and in the Middle East students group, but also inversely correlated with the satisfaction with one's adaptation. But what is particularly interesting in this group high level of ethnic bigotry directly linked to the adaptability, willingness to make an effort to interact with the new culture.

In the regulatory sphere of the Central Asian students ethnic fanaticism was inversely related to the ability to program their own actions. In contrast to the total sample and to the group of Middle East students, at the Central Asian students significant direct connections of ethnic fanaticism with such solving problems styles as searching for social support and avoidance were detected.

In the total sample we saw ethnic fanaticism's inverse correlation with life meaningfulness, and in both above described groups - with the clearly perceived life goals, but in the group of Central Asian students we could see the opposite trend. Here ethnic bigotry was directly linked to the general level of life meaning, and with its individual indicators, such as clearly perceived goals, confidence in one's ability to control own life, focus on the life process, ie desire to enjoy the moment.

Also, along with the common for all the considered groups correlation of fanaticism with conviction in the randomness of the life events, in the group of Central Asian students were found significant direct connections of fanaticism with conviction in the world controllability and one's own luck.

In social intelligence in this group also specific connection of ethnic fanaticism with the capacity for non-verbal expressions evaluation were noted. In emotional intelligence in this group the only significant inverse association of fanaticism with ability to emotions regulation were noted. And, as in the total group, here ethnic fanaticism inversely related to both the general ability to recognize emotions, and in particular – to the ability to recognize almost all the emotion, but joy.

Discussion

According to the research data, students with extreme attitude toward other nations more often have deviations in their ethnic identity types, both toward hypoidentity (neglecting ethnicity problems) and toward hyperidentity (increased importance of ethnicity problems). Thus in general their styles of ethnic identity and accordingly styles of intercultural

interaction may be determined as controversial. In any case such people prefer to keep a great distance with other nations' representatives. Not surprising that such people feel alienation in a new cultural environment.

These students display intolerance not only in interethnic communication, but as well in interpersonal interaction with representatives of their own nation. They don't accept other people's individuality; have not enough competences for constructive interaction with different people. In relations they take mainly sociocentric position.

Propensity to extremism in relations associated with a number of personality characteristics. Their world view is characterized by the belief in random nature of the world events, by the conviction that man cannot control these events and affect them in any way. Young people with extremist ethnic sets have lower levels of their life meaningfulness. They not so clearly aware their life goals and do not take responsibility for their own lives and personal development.

Young persons with high fanaticism have certain difficulties in communication, in particular, they hardly recognize other people's emotional expression, especially negative emotions, such as fear, disgust, anger, contempt. Also such persons have difficulties with flexible changing their behavior in accordance with the changing circumstances.

Thus, it can be argued that not only ethnic identity style of young people with high ethnic fanaticism is controversial, but their overall style of self-realization in different spheres of life. Important factors of such attitudes are the low level of skills for effective communication and regulation of their own activities, as well as egocentric position in conjunction with the conviction in unpredictability and uncontrollability of the world.

We carried out comparative analyzes of religious and ethnic groups. These analysis showed no statistically significant differences in the styles of ethnic identity among religions, but found significant differences in the severity of all types of ethnic identity. This suggests that the factor of ethnicity plays more important role than the factor of religion. That is, people of different countries belonging to the same religion differ in their styles of intercultural interaction more than the representatives of one religion, living in one country.

The comparative analysis of ethnic identity of Muslims young persons from two different regions of the world (the Middle East and Central Asia) helped us to reveal not only differences in their levels of ethnic fanaticism, but also ethnic peculiarities in possible mechanisms of ethnic extremism formation.

These comparative analysis showed that students from the Middle East had much more pronounced ethnic bigotry and various deviations of ethnic identity. And students from Central Asia had more pronounced positive ethnic identity. Ethnic fanaticism in these two ethnic groups showed specific ties with personal characteristics.

At the students from the Middle East ethnic bigotry was connected not as much with ethnic intolerance as with social tolerance, ie rejection characteristics of different social groups. Also fanaticism of these students was associated with low ability for modeling future outcomes of one's activities, with difficulty in understanding the others' emotions and in regulating one's own emotions. In addition, their ethnic bigotry is directly related to conviction in the people benevolence. Summarizing these data, we can assume that extremism in interethnic relations of Middle Eastern students associated with difficulties in achieving their goals in their activity and communication, with their tendency to rely on other people. In other cultures surrounding, naturally, it is not so easy to find people they can rely on (considering the communication difficulties), all that apparently cause some tension and the desire to oppose their own and others' ethnic groups.

At the Central Asian students' group ethnic bigotry to a lesser extent related to the general communicative intolerance, but it is more related to the general ethnic intolerance. That is, possibly, ethnic bigotry of Central Asia representatives has less to do with the general attitude of the people, but and only applies to situations of interethnic interaction. This is confirmed by the inverse correlation of fanaticism with cross-cultural adaptation satisfaction. That is, perhaps, ethnic bigotry in this group can be regarded as a consequence of unsuccessful intercultural adaptation.

In addition, our findings suggest that the lack of success in adaptation in this group, in turn, is associated with poor ability to program its activities, with a tendency to avoid problems or to seek help of others. Apparently, the Central Asian students who are prone to extremism in interethnic relations, in contrast to other, are well aware of their goals in life, confident in their abilities, but have difficulties in deliberate and systematic activities aimed at achieving these goals, as more focused on the process than the outcome. This is confirmed by detected inverse correlations of fanaticism with ability to control their own emotions.

Thus, we can draw the following conclusions:

Generally ethnic extremism correlates with rather controversial and conflict styles of self-realization.

Young people with extreme attitude toward other nations clearly realize their life goals, but they don't believe in the goals approachability, don't have enough abilities to interact with other people, feel certain level of apartness in personal interaction.

Interethnic communication styles of representatives of different Muslim nations have some common features with the other nations, and - some specific features:

Central Asian young people more often show acceptance of their own and other people ethnicity and individuality.

The Arab youth ethnic extremism correlates mostly with social stereotypes and hostility to other social groups. Central Asian youth extremism correlates with intolerance to the other people individuality manifestation.

Psychological factors of Arab young people extremism are low life meaningfulness, absence of clear life goals, conviction in unpredictable and uncontrollable world, in the people's benevolence and the desire to rely on others in setting and achieving their life goals. For Central Asian young people psychological factors of extremism are contradictions between clear understanding of their life goals and their low ability for systematic efforts to achieve these goals. For both groups important factor of ethnic extremism is low communicative competences, especially understanding the other people's emotions and regulation of their own emotions.

Personal resources for the ethnic extremism reduction could be: for Arab people - their self - control in emotions and activity; for the Central Asian people - concentration on their life goals. Positive and strong social support may help all to feel important and valued, to understand their life goals and values better, to feel less lonely and isolated, to have higher self confidence and self-esteem, to understand other people better, to develop their social competences.

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Laboratory of Development and Evaluation of Transversal Skills - LaDETS: a pilot project in the Bachelor of Education of the University of Minho (Portugal)

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Abstract

This paper presents the research project: "Creation of a pedagogical laboratory (Laboratory of Development and Evaluation of Transversal Skills - LaDETS): a pilot project in the Bachelor of Education of the University of Minho". The University of Minho (UM) is an institution of Higher Education located in Braga (Portugal) and, from the diversity of areas that compose its curriculum, this study focuses on the Bachelor of Education. Established in 1991 and restructured in 2006 as a result of the need to adapt to the Bologna process, the Bachelor of Education does not aim to prepare students for teaching functions in the formal education system, but seeks to answer the needs of a wide and varied field of educational and training activities, in a dynamic of development and update of diverse and complex skills in the area of Lifelong Learning. Accordingly, the institutions with educational purposes - both in formal and non-formal contexts - and the social and cultural activities where the educational and training dimensions are crucial to the qualification and empowerment of people, stand out as potential spheres of work for those who graduate in Education. Therefore, the Education Professionals exert their activity inside and outside the education system and, increasingly, in emerging contexts, using various types of intervention, such as training, sociocultural animation and mediation. In this sense, the technical skills that students should develop along the Bachelor of Education are of a diverse nature. Nevertheless, the investment in the development of transversal skills (including communication, conflict management, teamwork, critical thinking, creativity, problem solving) are increasingly valued by employers in a logic of adaptability to new situations and it is in this context that this research and the creation of the LaDETS emerge as a complement to the Curricular Plan. The activities carried out in the LaDETS are supported by both constructivist paradigm and experiential learning theories and are based on active methodologies such as Problem-Based Learning and simulation environments. The purpose is to confront the students of the Bachelor of Education with problems based on real contexts and situations, in order to enhance their awareness of the transversal skills they already have and promote the development of others, in a setting where those same skills can be evaluated. Hence, the intention is to contribute, on one hand, to bring students closer to the reality of the labor market, their constraints and requirements and, on the other hand, to design a framework of evaluation in this field, pointing towards pedagogical innovation in Education in Higher Education. Regarding the methodology, the project is based on an action-research approach. This article aims to present the study, making a brief reference to the state of the art, the methodological choices that were made and the different stages of the research, ending with a brief reflection on the expectations in terms of results.

Keywords: Education, Transversal Skills, Evaluation, Higher Education

Introduction

The pedagogical innovation in Higher Education has been the object of analysis (Vieira et al, 2004; Vieira et al, 2002), especially since the accession to the Bologna Process and considering the current context, where mobility and transferability of skills have become key concepts in political and educational discourses, as well as in those of the employers (Kishore, 2013; Silver & Harris, 2009; Markert, 2002).

To deal with the rising unemployment and the shrinking of the economic growth, it is necessary to mobilize Higher Education students to participate in learning experiences that, being new or complementary opportunities to their training, may contribute to improve their competitiveness, progress and adaptability to new situations and new jobs and also increase productivity and economic growth. The development of ever more skills, contextualized, on one hand, but transversal, on the other, in a logic of Lifelong Learning, becomes a priority to respond to the constant economic and technological changes we face in contemporary society.

The investment in the development and transferability of transversal skills (including communication, conflict management, teamwork, critical thinking, creativity, problem solving), increasingly valued by employers (Kishore, 2013; Silver & Harris,

2009), can facilitate the mobility of individuals in professional terms, broadening their employability horizons, once they become more competitive and able to deal with unforeseen situations.

But one of the issues that many authors question (Alves & Machado, 2011; De Ketele 2011, 2008; Tardif & Dubois, 2011; Alves, 2006) is related to the process that involves the evaluation of skills, namely, the transversal ones. Zarifian (1999) defines skill as the practical intelligence headed to situations that are based on the knowledge already acquired, transforming it. It is a "know how to act" (Le Boterf, 2005) that implies knowing how to mobilize capabilities, knowledge and abilities in a given context. In this sense, to evaluate skills, it becomes essential to observe knowledge in action.

Thus, in order to promote optimal and innovative conditions for learning that facilitate skills' training and evaluation, several institutions of Higher Education have already invested in labs and projects that aim the development and evaluation of technical and transversal skills, using active methodologies such as Problem-based Learning (PBL) and simulation environments (Liu & Olson, 2011; Annerstedt, Garza, Huang-DeVoss, Lindh & Rydmark, 2010; Oliveira, 2009; Varga et al., 2009; Santos & Infante-Malachias, 2008; Filho & Romano, 2007).

Grounded on a constructivist perspective, the PBL methodology is based on problem situations, from which students reflect, mobilizing different disciplinary knowledge. As a result, this approach stimulates the development, amongst others, of critical thinking, cooperative and independent learning and improves the capacity of decision-making, promoting an overview of the real problems that occur in professional contexts.

The objectives of PBL methodology are, therefore, to prepare students for professional practice, through strategies that enhance motivation, teamwork and the development of self-regulatory skills (Biggs, 2003) and, accordingly, the students, working in small groups, are in the center of the process, which is facilitated by a tutor (Fernandes, 2011; Barrows, 1996).

In short, PBL is founded on the premises of "learning by doing" and "learning how to learn", in a multi and interdisciplinary way and contributes to the empowerment of students, by assisting in their preparation to deal with the challenges of contemporary societies (Esteves & Leite, 2005; Savin-Baden, 2000).

In fact, given its potential, PBL methodology and simulation environments have been capturing the attention of Higher Education institutions for decades. Having emerged in North America in the 60s, associated to the Health Sciences field, these methodologies have been extended, gradually, to other areas (Barrett & Moore, 2011; Peters, Lazzara & Johnson, 1981; Burke, Benner, Maier & Lewis, 1973; Koeninger & Ward, 1972).

Considering, specifically, the object of this study, the University of Minho has been doing an important work in this area, especially in the fields of Health Sciences and Engineering, presenting very positive results (Costa et al, 2013; Fernandes, 2011; Salgueira, Cerqueira, Sousa & Costa, 2009). However, in the Educational Sciences domain, these practices have not been given prominence (Leite & Esteves, 2005; Leite, 2005), except in contexts related to Teacher Education (Leite, Dourado & Morgado, 2011; Esteves & Leite, 2005; Leite, 2005; Leite & Afonso, 2001).

With regard, particularly, to the Bachelor of Education, privileged object of analysis in this research, although the development and evaluation of transversal skills are implicitly present in the Curricular Plan itself, these skills are not always perceived and applied by the students in a dialectical relationship between the theory and the practices/professional contexts. In turn, it is not also simple for teachers to evaluate the same skills in action (De Ketele, 2011; Alves, 2006; Rey, Carette, Defrance & Kahn, 2006; Roegiers, 2004).

The Bachelor of Education tries to respond to the educational and training needs of the knowledge societies, in a logic of Lifelong Learning and, consequently, the activities of these Professionals are in direct conjunction with the growing complexity of social, cultural and economic life, in its formal, non-formal and informal strands.

It is, for that reason, a Course that does not qualify "for teaching functions in the formal education system, but prior to the upgrade of diverse and complex skills in the area of education and training throughout life, which extend well beyond the boundaries of the school system and institutionalized education. It trains, for this reason, professionals or technicians of education oriented to work inside and outside the education system, at all levels and comprising various forms of intervention (education, training, training management, mediation, etc.)." (Curso de Licenciatura em Educação. Proposta de Reestruturação, 2006, p. 8)

This breadth and complexity of functions require not only technical preparation, but the development of transversal skills (based on the multidisciplinarity and teamwork that underlie the profession) that stimulate creative and effective problem solving, critical thinking, the efficient management of conflicts, the ability to improvise and to open constructive communication channels, in a cooperative and collaborative dynamic that promotes a praxis related to theory, so that the quality of the professional practices can be strengthened.

In this context, this Project is founded on the following research question: "Will the training of transversal skills in a pedagogical and laboratorial environment have a material impact on the articulation between theory and practice in the learning process and on the professional practices of the students of the Bachelor of Education of the University of Minho?"

The research has, thus, two general objectives: to promote pedagogical innovation in the field of Education in Higher Education and to build a Laboratory of Development and Evaluation of Transversal Skills (LaDETS) that operates based on simulated environments and Problem-based Learning (PBL) methodologies.

Finally, the specific objectives include: to stimulate the development of transversal skills among the students of the Bachelor of Education of the University of Minho, using the PBL methodology and simulated environments; to evaluate the transversal skills developed in LaDETS, through the creation and validation of appropriate instruments to that end; to evaluate the impact of the work accomplished in LaDETS in the learning process of the students or in their professional practices.

Method

Procedures

This research is grounded on a qualitative methodological approach, supported by a constructivist paradigm, centered on the interpretation of the meanings produced by the social actors involved; therefore, the reality is assumed as "a set of socially constructed and negotiated meanings" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1994, p . 54).

This relates to the fact that qualitative methodologies emphasize the interpretive understanding of events, as well as the importance of the subjective component of social behavior revealed by the personal experience of the actors who are part of a specific investigation. Another main reason of this prerogative is the search of meaning for the actions constructed by individuals to understand how they behave before a certain movement, fact or social situation, as this is a dimension full of significances.

In this sense, the Project seeks to analyze/interpret the reality according to the perspective of the actors and this methodological aspect enables the researchers to develop a privileged interaction with the participants, facilitating the sharing of experiences, meanings and perceptions between themselves and the social actors, within a symbolic interactionism (Albarello et al., 2005; Lessard-Hébert, Goyette & Boutin, 2005; Bogdan & Biklen, 1994; Haguette, 1995; Erasmie & Lima, 1989).

The study focuses on an action-research approach, since it allows an active and critical participation of the actors in the construction of their own action, facilitating the real implication and commitment of the participants and culminating in social contracts that offer a collective contribution within the objectives, affiliations, subjectivities, aspirations and identities of each individual in himself (Lessard-Hébert et al, 2005; Haguette, 1995; Erasmie & Lima, 1989).

In this context, action-research is considered the most appropriate approach inasmuch as it promotes the partaking of the participants in the analysis and in the pursuit of answers to the problems posed, constituting a means of investigating social and professional situations, aiming the awareness to all the procedures and responses considered important to act in those same situations.

Adopting the perspective of Silva and Pinto (2009), action-research is characterized by its complex nature (it has objectives of research, innovation and skills development) and collective (it is based on a collective structure that involves a team of researchers in the process of investigation and intervention).

Thus, this approach implies an interaction between research and intervention, as they occur simultaneously; in this sense, the knowledge of the reality leads to its transformation, which translates into a cyclical process. Accordingly, it is essential the real implication of the social actors at all stages of the project and the commitment of the researchers regarding the reality being studied and the object of intervention.

Explicitly, this Project consists of a set of phases. The first one (May-July 2014) comprises the continuation of the literature review and will also engage all the logistic arrangements concerning the establishment of LaDETS, particularly, regarding the organization of the workplace where the simulation activities will be held.

The second phase (August and September 2014) will focus on the design and construction of the pedagogical materials, problem-situations and simulation stations, so the third phase refers to the practical beginning of LaDETS, which will take place between October 2014 and July 2015. On this stage, nine groups of students (volunteers) from the Bachelor of Education (three groups from each year) will be formed and it is expected that they commit themselves to dedicate one

morning/afternoon per month to perform activities at the Laboratory, during 36 weeks. The LaDETS will be divided into different stations and in each one a problem-situation will be given to students to resolve. Therefore, using PBL and simulated environments, it is expected the development of transversal skills and the subsequent evaluation of the practice. In this sense, evaluation will be continuous, formative and integrated. In turn, the instruments for the first impact evaluation, after the 36 weeks, will also be created in this phase.

The fourth period will take place six months after the end of the activities, i.e., the second impact evaluation will be held, in order to understand exactly what kind of impact the work carried out in LaDETS had on the learning process of the students that remain at the University (new academic year) and on the professional practices of the participants that will graduate in 2015 and will come into the labor market. The Project is expected to be concluded in June 2016.

Expected Results

Once the Project presented is still in its initial stage, it is not possible to report concrete results, but the ones expected, considering the question and the objectives of the research.

Taking as a reference the prerogatives of Barrett and Moore (2011, p. 7) when they point out that "in addition to knowledge development, PBL explicitly aims to develop the student's capabilities in terms of key transferable skills needed for the workplace" and, following this, they add that "employers regularly highlight the importance of key skills, which include: communications, teamwork, information literacy, critical and creative thinking, and problem solving, together with self-awareness, self-assessment, ethical behaviour, refletion, and responsability for continuous development" (Barrett & Moore, 2011, p. 7), it is possible to realize the importance of designing projects whose aims include the development of these transversal skills.

Regarding the Professionals of Education, their profile comprises technical skills such as:

- "of diagnosis of problems and of the analysis of contexts of educational action, as well as cultural, economic and social situations in which the education and intervention components are relevant, specifically by reference to the paradigm of lifelong education;

- of intervention, as educator, trainer and socio-educational inciter, based on scientific and methodological knowledge, and of techniques and resources adapted to the contexts and problems

- of execution of the guidelines of the politics of education and training, in their different levels of formulation, planning and educational objectives, through organizational and administrative, scientific and pedagogical actions, enabling the students to operationalize programs and projects of education and training;

- of interpretation and operationalization of terms of reference and objectives concerned with the execution, under supervision, of activities of description and characterization, of assessment and guidance of prospective studies and consultancy work;

- of participation, under adequate supervision, in multiple tasks of support: direction of programs, projects and actions, conception of intervention models, plans, processes and methods of education and training, definition of educational strategies, definition of needs, objectives and plans of training, understanding of problems and situations, research and action-research, as well as the development of specialized areas of intervention, acting as an assistant;

- in the personal and social field, namely of creativity and critical mind, of autonomy and responsibility, of observation and analysis, of dialogue and cooperation, of educational recreation and intervention". (Curso de Licenciatura em Educação. Proposta de Reestruturação, 2006, pp. 14-15)

The analysis of the scope and complexity of these functions easily substantiates the relevance of establishing an active and fruitful relationship between the technical expertise required to these Professionals and the transversal skills that are needed to respond effectively to the potential and diverse contexts of intervention where they can operate.

Thus, in terms of results, it is expected:

- that students of 1st and 2nd Years succeed, through the methodologies used, in developing and/or improving transversal skills that can contribute to their academic success, by promoting an actual articulation between the situations addressed in LaDETS and the theoretical and technical contents of the Curricular Plan of the Degree.

- that the skills developed by the students of the 3rd Year meet what is required, in general terms, by the employers and that the process as a whole contributes to their integration into the labor market.

- that the instruments created to evaluate the transversal skills in LaDETS can be validated and, potentially, be used in similar contexts, stimulating pedagogical innovation in Education in Higher Education.

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Discourse and/as Social Practice – the Analysis of the Problem of Resistance and Hegemony

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to discuss how approaches to discourse can face the charges for discursive idealism, and to show it empirically through the analysis of gender discourse in the mapping and reception of the life and work of Marija Jurić Zagorka, the first Croatian woman journalist, proto-feminist and the writer of popular fiction. The method is critical discourse analysis, which follows Foucault's concept of discourse, but attempts to overcome the criticism Foucault received for overemphasizing the potential of discourse to manipulate people. This is the reason motivating many revisions of Foucault's method mainly by attempting to introduce a theory of action in order to make a socially active subject link discourse and reality. CDA authored by Norman Fairclough introduces a three-dimensional concept of discourse (as text, discursive practice and social practice) and uses the Gramscian concept of hegemony (rather than ideology) to strategically try and surpass the charge for discourse determinism. Seeing discourse as social practice enables us to combine the perspectives of structure and action, because practice is at the same time determined by its position in the structured network of practices and a lived performance, a domain of social action and interaction that both reproduces structures and has the potential to transform them. Gramsci's concept of hegemony sees cultural production as a tool that maintains domination by securing the spontaneous consent of the subordinated. The results suggest a possible (subversive) intervention into the sphere of discursive practices (hegemonic struggle of different voices for supremacy in the order of discourse defining the reception of Zagorka) and indicate that detailed empirical research on discursive effects in a series of domains is a method of research on political investment of the order of discourse into social change.

Keywords: discourse, gender, popular culture, hegemony, social practice

1. Introduction

The research attention paid to discourse in humanities and social sciences in the last several decades presents a ramification of the so called linguistic turn, which has directed the mainstream research interests towards the questions of meaning-production, subjectivity, social construction of identity etc. Although discourse was originally studied predominantly within the framework of linguistics, the influence of deconstruction, poststructuralism and the performative turn have widened the meaning of the term discourse. Consequently, there are today quite a few definitions of and approaches to discourse analysis, such as that of Fairclough (1995), Wodak (2001), van Dijk (1990) etc. Sociologically relevant conceptualizations of discourse are particularly the ones influenced by Foucault's method, because, among other reasons, Foucault sees social power as discursive. There is almost an overload of interpretations and (mis)uses of Foucault' approach, although there is no one Foucault's method. Our task is therefore to firstly give an overview of the history and (disciplinary) versions of discourse analyses and then to move towards outlining Foucault's notion of discourse. We will discuss some criticism Foucault received, particularly the charges for discursive idealism, and try to show how a critical discourse approach, specifically the one authored by Norman Fairclough, works to overcome the criticism Foucault received for overemphasizing the potential of discourse to manipulate people, and offer a view of the potentially subversive social action. There are two main foci Fairclough complements the method with to achieve this objective: he conceptualizes discourse as consisting of the three dimensions (text, discursive practice and social practice), and he introduces the concept of hegemony over that of ideology to provide for the struggle between tactically polyvalent voices for supremacy in the order of discourse.

Having leaned the methodological framework of critical discourse analysis against a background, the paper proceeds to empirically apply the method through the analysis of gender discourse in the mapping and reception of the life and work of Marija Jurić Zagorka (born 1873, died 1957), the first Croatian woman journalist, proto-feminist and the writer of popular fiction. Zagorka was on the one hand adored by her readers, immensely popular, and due to that in the position to mobilise

action towards feminist goals. On the other, however, she was severely criticized and even treated with utter disgust by the established critics. This duality is also evident in her invisibility in the overviews of the history of Croatian literature and journalism, critical treatises, encyclopaedias, or scientific debates; and on the contrary her immense visibility and presence in the popular cultural imaginary. Our analysis in this paper specifically focusses on the gender discourse that spans past the borders of science and literature and can be, as the results suggest, considered as their confluence. Informing the critical analysis of gender discourse with the analysis of context and paying heavy attention to the critique of ideology, the paper reveals power-imbued strategies of the certain historical mapping and reception of Zagorka's life and work. Increased academic interest in popular culture enabled this new visibility of previously absent objects from the scientific study, although new investments into the power regime must not be disregarded. We will in this paper, accordingly, analyse the status and (in)visibility of Zagorka as an instantiation of popular culture in the Croatian context. As this is also a contribution to feminist epistemology and the critiques of androcentric theories of modernization, special awareness of reflexivity regarding positionality will be pursued throughout.

2. Methodological framework – on analysing language, culture, and society

2.1. On discourse and discourse analyses

The last several decades have been marked by the appearance and development of various interdisciplinary fields, including systems theory, cognitive science, and discourse analysis, which presents a refreshing contrast compared to self-isolating tendencies of scientific disciplines on the one hand (cf. Beaugrande, 1996) and the ambitions to create a unified science on the other (Beaugrande, 2006: 29). Discourse analysis as a qualitative methodological approach in social sciences and humanities presents an umbrella term (Cameron, 2001: 1) and includes various research approaches, like ethnography of speaking, conversation analysis, interactional sociolinguistics and critical discourse analysis (Wetherell, 2001).

Discourse analysis is the ramification of the so called linguistic turn in social sciences and humanities, and although there is a multitude of approaches, they all share the attitude that what makes the social world, including our identities, can partly be found in discourse. What is it then that we analyse in discourse analysis? Discourse is primarily a term from linguistics, where it denotes language beyond sentence-level and includes a series of texts. Litosseliti & Sunderland (2002) add the interpersonal focus to this definition, stressing that discourse is not only a supra-sentential element, but that it is functional in terms of language use, which means that it communicates meanings in a certain context. Also, discourse is used to refer to the language particular to certain social situations (e.g. classroom discourse). Various authors have defined it in different ways: as the real practice of speaking and writing (Woodilla, 1998), or, more specifically, as an interconnected set of texts and the practices of their production, distribution, and reception (Phillips & Hardy, 2002: 3). Social reality is constructed and made real through discourses, and social interactions cannot be understood without reference to discourses that give them meaning (Phillips & Hardy, 2002: 3).

Text should be distinguished from discourse, which is text in context (van Dijk, 1990: 164), although it cannot be separated from discursive and social practice (Fairclough, 1992). Texts can be considered discursive units and material manifestations of discourse (Chalaby, 1996). The notion of text includes many different forms, from written texts to pictures, symbols, artefacts etc. (Grant, Keenoy, and Oswick, 1998). Texts are places in which the complexes of social meanings are produced in a certain historical situation of their production, which in a partial way notes the history of participants in the production of texts and the institutions involved – thus, a partial history of language and social system. Discourse analysis is thus aimed at establishing the constructionist effects of discourse through the structured and systematic analysis of texts. However, discourse does not possess meanings immanently, it is shared and social, and emanates from interaction between groups and institutions. Accordingly, if we aim to understand discourses, we must understand the contexts in which they appear (van Dijk, 1997).

The Dictionary of sociology (Abercrombie et al., 2008: 50) defines discourse as the corpus of language use unified by some common assumptions, which implies that discourse allows us to think, speak and do one thing, and exclude the thinking, speaking and doing of the other, directing the attention of sociology to the social effects of that exclusion. This interest in studying the processes of social construction of the invisible reality, reality that is taken for granted, with focus on the connection between the power regime and knowledge is strongly influenced by the work of Michel Foucault. Our task is therefore to look more closely into this intellectual heritage.

2.2. Foucault's heritage and influence

Foucault's decision to focus on discursive practices is an attempt to avoid structuralism and hermeneutics (Dreyfus & Rabinow, 1982: xiii-xxiii). Foucault dealt with discourses of human sciences (medicine, psychiatry, economics, grammar), but his method is in principle generalizable to all discourses (Fairclough, 1992: 38). He does not put accent on the analysis of texts, but on the conditions of possibility of discourse and the rules of formation that define the possible objects of knowledge, subjects, concepts etc. (Robin 1973: 83, as found in Fairclough, 1992: 38).

Foucault differentiates between discourse and language. He is less interested in the formal possibilities offered by the language system, and more in the fact that certain words have been uttered. Discourse is thus for Foucault not only the form of knowledge about the way of thinking and acting in a given culture, but also an event. Also, discourse is historical, but with a lasting relevance, as archive, which denotes the accumulated existence of discourses (Foucault, 1989: 25). Discourses exist in a net-like relationship with other discourses, and that relationship is hierarchical (the order of discourse).

The idea of discourse developed by Foucault has been accepted by a number of analysts interested in the relationship between society and language. Foucault's method is according to Kendall and Wickham (1999) an important contribution to qualitative research in social sciences for several reasons: it deeply problematizes simplified categories, it has no assumption of progress, speaks of the history of the present, disturbs the assumed and the taken for granted, looks for contingencies instead of causes and exposes oppositions.

Although qualitative social science research seems much indebted to Foucault, there is no one or strictly defined Foucauldian method of discourse analysis. There are various models developed on the basis of Foucault's contribution (cf. Bannister, 1995; Fairclough, 1995; Parker, 1992; Potter & Wetherall, 1987), and many of them differ according to how they position themselves regarding the criticism addressed to Foucault on several accounts. Two most widespread critiques revolve around the potentially present discursive idealism and the problematic status of the possibility of subversive action, or in other words, the relationship between power and resistance.

The criticism stresses that although Foucault discusses (1982) various forms of fight and resistance, he leaves us with the dominant impression that people are entirely subject to the systems of power, which are impossible or almost impossible to subvert and resist. Also, Foucault does not speak so much of the real practice of writing and speaking, but of the discursive practice as a system of anonymous historical rules (1989), which is a move that reduces the notion of practice to its customary opposite, structure.

Some scholars of Foucault (Hooks, 2001) have, however, warned that Foucault emphasizes the political utility and critical capacity of analysing discourse as a powerful means of enabling forms of critique and resistance, even when his method is read in a 'descriptivist' manner and turned into a kind of diagnosis of culture and society, enabling only a characterization of a variety of historical phenomena (like for example in case of McHoul and Grace, 1997). The often confusing and criticism-inspiring moments in Foucault's writing revolve around his conceptualization of the relationship between discursive and non-discursive, knowledge and power, especially when Foucault stresses the effects of discursive practices that make it virtually impossible to think outside of them (Hook, 2001). To be outside of discourse is to be mad, by definition, to be beyond comprehension and reason (Young, 1981). Discourse is so tightly associated with the regime of power, it ensures the reproduction of the social system through forms of selection, exclusion and domination (Young, 1981). Foucault's theorization of truth and authorship as the functions of discourse particularly fuelled the criticism in this direction, because by demonstrating how certain understanding re-circulate, Foucault seems to suggest that we "have dangerously over-estimated the creative and resourceful abilities of discourse" (Hooks, 2001: 11).

We agree that Foucault's position should be read as going against a deterministic discursive idealism in the sense that not everything can be analysed as a text or a language only, and towards the re-acclamation of the material forms of power. However, we feel that to analytically show the social practice quality of discourse, we need to include direct analyses of real examples of that practice, including texts, without which it is hard to imagine the possibility to extrapolate from structure to practice. This effort is, close to Foucault's concept of discourse, undertaken by Norman Fairclough, who has developed a model of critical discourse analysis that takes text and context into account in analysing discourse, and that has been reviewed as usable in social sciences. Fairclough's two important strategies in that effort are his three-dimensional concept of discourse and the inclusion of the theory of hegemony, along Gramsci's (1971) lines. We therefore proceed to give an outline of his method.

2.3. Critical discourse analysis

Critical discourse analysis (CDA), heavily informed by the work of Michel Focualt, is the method of research into the place of language-in-use in the construction and regulation of the social world. It presents an attempt to overcome the accusations

for discursive idealism and the passivation of social actors by analysing discursive building blocks of the processes of social construction of reality. CDA offers the theory of the connection between social practice and discourse structures, as well as a wide range of tools and strategies for analysing concrete contextualized uses of language/performances of meanings. The critical approach to analysing discourse should be positioned between theory, methodology and politics (Meyer, 2001: 15), with the procedure that reduces rather than extends the textual in its analysis (Meyer, 2001: 16).

The "critical" dimension of this method refers to the practical linking of the social and political engagement with the sociologically informed construction of society, with the recognition that the interconnectedness of things and the cause-and-effect chain are deformed inter alia discursively; and that the task of critique is to make this interconnectedness visible (Wodak, 2001: 2). Fairclough (1995: 50) defines the critical task as commitment to the dialectical method. Consequently, CDA demands of us to distance ourselves form the data, to embed them into the social, to explicitly take a political stand and to be self-reflexive in the course of research (Wodak, 2001: 9).

CDA is for Fairclough both theory and method, in a transdisciplinary dialogue with other theories and methods (2001: 121). Relevantly, it is a view of semiosis as an element or 'moment' of material social processes, which enables a new way of analysing semiosis within wider analyses of social processes (Fairclough, 2001: 121). The motivation to focus on the social practice perspective lies in the possibility to combine the perspectives of structure and agency, because practice is at the same time determined by its position in the structured network of practices and a lived performance, a domain of social action and interaction that both reproduces structures and has the potential to transform them (Fairclough, 2001: 122).

According to Meyer (2001: 22), Fairclough takes a specific position of the middle-range theory and focusses on the social conflict in the neo-Marxist tradition, with special emphasis on the elements of domination and resistance as manifested in discourse. Economic activity, social relationships, identities, values, consciousness and semiosis are dialectically connected elements of practice, never completely separable. Social practices connected in a certain way constitute a social order, and the order of discourse is its semiotic aspect (Fairclough, 2001: 124). The order of discourse is thus the social structuring of a semiotic difference – a certain social ordering of relationships between different ways of giving meaning, or different discourses and genres.

As indicated earlier, Fairclough (1992) develops a three-dimensional framework for analysing discourse. The first dimension is discourse as text - it refers to linguistic features like the choice of vocabulary (expression, metaphors), grammar (transitivity, modality), cohesion (conjunctions) and text structure. The second dimension is discourse as discursive practice – it refers to the production, circulation and consumption of texts. This means that in analysing the grammar, vocabulary or structure of texts, the attention is paid to speech acts, coherence and intertextuality – the aspects of text that connect it with context (Blommaert & Bulcaen, 2000: 449). The third dimension is discourse as social practice, which implies ideological effects and hegemonic processes in which discourse participates.

These three dimensions help Fairclough operationalize the Foucault-informed statement about the socially constitutive properties of discourse. Such conceptualizing of discourse accentuates the mutual determination and connection of the part and the whole, the micro and macro levels, which helps frame this model within the theory of ideological processes, because discourse is seen in terms of hegemonic processes and changes in hegemony.

The notion of hegemony is very important here as a certain social structuring of semiotic difference may become hegemonic i.e. a part of the legitimizing common sense that supports the relationships of domination. However, contrary to the dominant ideology thesis, hegemony can be to a greater or lesser extent challenged, implying that the order of discourse is not a closed and rigid system but subject to risks springing from real interaction (Fairclough, 2001: 124).

When considering the relationship between language, power, and ideology, Fairclough speaks of ideological-discursive formations (IDFs), which is a direct influence of Althusser (1971). IDF is an ideological position that strives to affiliate with different forces in institutions. The way a subject speaks is normatively connected with the position they occupy, because it is from this position that they acquire a way of seeing underlying a certain way of talking, always shaped by ideological norms. Ideology can, thus, be understood as the representation of the imaginary relationship of individuals towards the conditions of their existence. It interpellates individuals as subjects or, in other words, places them in a position within the ideological frame. Patriarchal ideology, for instance, interpellates individuals as more powerful men and less powerful women, and some claim that popular culture interpellates readers as consumers (cf. Strinati, 2004: 142). However, we wish to distance ourselves here from the dominant ideology thesis and the determinism of class, and so introduce Gramsi's concept of hegemony into the perspective, because the notion of hegemony tries to overcome the assumption of the ultimate primacy of the production mode. Also, Gramsi (1971) makes a difference between coercive and consensual control, defining hegemony as a cultural and ideological means of perpetuating domination by securing the spontaneous consent of the subordinated.

Here is where the potential to theorize subversion appears. Namely, the naturalized discursive conventions are the most efficient way of reproducing cultural and ideological dimensions of hegemony (Fairclough, 1995: 94), which makes the effort to denaturalize existing conventions an important goal of challenging the hegemonic struggle. In other words, the hegemony of one group over the other partly consists of the possibility to intervene into and form discursive practices. This intervention is also called the technologization of discourse, and Fairclough (1995: 102-104) describes it as the process of possible intervention into the sphere of discursive practices with the aim to construe a new hegemony in the order of discourses of a certain institution. Also, Foucault (1981) sees the technologization of discourse as a powerful connection between social sciences and the structures of power in constituting modern biopower. Discourse can in this context be seen as one of the forces in what Rose and Miller (1990) call the "technologies of governance", which include strategies, techniques and procedures that different forces use to try and make their programs feasible.

Technologization of discourse brings changes to the hegemonic struggle. It is for our analysis important to stress once again that people can react to it in different ways: accept the demands for change, tactically act they accept them, reject them etc. Such view of the hegemonic struggle of discourses for supremacy is extremely relevant in this approach, as it provides for a less violent reading of the role and place of Marija Jurić Zagorka and her popular fiction in the Croatian cultural history. In the following chapter we analyse the discourse surrounding the interpretation of her work and producing the dynamics of her visibility/presence/adoration and invisibility/absence/detestation. We retain the awareness about qualitative shifts in the social functioning of discourse in different historical moments or in the cultural dominant of an epoch (Williams, 1981), as well as of the multifunctionality of discourse and inherent polysemy of language. Zagorka was a producer of texts for massive audience at times of big social, economic and political changes – when discourse technologization is particularly visible – and she had to work with different constructions of social identities. All texts express the social identity of their producers and address the supposed identities of their readers, and texts for massive audience, especially when they have explicit politics and purpose in mind (as Zagorka's do) actively construct imagined identities for their consumers, creating for them positions they may or may not occupy (Fairclough, 1995: 123), . Thus, detailed empirical research of discursive effects in a series of domains is a method of research into progressive political and ideological investment of the order of discourse into social change (Fairclough, 1995: 123), along the lines of what Spivak (1988) calls strategic essentialism.

3. The case of Marija Jurić Zagorka – critical discourse analysis of her life, work and reception

3.1. The problematic status of popular culture or on the politics of exclusion

Here we will attempt to show on a concrete contextualized example that detailed empirical research of specific discursive effects is a means of research on the investment of the order of discourse into social change (Fairclough, 1995: 123). On the analysis of the critical reception of popular culture, we will show that the effects Zagorka's popular cultural production exerted cannot be adequately grasped without taking the mentioned complementary perspectives of discourse as live social practice and hegemony as the struggle of voices for supremacy (always in negotiation with the dominant discourse) into account.

Popular culture is here revealed as the exemplary place of hegemonic negotiation of different discourses. There are different approaches to define popular cultural practices and their social functions. Popular culture was frequently associated with the rise of national consciousness from the late 18th century on (e.g. Burke, 1978), but its meaning is not that strictly defined. Williams (1976) states that popular can mean from the point of view of the people, but also from the point of view of those who want to govern the people, usefully noticing that it is not the people who talk about popular culture. He also mentions the definition of popular culture as inferior, the culture produced so as to appeal to the recipient, to mass audiences. Generally, there has been a strong trend of viewing popular cultural production in pejorative terms (in neo-Marxist theories of cultural industry, theories of mass society, the Frankfurt School, and even some feminist theories), especially the one primarily written for women and with extra-literary political objectives in mind. Various negative effects of producing and consuming popular culture have been emphasized (Lewis, 1978: 9): the negative character of the production of popular culture, negative effects on highbrow culture, the consumers of popular culture, and the entire society (see table 1).

Table 1. Overview of pejorative critiques of popular culture
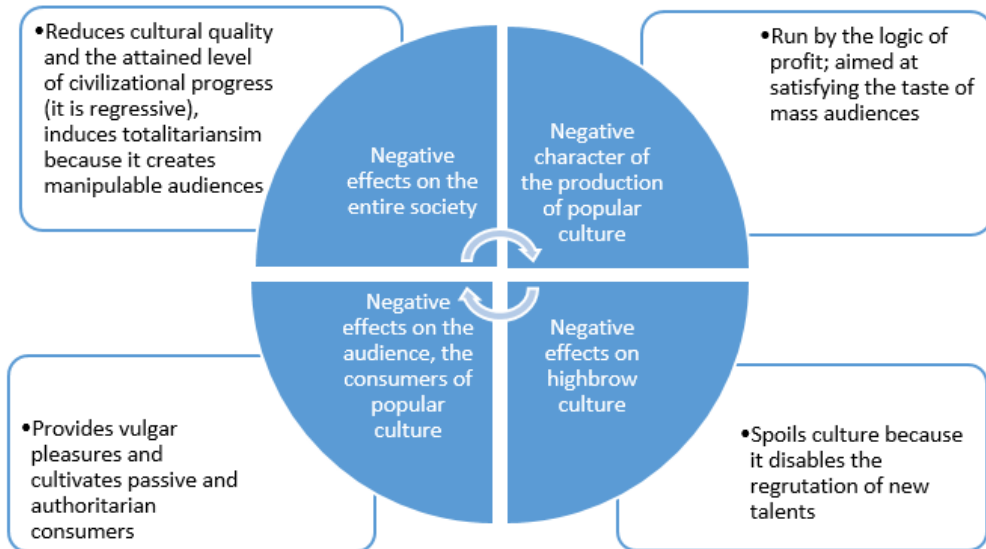
At first view, Zagorka may seem to yield to such criticism. On the level of narrative structure, Zagorka's novels are schematic, simplified, and episodic (which is also conditioned by the modes of production and distribution of texts), and on the level of narrative strategies they stimulate empathy, identification, and intensive physical sensation caused by the experience of reading (the novels are interesting, full of intrigues, cliff-hangers, and suspense; characters are mostly flat, and a happy ending is a generic must). Also, Zagorka produced texts in lucrative quantities, for massive audiences and with political objectives in mind. Zagorka depended on and adjusted to the audience and the market, but at the same time never gave up her political aims. Her heroines use discursive strategies in order to appropriate the male perspective and so make a change regarding the rights of women. The end of the story establishes what we would call a strong patriarchal discursive formation, because the heroines find happiness in marital union. This has been the main reason for even some feminists (Modleski, 2008; Snitow, 1996) to accentuate the passivizing effects of this type of literature, because it locks women in traditional roles.

However, there have recently appeared alternative analyses of popular culture as a potential source of or resource for the mobilization of social change; its diffuse character has been seen as opening up the space for subversion parallel with the discourse of decadence in mapping the effects of popular culture. The differences in the interpretation of popular culture ranged from those that see it as a social problem that needs to be dealt with to those that contrarily see it as a social asset in a plural society. The field of the study of popular culture includes consequently the question of whether social structure holds primacy over culture in the processes of social change or of whether culture may potentially be the space for the creation of new political identities and movements (Lewis, 1978: 12). It is therefore necessary to move away from one-sided views of the relationship between culture and society and to start from the analysis of interdiscursivity and the socio-historically contingent negotiations between ideological forces contained in performing discourse.

The effects of Zagorka's writing can it seems be far better understood along these lines, especially if we take the perspective of communication with readers into account. Namely, although the romances she wrote confirmed the patriarchal matrix on the ideational level, they were the first widespread literature actually read by a great number of women. In pursuing what Janice Radway termed in her analysis of reading the romance (1991) an ethnographic turn to the reader, we separate the novel as a market product and its textuality from the very act of reading. Contrary to some mentioned androcentric readings of harmful effects of romances and popular culture for women in general, we claim that the act of reading is more subversive than what is read, whereby the spread of the market can play an important liberating function. Zagorka started writing engaged historical novels, with the aim to squeeze out German popular fiction[1] and educate the readership in Croatian. Feuilletones, novels published in series, are the offspring of daily press intended for massive consumption (Nemec, 2006:

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[1] The publication of German novels decreased by at least 70% (Zagorka, 1953: 74).

143).1 An important contextual assumption of this type of novel publication is the changed readership structure, because of obligatory schooling and the rise of literacy, which brought wider reception horizon, market democratization, and the fast growth of all types of language communication (Nemec, 2006: 143). The intended consumers were women, still prevailingly out of the public sphere and the labour market at the time (Watt, 1972). This is why the diversification in the production and consumption of culture had a liberating potential for women. Popular culture produced by Zagorka it seems then helped destabilise the boundary between the private and the public sphere, because it offered to women the possibility of the experience of being modern (together with fashion, magazines, department stores, romance novels etc.), and thus went hand in hand with the general democratization regarding the freedom of movement and the spread of literacy, which brought certain advancements to the positions of women.

The results of the analysis of Zagorka's place in Croatian cultural history show that the case of Zagorka and her popular literature cannot be adequately grasped from the perspective of the binary distinctions (male/female, highbrow/lowbrow, fact/fiction, public/private) that helped organize the discourse of social theory on modernization processes. The malestream criticism of popular romances in the context of early 20th century modernization is thereby particularly revealing, and the analysis has shown that a different, female-oriented reading of modernization is needed as a complement.

3.2. The cultural politics of exclusion – on the dynamics of (in)visibility and the discourse of modernization

Similarly to the position of popular culture which has until recently held the position of low visibility in sociological research, the problem of writing women into the cultural history and of their writing2 are also the problems of (in)visibility, although both are and have been extremely present phenomena in the social life. The status of popular culture and of women's writing in the official cultural history are the symptoms of invisibility, which is in critical analysis of discourse an important factor of the processes of social exclusion and thus power. We have shown that from the perspective of live communication with readers, Zagorka's popular romances can be read alternatively to the customary pejorative criticism as potentially subversive and mobilizing social action. The reading of romances can thus be seen as a stake in the processes of democratization and modernization.

As a woman in the profession traditionally granting access to men only, Marija Jurić Zagorka was frequently faced with heavy insults and even disgust. Having a woman in the newspaper was a shame, but Zagorka's texts and feuilletones sold newspapers, so Zagorka was kept hidden as a madwoman in the attic of Obzor, the newspaper of her first employment.3 The ideological interests behind this degradation are to maintain the boundary between male and female spheres, to mystify the imagined essence of good journalism and literature, and exclude the threats to the positions of superiority and power. The reception of Zagorka and her work from the official critical establishment is well-illustrated by the labels attached to her: of a person who attacks everything that is elegant and cultured in Croatian society, because she is a writer of trash for peasants (cf. Lasić, 1986); a hermaphroditic type of woman who is out of her prescribed roles (in the kitchen, with children and in the church); the writer of pulp fiction courting the most vulgar taste (cf. Nemec, 2004: 651); literary weed and rubbish (cf. Kolanović, 2006: 327) etc. The mention of her is accordingly absent from the overviews of the history of Croatian literature and journalism; she is not even mentioned in the Obzor's Tribute Book published in 1936 although she was the editor in chief for a while. The Encyclopedia of the Yugoslav Institute of Lexicography gives only a circular entry on her: volume 4 (Zagreb, 1959: 55) directs from "Jurić, Marija" to "Zagorka"; and volume 7 (Zagreb, 1964: 737) directs from "Zagorka" to "Jurić, Marija".

On the contrary, Zagorka was visible and adored; her jubillaeums were celebrated, she received many letters from her readers, people waited in queues for her novels. She organized typographic workers into a union (Kolo radnih žena), conducted the first women's demonstrations in Croatia (especially during the regime of Khuen Héderváry), held hundreds of public lectures on women and politics, stepped out of traditional roles of women (which was interpreted as a sure sign of insanity), proclaimed the necessity to reveal the role of women in history by publishing a series of women's portraits, discussed on the position of modern women, emancipation and gender equality, created pictures of active women etc. (Sklevicky, 1996). She was the editor-in-chief of the first Croatian magazines for women (Ženski list, 1925 to 1938, and

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[1] The first such novel was Robinson Crusoe by Daniel Defoe, which unlike Zagorka's novels is free of similar pejorative criticism and is a classic.

[2] We are aware of Foucault's recommendation that one should pursue a different ethos of academic reading, read and do research on everything (1996: 14), avoid the "possession" of the material, and forget about the author, but this is not the topic here.

[3] See Gubar and Gilbert (2000).

Hrvatica, 1939 to 1940). She produced the largest opus in Croatian literature and was the most widely read Croatian writer[1] probably throughout the twentieth century (Nemec, 2004: 651). Zagorka dedicated her life to making women visible in public and created the possibility to articulate female experience, especially the experience of modernity. This is a contextual reason for reading her popular romances as possibly empowering, and not in line with the pejorative effects discussed above.

Critical denigration of Zagorka on the one hand and wide popularity on the other reveal the oppressiveness of critical labels given to Zagorka and her work and expose the discursive aspect of the ideological matrix with a gendered subtext. It is therefore methodologically and epistemologically important to reveal this part of female cultural production, together with the politics of concealment that has haunted it. It turns out that Zagorka was never actually absent, but only made invisible in the circles symbolically designated as belonging to high culture. She can therefore be called a public secret according to Tatjana Jukić (2012: 355, highlights in the original), because she is, as public, the knowledge of the community, not an individual, and thus political knowledge par excellence. As a secret, however, she is the knowledge that the community wishes to keep away from its legitimizing processes, but precisely because of that the knowledge that discloses the very conditions of the legitimizing processes in the community, and is thus political knowledge par excellence.

This dynamics of visibility, presence, and adoration of Zagorka on the one hand, and her invisibility, absence, and detestation on the other are mapped by the gender discourse, which is underwritten by the division of male and female spheres, the private and the public, work and home, culture and nature. The analysis of Zagorka's case reveals gender discourse as the one that maps the distinctions according to which we analyse for instance the differences in tastes (Bourdieu, 1984) or modes of cultural production and reception. Gender discourse is thus the confluence of scientific and literary writing, especially regarding the way in which the discourse of modernization has established itself, primarily by fundamentally relying on the exclusion of woman.

Woman is dominantly constructed through the discourse of non-alienated nature (and past), which is longed for, or the nature that needs to be put under control and civilised. Within the boundaries of the regime of power, as we shall see, Zagorka uses various strategies to try and mobilise feminist action, find a female political subject, and all that not by claiming any essence or nature of some imagined woman, but by occupying typically male domains and discourses – which is a strategically essentialist effort (Spivak, 1988) aware of the inability to find an authentic female voice, but not giving up political action on that account. Zagorka's position, the critiques that characterize her reception, the narrative techniques she used, and the conditions of distribution and publication of her work (serial publication) are treated here as contextual elements of discourse.

To autoreflect, this sociological investigation must not forget its own discursive presuppositions. Tönnies, Weber, and Simmel (Lichtblau, 1989) in their narratives on the modernization process for instance treat woman as the natural Other of culture (Sydie, 1987). The critique of classical sociological tradition warns against exclusive positioning of the modernizing process into the public sphere of work, bureaucracy, and market (Wolff, 1990), because such approach directly results in implicit or explicit exclusion of woman from it, putting her outside of the basic dynamics of social change (Sydie, 1987).

Riggs (1988), Radway (1986) and Bersani (1976) have accentuated that the critics of popular culture reduced female cultural practices by equating the consumption of lowbrow fiction with "swallowing" as a mechanistic and vulgar, and thereby perpetuated the ideology of aesthetic distinction which has a clear gender subtext. Consequently, consumerist society gets to be symbolically equated with the female principle: consumption is seductive, it gives pleasures and passivizes the consumer by capturing it within its reproductive strategies (Felski, 1995). The derogatory institutional critiques addressed to Zagorka as the writer of pulp have been analysed in this context. Still, the implications of the connections between women and consumption are not that simple. The dominant conceptualizations of the modernization process in social theory is founded on the aspect of production, not consumption. However, to look at modernization also from the point of view of consumption would unmask the narrative of rationalization as a less convincing narrative of modernization, because consumption is not only a reflection of the economic interest; it is at the same time a desire reflecting gender and ideological interests. Not only goods, but also the very act of consumption are sold – which is trace Radway (1991) follows in her

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[1] A simple ethnography of reading done during a walk through the library reveals Zagorka's novels as very popular and read; contrary to for example canonical Krleža, whose books are mostly neat and tidy. To illustrate Zagorka' s popularity: her Grička vještica was published in 1963 in ten thousand copies, and then in 1964 in another ten. Collected works follow in 1972 in another ten to fifteen thousand (Hergešić, 1983: 398-401). In the preface to her works fifteen years after her death, Hergešić states that Zagorka is still in fashion (1983: 399), and Nemec in the afterword written about fifty years after her death (2004: 651) that Zagorka is becoming more visible in the discourse of academic disciplines. Her popularity persists: Zagorka's novels are being republished in both luxury (Školska knjiga) and paperack (EPH) editions, both with major interest of the reading audience.

analytical separation of the novel as merchandise from the act of reading. Even if the dominant influence of the profit logic dominantly lurks from the background, the fact remains that romances, similar to fashion or department stores, influenced the sublimation of desire and the changes in the relationships of intimacy, as well as the changes in the patriarchal family, social and sexual identities.

To conclude, although woman may have been excluded (or sometimes despised) as a part of the natural pole that needs to be civilised and put under control at the early stage of modernization, she can become excluded also as a part of culture which is full of artificial glow and spectacle. This analysis thus does not aim to glorify the perspective of the consumer as subversive in itself, but only serves to challenge the distinctions that produced an over-simplified picture of female cultural practices and the female experience of and role in the modernization process. Although the act of reading romances could have had a relatively empowering effect for women, it simultaneously meant the appearance of new forms of control and discipline (especially over gender).

The less visible control means the more effective discipline. The question of the final outcome of the hegemonic struggle therefore remains. To conclude in an autoreflective tone, Zagorka is today more visible both in academic circles[1] and outside of them, [2] warning us that there is a cultural politics to it, because new visibilities produce some other invisibilities against which they establish themselves.

4. Conclusion

This paper offered an attempt to deconstruct the discursive construction of some myths that conceal the cultural politics helping shape our social and cultural imaginary. We applied the qualitative method of critical discourse analysis to look into the processes that produced the dual position of Marija Jurić Zagorka and her writing, aimed primarily at providing the ideology critique. To avoid the dangers of discursive determinism and the consequent view of social actors as impotent and passive, the aspect of discourse as social practice was particularly stressed and the theory of hegemony was offered, as the one better suited than the dominant ideology approaches, for the analysis of the struggle between different voices for a certain positioning in the order of discourse (Zagorka's feminist political goals in the patriarchal matrix). The heritage of Foucault's method was discussed with the perspective of introducing a theory of action and of discovering possible subversive strategies at disposal to social actors.

The discursive approach interested in analysing power helped reveal the coupling of popular culture and women, here through the analysis of contextualized meanings and negotiations with a certain audience and through ideological interdiscursive forces that constitute dominant meanings. The exclusion of Zagorka from serious literary discussions and overviews of the history of Croatian culture and literature is shown to be an effect of gendered distinctions that organize the social space. The position of Marija Jurić Zagorka as a woman and the writer of popular fiction in the Croatian cultural history is exposed to be relevantly determined by the distinctions that also help establish a certain view of the processes of (cultural) modernization and that strategically work to preserve the dominant status of man as producer of culture.

Zagorka was viewed pejoratively primarily on two accounts: for following the simplified narrative framework in her romances that keep spoiling the readership and 'doing harm' to young women, and for pursuing the logic of market and profit in the discursive practice of her writings (serially published novels, which are enormously long). The results of our critical analysis of gender discourse reveal the ideological burden of such criticism and its patriarchal and androcentric subtext. The analysis deals with a very specific and concrete example to show that rather than distinction-and-quality-reducing (dangerous) and stupefying, Zagorka's novels are, from the perspective of live communication with her audience, actually empowering for women, because the act of reading is seen as more important than what was read (cf. the ethnographic turn to the reader, Radway, 1991). Zagorka's popular romances thus provided the experience of modernity for that half of the population which was still predominantly locked in the private sphere in the first half of the 20th century. In this sense, this analysis is the contribution to the critiques of the theories of modernization in social theory, bringing the perspective that takes account of the female experience, the private sphere, and the logic of consumption (and not only of the public sphere of work, politics, rationalization) in the formation of what we call modernity. Although Zagorka leans against a dominant discourse and follows the market logic, the results show a possible (subversive) intervention into the sphere of discursive practices (hegemonic

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[1] This very paper is a contribution to that visibility. Also, there is an international scientific conference dedicated to Zagorka going on since 2007, with the fifth proceedings published.

[2] There is a film Zagorka directed by Biljana Čakić Veselič (FADE IN, HRT, Zagreb film, 2008); a play Zagorka by Ivica Boban; a millennium photograph was taken in 2012 by photographer Šime Strikoman of the people named after Zagorka's characters; the press room in the Croatian parliament is named "Marija Jurić Zagorka"; an annual award for written journalism is called after her...

struggle of different voices for supremacy in the order of discourse defining the reception of Zagorka) and indicate that detailed empirical research on discursive effects in a series of domains is a method of research on political investment of the order of discourse into social change. The problems of the final outcome of the hegemonic struggle, new forms of discipline silently introduced by Zagorka's new visibility, and a possibly different interpretation remain.

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TPACK Confidence of Pre-service Teachers in Universiti Utara Malaysia

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Abstract

The role of technology in education is undeniable (Niess, 2005). Teachers as moulders of human beings need to be skillful in integrating technology in education to deliver what they teach effectively. According to Malaysian Education Blueprint (2012) pre-service service teachers of Universiti Utara Malaysia are expected to master Information and Communication Technology (ICT) integration in the teaching and learning process (MOE, 2013). This study measures the level of Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) outlined by Mishra and Koehler (2006). It includes seven knowledge dimensions, namely Content Knowledge (CK), Pedagogical Knowledge (PK), Technological Knowledge (TK), Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK), Technological Content Knowledge (TCK), Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) and Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK). This study involved 154 pre-service teachers from various programs such as a Bachelor's Degree in Education Majoring in Information Technology, Moral Education, Accounting and Business Management. Questionnaire forms were sent through a 'Google Form' to their respective emails and responses were analyzed using SPSS software. The findings showed that the pre-service teachers have a high level of competency, confidence and lastly TPACK. The test results have also shown that there is a significant difference between the male and female pre-service teachers regarding the confidence level in using ICT in teaching and learning as revealed by MANOVA analysis.

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Keywords: Pre-service Teacher, Confidence, Competency, Gender, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK).

Introduction

Universiti Utara Malaysia consists of three main colleges which are College of Business (COB-UUM), College of Arts and Science (CAS-UUM), and College of Law, Government and International Studies (COLGIS-UUM).College of Arts and Science consists of five (5) schools namely School of Computing, School of Education and Modern Languages, School of Multimedia Technology and Communication, School of Quantitative Science and School of Social Development. The School of Education and Modern Languages offers Bachelor in Education (B.Ed.) degrees specializing in Accounting, Business Management, Guidance and Counseling, Information Technology and Moral Education. The students' intake is monitored and sponsored by Ministry of Education. Upon completion, the pre-service teachers are posted in the government sponsored schools. While studying in the University, students are exposed to various technology based courses such as the multimedia software development course for education, animation and graphics in education, audio and video in education and education technology. All of these courses enable the graduates to apply technology when the teaching and learning process is implemented in the classrooms.

According to Malaysian Education Blueprint (2012) the ministry will ensure that all teachers meet a minimum level of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) literacy by the end of 2015. The system's standard for ICT literacy is based on an established rubric for ICT competency developed by the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE, 2009); but ISTE is not designed to measure the ICT confidence for pre-service teachers. Therefore the management of the university should assess these pre-service teachers' TPACK to ensure that they are really ready to face the real world of education. Therefore, the Technological Pedagoical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework is used to measure the level of confidence of pre-service teachers through the seven domains suggested by Mishra and Koehler (2006) as most suitable for pre-service teachers (Moersch, 2002; Albion, 2003; Schmidt et al, 2009). The researchers also measured the confidence and competency level of the pre-service teachers to ensure that all of them were able use technology in daily practice.

Literature Review

For the sake of assisting and guiding the researchers to integrate technology in education, scholars have developed several types of models or frameworks to integrate technology in education. Included among these models are Levels of Technology Integration (LoTI) (Moersch, 2002) scale, Apple Classrooms of Tomorrow (ACOT) continuum (Sandholtz,

1997), The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (Lemke, 2003) model and International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE) NETS-T 2008 Standards (ISTE, 2008). Most of these integration models focus on general pedagogy terms, independent from specific domain content. However, now the technologists are of the opinion that the use of pedagogical technology is very much influenced by content domain. For instance, knowledge that is required to integrate technology in the science subjects is different than in geography subjects (Dorian, 2011).In the year 2006, a blueprint was suggested by blending three aspects of teachers' knowledge: Pedagogical Knowledge, Content Knowledge, and Technological Knowledge (Koehler & Mishra, 2008; Mishra & Koehlar, 2006). The new framework is known as Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) (Thompson & Mishra, 2007).
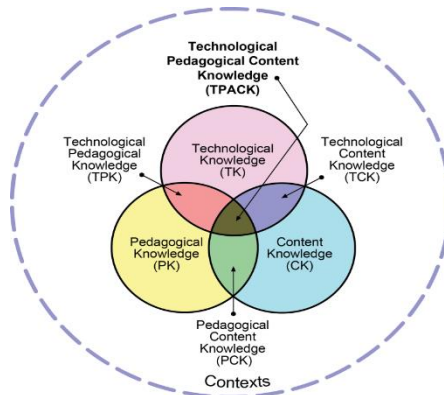
Figure 1. TPACK framework as suggested by Mishra & Koehler (2006)

TPACK blueprint suggests seven different Categories of teachers' knowledge. Figure 1 shows the TPACK blueprint suggested by Mishra and Koehler (2006).The seven knowledge domains described by Mishra and Koehler (2006) include:

Pedagogical Knowledge or PK: Knowledge of the art of teaching, including methods, teaching techniques and strategies, classroom management skills, and planning teaching sessions. It also includes knowledge assessement and evaluation along with student learning (Koehler & Mishra, 2005).

Content Knowledge or CK: Knowledge of subjects to be taught (eg, Physics, Chemistry, Geography). Shulman (1986) defines content knowledge as the knowledge of facts, concepts, and structure of a subject area, as well as the ways in which the truth and falsehood, and validity and invalidity within that content area, are established.

Technological Knowledge or TK: Knowledge of technology that constantly changes includes the ability to process information, communication, and solving problems in daily life and work. Koehler and Mishra (2008) define technological knowledge as a developed technology literacy where persons can broadly apply technology to their everyday lives, and recognize where technology can assist or impede the achievement of a goal.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge or PCK: Knowledge of the pedagogy or the teaching practices that are appropriate for a subject. This also includes knowledge of pedagogical methods, knowledge of the challenges any given area presents, as well as an understanding of students' preconceptions and misconceptions regarding a specific area content. Expertise in a particular area involves more than problem-solving skills and knowing the content (Bransford, Brown, and Cocking, 2000).

Technological Content Knowledge or TCK: Knowledge of the relationship between subjects and technology, including the knowledge related to appropriate technology to be used to explore a content area discipline. The choice of technologies affords and constrains the types of content ideas that can be taught. For example, an animated simulation may be useful in teaching language and arts concepts like grammatical rules. Furthermore, technological tools can provide a greater degree of flexibility in navigating across these representations (Koehler & Mishra, 2008).

Technological Pedagogical Knowledge or TPK: Knowledge for using technology to implement a teaching method. For example, TPK can be exhibited by knowing how to effectively use a digital camera in the classroom or knowledge of effective online teaching (Cox, 2008).

Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge or TPACK: Knowledge of the complex interaction among content, pedagogy and technology.

This study focuses on TPACK confidence among pre-service teacher in Universiti Utara Malaysia.

Many researches have pertained to pre-service teachers who are confident with ICT and their abilities to use technology. For example, Owen and Moyle (2008) synthesized Markauskaite et al. (2006) research report whereby the pre-service teachers generally possessed good Instructional Technology or IT skills to use word processors and presentation softwares, be able to access and use email and the Internet, but less confident in using applications such as 'webgroup' discussions and website design. From their analysis, Owen and Moyle formulated a relationship between teachers' attitude and beliefs in determining their true practices and their abilities to learn new skills.

Research conducted by Albion (2003) emphasized an increasing trend to access computers and the Internet, but at the same time it also showed that this increasing access is also accompanied by an uneven level of confidence in the skills of the pre-service teachers. For example, even though there has been an improvement in basic IT skills, the use of database and spreadsheets remained relatively unchanged. Albion has also reported that website designs, online group discussions, virtual visits, data mining, and palmtop computers are rarely used.

There are several instruments to measure TPACK of teachers (Archambault & Crippen, 2009; Jamieson-Proctor, Finger, & Albion, 2010; Mishra & Koehler, 2005; Schmidt et al., 2009). However, the instruments mentioned above have been designed to be used by in-service teachers. In the Schmidt et al. research, (2009) instruments were formulated to measure the TPACK level of pre-school pre-service teachers. Jamieson-Proctor, Finger, and Albion (2010) measured the level of TPACK of pre-service teachers regarding ICT courses. Schmidt et al. (2009) conducted the most comprehensive research that included most of the TPACK aspects regarding the education of pre-service elementary teachers.

The research questions for this study are as follows:

What is the competency level of pre-service teachers in using ICT applications?

What is the confidence level of pre-service teachers ICT usage?

What is the TPACK confidence level of the pre-service teachers in the Universiti Utara Malaysia?

Method

Participants

Altogether, 220 final semester students who were involved in this research were from the School of Education and Modern Language, Universiti Utara Malaysia. All of the students were under the Education Degree program with one of the following minors namely Accounting, Moral, Business Management or Information Technology.

Instrument

In this research three instruments were used based on the research questions that have been set. All three instruments were adapted from previous studies. The first instrument was used to measure the competency level of pre-service teachers in using ICT applications. Students were asked to evaluate their own competency level based on the 17 items provided using a 4-point Likert scale (Jamieson-Proctor, Finger, & Albion, 2010). The second instrument was used to measure the confidence level of pre-service teachers in ICT. A Likert scale (4-point) was used to evaluate the confidence level of the pre-service teachers which are: 1-Not confident, 2- Quite confident, 3-Confidentand 4- Very confident. Twenty-three items from the ICT Audit Survey research (Watson et al., 2004) were used to measure the confidence level. Finally the students were asked to complete the online TPACK Confidence Survey in April 2013 voluntarily. Nineteen solid items in the questionnaire from Learning with ICT research: Measuring ICT use in the curriculum were adapted from Jamieson-Proctor et al. (2007) and its validity has been proven through the study conducted on measurement of technological knowledge (TK) and Pedagogical Knowledge (PK) (Albion, Jamieson-Proctor, & Finger, 2010).

Instrument Validation

A comprehensive study conducted by Schmidt et al. (2009) to develop and validate an assessment instrument for pre-service teachers. They found the Cronbach's alpha statistics on the TPACK knowledge domains and factor analysis for each domain. Their results suggest that, with the modification and/or deletion of 18 of the survey items, the survey is a reliable and valid instrument that will help educators design longitudinal studies to assess preservice teachers' development of TPACK.

Reliability of Instruments

Alfa Cronbach was calculated to determine the internal consistency for every instrument and showed the following results: α=0.921 (ICT application competency); α = 0.922 (Confidence in using ICT) and α = .9.51 (Technology, Pedagogy and Content).

Data Collection Procedure and Analysis

A time frame of two weeks was given to all students to answer the questionnaire sent through their respective e-mails (Google Form).The lecturers were informed to remind students to answer the questionnaire. Researchers had sent reminder emails to all students after a week. Data sent by students will be automatically saved in Google Drive. After the two week period ends data would have been processed using SPSS software.

Results

Demographic Information

A total of 154 students who are in the education degree program have answered the questionnaire. The response percentage is 70%. Table 1 shows the respondents' details according to gender, degree program and the confidence level in using ICT in teaching and learning.

Table 1 Information for pre-service teachers, according to gender, program and confidence level in ICT

	Number of pre-service teachers	Percentage
Gender:		
Male	32	21.0
Female	122	79.0
Total	154	100
Program:		
Bachelor in Education (Accounting)	27	17.5
Bachelor in Education (Business Management)	36	23.5
Bachelor in Education (Guidance and Counseling)	17	11.0
Bachelor in Education (Information Technology)	48	31.4
Bachelor in Education (Moral Education)	26	16.6
Total	154	100
Level of Confidence in Using ICT:		
Not Confident	4	2.6
Quite Confident	44	28.6
Confident	66	42.8
Very Confident	40	26.0
Total	154	100

Table 1 shows that 79% of respondents were females. This is in line with the trend in the teaching profession in Malaysia. The response percentage for the Bachelor Degree (Information Technology) program is high (31%) because the researchers are teaching staff for courses related to information technology. Whereas the response from the Bachelor Degree (Guidance and Counseling) group was low because the researchers did not have much access to this group due to time constraint. The level of confidence in ICT was very encouraging with quite confident (28.6%)), confident (45.4%)) and very confident (21.5%).

Competency Level of Using ICT Application

Table 2 shows a number of applications requested by respondents to evaluate their individual competency levels; mean (with standard deviation) for each application.4-point Likert Scale was used:1=Not Competent, 2=Quite Competent, 3=Competent, 4=Very Competent. Data was analyzed using SPSS V17 software.

Table 2 Competency of pre-service teachers in using ICT applications

Item	ICT Application Software	$\bar{X}$ (SD)	%Not Competent
1	Word processing (Egs. Microsoft word)	3.51 (.87)	.7
2	Desktop Publishing (Egs: Microsoft Publisher)	2.76 (1.21)	18.3
3	Presentation Software (Egs: Microsoft Powerpoint)	3.26 (.84)	1.5
4	Electronic spreadsheet (Egs: Microsoft Egscel)	2.75 (.98)	8.5
5	Database (Egs: Microsoft Access)	1.65 (.86)	42.5
6	Graphic Creation and / or editing Egs: Adobe Photoshop, Paint)	2.03 (.52)	29.4
7	Capture Digital Image (Egs: Digital Cameras, Scanning)	2.75 (1.02)	6.5
8	Multimedia development and composition (Egs:Flash, Director)	1.68 (.98)	60.9
9	Digital Video Editing (Egs: Adobe Premire, Movie Director)	1.76 (1.05)	51.3
10	Email (Egs: Gmail, Yahoo, Microsoft Outlook)	3.75 (.78)	.1
11	Web Browser (Egs:Internet Egsplorer, Google Chrome, Safari, Firefox)	3.42 (.85)	1.1
12	Web Search (Eg: Google)	3.5 (.76)	.3
13	Web page development (Eg. Dreamweaver)	1.56 (1.09)	55.2
14	Web 2.0 and Social Network (Egs: Facebook, Flickr, Twitter, Youtube)	3.15 (.95)	6.5
15	Online learning (Eg: Moodle)	2.21(.65)	25.6
16	Online publishing (Eg: Blog, Podcast, Youtube)	2.82 (1.02)	19.5
17	Create reusable learning objects	1.65 (1.0)	42.3

On the whole, these results show that the UUM pre-service teachers are skillful in using basic ICT applications needed to equip them as teachers in the 21st century. As shown in Table 2, the mean score for the use of Microsoft applications such as word processing ($\bar{X}$=3.51), presentation ($\bar{X}$=3.26), email (($\bar{X}$=3.75), web browser ($\bar{X}$=3.42), web search ($\bar{X}$=3.50), web 2.0 and social network ($\bar{X}$=3.15) was very high compared to using desktop publishing software ($\bar{X}$=2.76), database ($\bar{X}$=1.65), multimedia development and composition ($\bar{X}$=1.68), digital image and video processing ($\bar{X}$=2.75, and ($\bar{X}$=1.76), web page development ($\bar{X}$ =1.56) and creating reusable learning objects ($\bar{X}$=1.65). It can be said that the UUM pre-service teachers are able to use basic ICT software very well but unfortunately their ability in using the 'High hand' (required high IT skills) software is unsatisfactory. Online learning ($\bar{X}$=2.21) showing a low confidence level with a percentage of 25.6% indicated that they are not confident in using it. This might be because the importance of using 'Moodle' was not emphasized enough at the college level (Arumugam, 2013). Apart from that, the web page development also showed that the percentage of not competent was quite high, 55.2%. This phenomenon might be due to the impression among pre-service teachers that they are not trained to become web page developers but to use it instead. However, the web page development course became one of the contributors to the findings for item 13.

Confidence Level of ICT Usage

The Chi-square test was used to investigate the relationship among the frequencies of various categories (Burns, 1990, p.153). The test results have also shown that there is a significant difference between the male and female pre-service teachers regarding the confidence level in using ICT in teaching and learning, χ2 (3, N=154) = 15.21, p=.001. The female pre-service teachers (48.5%) show quite or no confidence compared to the male pre-service teachers who only 3.1%. Table 3 shows the frequency for each male and female category.

Table 3 The confidence level frequencies of pre-service teachers in using ICT in teaching and learning

Level	Gender		%Total
	%Female(N)	%Male(N)	
Not confident	3.3 (4)	0 (0)	2.6
Quite Confident	35.2 (43)	3.1 (1)	28.6
Confident	45.9 (56)	31.3 (10)	42.8
Very Confident	15.6 (19)	65.6 (21)	26.0
Total	100 (122)	100 (32)	100

The confidence levels in using ICT teaching and learning according to programs also show significant differences, $\chi 2$ (12, N=154) = 52.16, p=.000. The findings are shown in Table 4. Data in Table 4 shows that the group of students from the Bachelor of Education (Information Technology) program is more confident compared to other groups of students. The group of students from the Bachelor of Education (Guidance and Counseling) program shows the lowest level of confidence.

Table 4 Confidence level in using ICT in teaching and learning according to program

Program	Not confident%	Quite Confident%	Confident%	Very Confident%	Total%
Bachelor in Education (Accounting)	3.5	33.3	45.0	18.2	100
Bachelor in Education (Business Management)	1.5	21.4	53.3	23.8	100
Bachelor in Education (Guidance and Counseling)	14.5	22.5	50.0	13.0	100
Bachelor in Education (Information Technology)	4.5	35.0	36.0	24.5	100
Bachelor in Education (Moral Education)	1.6	25.5	52.5	20.4	100

Confidence in Using ICT- Technological Pedagogy Content Knowledge (TPACK)

Table 5 shows the TPACK confidence level of the pre-service teachers in the Universiti Utara Malaysia. A total of 19 items was used according to the TPACK confidence level of the pre-services from the UUM School of Education. The first 13 items (First dimension) consisted of instrument upgrading factors and the other 6 items (Second dimension) consisted of transformation factors. The table also shows examples of ICT integration and the percentage of those who assume that they do not have confidence or they have limited confidence to support students to use ICT for every TPACK example.

Table 5 Confidence to integrate ICT in learning -TPACK

Item	I can help students in using ICT in the classroom to:	$\bar{X}$ (SD)	% No/ Limited Confidence
1	gain knowledge, skills, capabilities, and attitude to work continuously	2.38 (.85)	35.2
2	develop functional competency in the curriculum field that has been determined.	2.45 (.95)	33.2
3	synthesize their knowledge.	2.72 (.98)	41.0

4	active in constructing their own knowledge in cooperating with their friends and others	2.65 (1.00)	28.0
5	active in constructing knowledge that integrates the curriculum field.	2.56 (.85)	32.2
6	construct in depth understanding interesting topics related to the curriculum field that is studied.	2.72 (.85)	34.8
7	develop scientific understanding of the world.	2.45 (.95)	39.5
8	give motivation for curricular tasks.	2.75 (.92)	28.4
9	plan and / or manage curricular projects.	2.60 (.85)	23.1
10	integrate different media to create appropriate products.	2.50 (.80)	39.8
11	support learning process elements.	2.65 (.95)	36.0
12	demonstrate what they have learned.	2.85 (.78)	20.5
13	carry out formative / or summative assessments.	2.72 (.96)	29.5
14	be made aware of the global implication of ICT based technology on societies.	2.50 (.85)	38.5
15	gain intercultural understanding.	2.61 (.75)	36.5
16	assess themselves and society values critically.	2.45 (.90)	42.0
17	communicate with others in and at global level.	2.75 (1.00)	30.4
18	get involved in independent learning through access to education at their own time, place and pace.	2.75 (.99)	32.5
19	understand and get involved in the changing knowledge economy.	2.50 (1.05)	42.5

Gender Differences

The Pearson Chi-square significance test revealed no significance with each of the 19 items. Gender impact, however, on the confidence level of the pre-service teachers in this study was significant. This result is in line with studies conducted by previous researchers. MANOVA was used to determine whether gender is the determining factor in their confidence level to integrate ICT in the students' future learning, in line with the research hypothesis to measure TPACK. The MANOVA was significant for gender, Pillai Trace = .02, F = 3.17, df= (2, 151), p = .000, indicated the different levels of confidence to support student ICT use for male and female teachers. However, the main effect is of no significance as the univariate F tests showed no significant difference between males and females for either dimensions. Table 6 shows the means (with standard error) for each factor by gender.

Table 6 Comparison between the means of male and female pre-service teachers for two ICT dimensions used by students (N=154)

Gender	Dimension 1 (Increase learning outcome)	Dimension 2 (Transform learning outcome)
Female	2.71 (.07)	2.47 (.05)
	2.46 (.12)	2.45 (.34)

This research shows that there was no difference in terms of gender. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is no difference between male and female pre-service teachers in terms of confidence in integrating ICT based on TPACK.

Discussion

This research explores basic aspects of ICT knowledge of students in final semester as pre-service teachers under the education program in Universiti Utara Malaysia. It was found that the level of broadband and ICT access among students was high. Generally, the pre-service teachers stated a high level of interest and usage of ICT either for personal usage or for professional purposes. The pre-service teachers also voiced their intention to use ICT to improve learning outcomes compared to using ICT in teaching and learning.

TPACK is a multi-dimensional construct that can provide pre-service teachers a framework to address technology integration in instruction. The results from this study indicated that the TPACK survey was reliable and valid. The Ministry of Education goals will not be achieved if TPACK is ignored because the framework provides important directions in supporting pre-service teachers in developing the ability and confidence to teach with technology. Using TPACK as a framework for decision-making, a teacher program provide better guidance for pre-service teachers towards gaining an understanding of the holistic concept of pedagogy, content, and technology and thus eventually improving the teaching and learning process in classroom.

This research also found a small change in ICT software usage competency compared to previous studies (Albion, 2003). Previous studies showed a high mean level ($\overline{X} \geq 3$) in the use of word processing software, presentation, e-mails, web browsers, web search; and lower mean level ($\overline{X} \leq 3$) for web application 2.0 which evolved over a few years ago. The study also revelaed a low mean about using web 2.0, multimedia, and digital video. This result is likely due to the lack of facilities available to the students. As most of these applications (web 2.0, multimedia, digital video editing) need high speed computers and Internet access. The students may feel not competent to use these technologies in instruction. Since 2003 a significant fund was channeled into the development of learning objects (www.moe.gov.my/btp).

This research, having a similar purpose as the previous related studies, found that there is a difference in terms of gender and confidence in using ICT in teaching and learning. However, this research shows that there is a positive trend among female pre-service teachers in terms of confidence in using ICT. The difference can be seen in the programs offered. Looking at the program structure of the School of Education, this might happen because of limited need for ICT usage for the courses without ICT components. For example, students from B. Ed (IT) program (Very Confident – 24%) have a very high level of confidence compared to students from B. Ed (Guidance and Counseling) program (Very confident – 13.0%).

Finally, this research measures two dimensions of TPACK of pre-service teachers which are: 1) learning outcome improvement dimension and ii) transformation dimension. Research findings are different than previous studies whereby in this study there is no difference in terms of gender.

In general, this research exhibits ICT experience of pre-service teachers in the school of education in UUM. The uniqueness of this study is that it measured confidence, competency and TPACK level of pre-service teachers. Since there are 27 Teacher Training Institutes and few universities offering B. Ed program around Malaysia this study recommends that teacher education programs need to be audited using the TPACK model as the evaluation lens so that the auditing process for integrating technology in education can be easily implemented according to Malaysia Education Blueprint.

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The impact of relief on the distribution of the population in the area of East Sarajevo

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Abstract

Bosnia and Herzegovina, and therefore the City of East Sarajevo have in recent decades been affected by large demographic changes, primarily caused by the war that caused the population emigration population and, together with the process of demographic transition, characterized by a negative natural growth, have led to the depopulation, an aging of population, reduced life quality and low standard of living. The City of East Sarajevo is located in the eastern part of Bosnia and Herzegovina and it consists of six municipalities: East New Sarajevo, Pale, East Ilidža, East Old Town, Sokolac and Trnovo, with about 216 settlements. It covers an area of approximately 1, 425 km ² and in hypsometric sense, these settlements are located between 500 and 1916 m of altitude. The morphometric features of the terrain, the horizontal and vertical articulation of relief, slope and elevation of the terrain, exposure, etc. have a major impact on the distribution of the settlement. The subject of this paper will be geographical and habitation specifics of East Sarajevo, vertical zones and distribution of the population. The aim of this paper is to determine whether and how the relief affects the distribution of the population in the researched area and how population depends on the morphometric parameters. Also, we want to determine how the population of mountainous landscapes of the explored territory has changed and what is its trend of the last few decades, since the process of migration from rural to urban areas and the process of land reclamation is expressed throughout the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina. As a hypothesis, there is the depopulation that is more prominent in areas with higher altitude, and, through the paper we will examine and try to relate the movement of the population and hypsometric distribution of the population. The higher mountainous areas are more affected by intensive aging population, demographic fragmentation and the creation of rural built.

Keywords: Population, morphometric characteristics of the relief, the settlement, the City of East Sarajevo

Introduction

The City of East Sarajevo is situated in the central and eastern part of Bosnia and Herzegovina, that is, the eastern part of Republic of Srpska. The city is comprised of six municipalities: East New Sarajevo, East Ilidža, Pale, Sokolac, Trnovo and East Old Town. The territory of East Sarajevo includes two parts: a greater northern part (1380.61 km2) and a far smaller southern part (45.16 km2).

Republic of Srpska was internationally established after the Civil War (1992-1995) by Dayton Peace Agreement (November 1995) which divided the country Bosnia and Herzegovina into two entities: Republic of Srpska, 49% of BH territory, and The Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 51% of BH territory (Lukić Tanović, Pašalić & Golijanin, 2014).

The present area of the City of East Sarajevo once belonged to the City of Sarajevo, the BH capital, until 1992. The City of Srpsko Sarajevo, later known as East Sarajevo, was formed from the Sarajevo municipalities with predominantly Serbian population.

The previous war was the cause of population regrouping based on their nationality, territory and location. Socially and geographically speaking, the entity border deconstructed the settlement system which was the result of long time period and specific historical, social and economic conditions. The urban network of BH had negligible role in the entity demarcation. Considering complexity of political, territorial and administrative division of BH, it is understandable that it caused the breach in the settlement network. The entity border has divided 304 settlements. The process of settlement disintegration is mostly expressed in the north-eastern parts of BH and in the area of Sarajevo. A special example presents the Old City municipality where the entity border divided 6 of the total 16 pre-war settlements. The level of disintegration within this municipality (total and divided settlement relation) is 37.5% (Musa, 2005).

Methodology

After gathering necessary literature and material, the first phase in writing this paper is the analysis of available material. The analysis includes basic land relief, demographic and settlement characteristics of the City of East Sarajevo. The next step after analytical research is synthesis that will determine to what extent relief characteristics influence the dislocation of the population, that is, to what extent the population depends on morphometric parameters. The methods used for processing the gathered material are mathematical-statistical method, classification, cartographic method, systematization, comparative method, generalization, description, etc.

For the analysis of morphometric indicators and subsequent comparison of relief influence and population dislocation in the territory of East Sarajevo, DEM data SRTM from the year 2000 were used. Based on DEM resolution 90x90, which is satisfactory resolution for the research undertaken in this paper, the following results were achieved: morphometric relief charts, analysis of area data and statistical parameters, used for comparison of relief influence and population dislocation. For all these actions, GIS tools were used (program package ArcGIS 10.1).

All settled areas of the mentioned territory were located and charted with the use of GIS and topographic charts since the data sources on population dislocation on the territory of the City of East Sarajevo were mainly the official statistical institutions of BH, which grouped the number of inhabitants according to the settled municipalities. In order to achieve more precise spatial analysis, subsequent data comparison and greater objectivity (and due to the lack of data about settlement borders), the procedure of determining "working" settlement acreage was conducted. For the above, the graphic method was used by which the circle of 1000 m radius was made around earlier charted points of every settlement. This is how land area dimensions of the particular settlements were derived. Also, it is necessary to mention that acreage of specific settlements passes over the borders of the neighbouring municipalities and even the entity border. This is specifically the case with municipalities of Trnovo and East Old Town. The research results of the relief influence on the population dislocation in the territory of East Sarajevo are represented graphically in charts, diagrams and tables.

Relief particularities of the City of East Sarajevo

The area of East Sarajevo is located 500 m above the sea level and has mountain characteristics. Almost 70% of the town territory has altitude between 800 and 1200 m. The altitude below 600 m takes only 1, 92 % of the territory and the altitude above 1500 m takes 2, 23% of the territory. Among the town municipalities, East Old Town has the biggest average altitude. The lowest point is 510 m and it is situated in the valley of Željeznica River on the border of the settlement Vojkovići. The highest point is on the mountain Jahorina, called the Ogorjelica peak with the altitude of 1916 m.

In morphology of the researched area, the following river valleys are differentiated: Prača, Željeznica, Tilava, Paljanska MIljaca, Mokranjska Miljacka, Bioštica, and Kaljina. Most prominent ravines are Sarajevska and Paljanska ravines and of the vast plateaus, Glasinac plateau is to be distinguished. Among these, massifs over 1000 m situated here are: Jahorina, Trebević, Romanija, Ozren, Devetak.

In relief morphology, the distinguished traits are the ravines of Kaljina and Bioštica in the municipality of Sokolac, Miljacka Ravine in the East Old Town municipality, and Paljanska Miljacka Ravine in the municipality of Pale. In the southernmost areas of the city, Trnovo municipality, the most domineering point is Treskavica Massif with the peak Lupoč (1776 m). North to Trnovo, there is the morphological unit Trebević- Ravna Planina- Jahorina. On the northern parts of Jahorina, the located faults separate karstified areas of Ravna Planina and Trebević from Jahorina. Romanija Mountain dominates the area northeast to Pale and west to Sokolac with the peaks Velika stijena (1617 m), Djeva (1573 m) and others (Institute of Planning Republc of Srpska, 2008). The west part of Romanija is greatly kartisified plateau with many sinkholes and other karstified forms. The west part of this mountain is predisposed to faults, so that crumbled rocks is accumulated below vertical cliffs. Flat areas, which were formed by deposition of the quaternary deposits on limestone or Miocene sediments, are: Glasinačko and Luburić polje, Kovanj, Batovo, Pale and so on. Among the genetic relief forms there are those of fluvial-denudation, fluvial- karst, karst and fluvial-accumulative land forms (Golijanin, 2012).

Demographic and settlement particularities of the City of East Sarajevo

After 22 years, in October 2013, the census took place in Bosnia and Herzegovina, so that for now the preliminary census data are available for demographic research purposes.Data regarding 1971, 1981 and 1991 for the present territory of East Sarajevo, were received from the official institutions involved in population statistics (Croatian Bureau of statistics Republic of Croatia, 1995). Based on these, the data summarization and the redistribution among municipalities that are presently past of East Sarajevo were conducted.

According to 1991 census, the present territory of East Sarajevo was populated by 44, 430 inhabitants1. According to the same census, the City of Sarajevo had population of 527, 049 inhabitants, so that only 8, 43 % of the inhabitants of Sarajevo belonged to the present territory of East Sarajevo, excluding Sokolac municipality.

Many crucial social and economic changes occurred during the war (1992-1995), affecting the demographic changes and their precise assessment. Especially the war migrations caused such demographic situation in the territory of East Sarajevo. In 1996, 48, 3 % of the city population was categorized as refugees or displaced persons, and in 2001 the number was 32, 9%. War migrations influenced gross reproduction rate and decline in natural increase rate, as well as disruption in gender, age, ethnic, education and economic structure of the city population.

However, migration balance of internal migration in East Sarajevo in the last five years has been positive: the population inflow is greater than population outflow. In 2013, according to the preliminary census results (Institute of Statistics Republic of Srpska, 2013), the City of East Sarajevo has the population of 64, 966, that is 20, 536 persons more than in the initial period of the town building, meaning that in the last 20 years the number of persons in the territory of East Sarajevo increased for 46, 3%.

Since 1996, one of the biggest demographic problems of the city is the negative natural increase. The problem of low birth rate has not been adequately tackled neither by local nor the state authorities, in the sense that no adequate measures were undertaken as way of solving this problem (Lukić, 2011).

Dislocation of both the population and the settlements in the territory of the city was influenced by morphological land characteristics, climate, microclimate, hydrological characteristics and so on. The settlements are located in hypsometric zone ranging from 510 m to 1, 500 m. The highest settlements are on the hillsides of Treskavica and Jahorina mountains, and the lowest are located in Sarajevo valley.

From the total of 216 inhabited places, only 5 are urban/city settlements and also municipality centres in which the highest number of population is situated. The city settlements note increase in the number of inhabitants, mostly because of the mechanical afflux of population and country-city migrations.

In rural areas there is demographic depletion and settlement decrement, so that consequently the following processes appear: depopulation, deruralization, disaggregation, country-city migrations, emergence of aging households, but also demographic withering of vast number of country settlements (Ivković & Todorić, 2013).

By analyzing the number of population in the populated places, we can conclude that the settlements ranging from 10-49 inhabitants dominate in the territory of the City of East Sarajevo, or expressed in percentage- 32, 5 %. The disturbing fact is that 25% of populated places has less than 10 inhabitants, while this percentage in 1991 was 6%, in 1981 4, 2 % and in 1971 only 1, 4%. Apart from extremely small number of inhabitants, these settlements have also very unfavourable age structure and very difficult conditions for possible demographic revitalization. Unless in the subsequent period migration of younger population and investment in the development of country economy happens, the preconditions are that these settlements will completely wither. Contrary to this and as the confirmation of the hypothesis that demographic growth is apparent in the city areas, two settlements over 10, 000 inhabitants could be distinguished in 2013. In 5 city settlements there are 42, 600 inhabitants, that is 65, 6 % of the total population, while in the remaining 211 rural areas there are 22, 366 inhabitants, that is 34, 4%.

The analysis of the relief influence on population dislocation

The fact that the relief forms the landscape and that all social activities are here performed contributes to it as an important role in distribution of economic activities and population as well. In the researched areas four hypsometric zones are evident:

Southeast part of Sarajevo Polje, altitude 510 m and more,

Hill relief with plains and plateaus, 800- 1000m

Middle mountain relief, 1000-1500 m

High mountain relief with peaks: Jahorina (1916m), Treskavica (1776m), Romanija (1652m), Trebević (1629m), Ozren (1453m), Devetka (1424m).

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[1] Considering the mentioned problem of bordering between settlements, the number of population in East Sarajevo territory for 1991,1981 and 1971 is imprecise, aproximatelly determined population number.

Based on the census data and the analysis of the influence of the relief and population number according to the last census results, it is noted that population dislocation and population itself correspond to stated hypsometric classes. Areas belonging to Sarajevsko Polje, mostly parts of the municipalities of East Ilidža and East New Sarajevo, as lower altitudes distinguish as more favourable for settlement and urbanization. The population number on the lowest hypsometric zone in the researched area is 27, 338 inhabitants or 42%. However, in the second hypsometric zone, the population conditions are also favourable since the population number is the greatest (50, 9% or 33, 155 inhabitants), that is more than half of the population in the researched area live precisely in this zone.

The settlements in Pale and Trnovo basins, as well as the settlement on Sokolac plateau, enter this hypsometric zone with heights 800-900 m which are dominantly the most populated in the territory of East Sarajevo. In the zone dominated by middle mountain relief, the population number disturbingly decreases and these areas have lower population density (4, 544 or 7% of the inhabitants live in places located between 1000-1500 m), while the highest areas of the city territory are almost unpopulated. In the highest hypsometric zone, there are two settlements (Jahorina and Kozja Luka) with potentials for development of tourism and forestry. The relation between hypsometric relief characteristics and population distribution, according to different census periods, are shown in Table 1. and Chart 1.

Data in Chart 1. clearly show the differences between hypsometric relief characteristics and population distribution, according to different census periods. Generally, population growth is evident over the time, especially in the first two hypsometric zones. Also, the decrease or stagnation in population number is evident in the higher areas of the researched territory.

By analyzing and comparing the influence of sloping relief on population distribution on analyzed area, it is concluded that the highest number of inhabitants (42 278, 65%) is situated on mildly sloping terrain with slopes ranging between 2–5º. However, more than half of settlements are located on the sloping terrain with slopes ranging from 5–12º. Mainly this is the case with rural settlements with the population decrease trend which is clearly presented in Table 2. and Chart 2. 12, 349 inhabitants were located in the sloping terrain, which is 19% of the total population number in the territory of the city. In the slightly sloping terrain with categories of slopes ranging from 12- 32º, there are 6, 931 inhabitants (10, 6%). The number of settlements registered in these slope categories is also considerably high, but the number of inhabitants in these areas decreased by almost half in the last 40 years. This is mostly the case with rural areas situated in higher altitudes, which additionally aggravate the lives of its inhabitants. For this reason, the migration trend and depopulation is quite understandable. The lowest population number is on the plateaus with slopes below 2º which can be explained by the fact that because of the hill and mountain terrain character of the land relief itself, these terrains are generally represented to the smallest degree in the researched area.

The influence of the relief exposition on the distribution of population is mostly reflected in favourable circumstances for living. In this view, more favourable are southern and western expositions than northern and eastern ones. However, as for the relation between exposition and population distribution in the territory of East Sarajevo, the dominant trait is population on the west-oriented relief slopes (approximately 28%) and then on the north-oriented slopes. This is explained by the configuration of the terrain itself, which because of its domineeringly mountain character with higher mountain areas in east and south, builds greater number of milder slopes on south-western, western and northern slopes which are also of lower altitudes. All of these parameters influenced greater population concentration on the relief to the west, southwest and north exposed sides, while the smallest percent of the population live on the northwest, northeast and south east slopes. Based on the data in Table 3. and Chart 3., the trends of population increase are evident, mostly to the west and southwest-oriented slopes.

Conclusion

The analysis of the relief influence on the population distribution in the territory of the City of East Sarajevo showed itself as very interesting topic for research. While doing the paper, certain conclusions were made and also confirmations of previously set hypothesis on the influence that relief has on the distribution of population.

It was affirmed that population of certain areas and its distribution greatly correspond to the outlined hypsometric levels, that is, that population distribution depends on altitude and that the areas of the City of East Sarajevo above the altitude of 1000 m are slightly populated. It has been noted that the most populated areas are those ranging between 800 and 1000 m altitudes, and then the areas ranging from 500-800 m. This is the reason why 92, 9% of the population is located in the zone to 1000 m altitude, while there is only 7, 1% population in the areas over 1000 m. The assumption that rural areas located on higher altitudes were more populated in earlier years (in comparison to 2013) has also been confirmed.

Depopulation in rural areas is confirmed by the fact that number of settlements with less than 10 people increased since 1991 for 19%, and since 1971, even 23, 6%.

The research has showed that the greatest population is to the west-oriented slopes, while in relation to the sloping terrain, the biggest percentage of population (65%) is located in the slopes ranging from 2˚ to 5˚, and then the slopes ranging from 5˚ to 12˚ (19%).

The hill and mountain relief, that dominates the researched area, distinguishes itself as the limiting population factor. These limitations are mostly reflected in the poor infrastructure connection, economy underdevelopment, and consequently prominent depopulation and population outflow. In the territory of East Sarajevo, the relief characteristics make it possible for the population to practice agriculture only partly, while the conditions for cattle farming are more favourable. The greatest number of population is located in the river valleys and basins situated between mountain massifs, where better life conditions are present as well as development of different economic activities. One of the advantages of mostly mountain relief in the territory of East Sarajevo is the possibility of mountain tourism development, especially winter mountain tourism, which is confirmed by the example of Jahorina and Trebevic mountains.

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Tables

Table 1. Population distribution according to hypsometric relief characteristics

Elevation	Number of settlements	Population				2013.god.
		1971	1981	1991	2013	
500-600	7	1 844	2 120	2 557	23 716	
600-700	5	2 899	3 054	3 169	2 717	42
700-800	12	1 979	1 541	1 578	905	
800-900	49	15 827	17 461	21 735	26 630	50, 9
900-1000	72	11 456	10 114	8 016	6 525	
1000-1100	34	5 908	4 792	4 171	3 094	
1100-1200	17	3 067	2 243	2 348	774	
1200-1300	12	1 010	705	476	402	7
1300-1400	6	649	481	367	284	
1400-1500	0	0	0	0	0	
1500-1600	2	60	21	13	47	0, 1
> 1600	0	0	0	0	0	

Table 2. Population distribution according to the relief descent

Inclination (º)	Number of settlements	Population				2013. in %
		1971	1981	1991	2013	
< 2	1	0	0	0	3 536	5, 4
2-5	19	9 837	12 118	16 647	42 278	65
5-12	120	21 902	19 555	18 028	12 349	19
12-32	76	12 960	10 859	9 755	6 931	10, 6
> 32	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 3. Population distribution according to relief exposition characteristics

Slope aspect (º)	Number of settlements	Population				2013. in %
		1971	1981	1991	2013	
Horiz. površine	0	0	0	0	0	0
N	31	9 412	9 917	11 572	17 339	26, 6
NE	32	4 901	3 898	3 369	1 894	2, 9
E	21	6 503	7 892	10 003	9 612	14, 7
SE	16	2 336	1 756	1 573	1 210	1, 9
S	30	5 296	4 714	3 577	2 533	3, 9
SW	47	7 802	6 088	5 989	13 985	21, 5
W	28	7 151	7 246	7 460	18 003	27, 7
NW	11	1 298	1 021	887	518	0, 8

Figures

Figures 1. a) Geographical position of East Sarajevo within BH; (b) The location of municipalities and settlements in the East Sarajevo territory (Sourse: a www.camo.ch); b) www.esri.com)
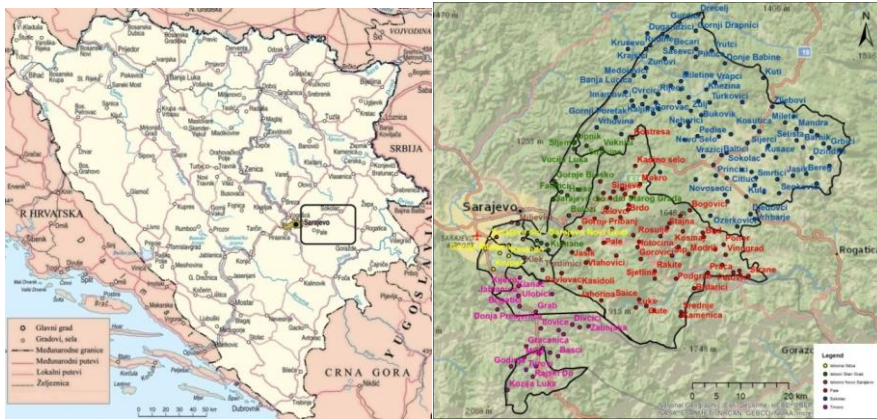
Figure 2. Morphometric land relief charts of the researched area with the settlements: (a) hypsometric chart of the

City of East Sarajevo; (b) chart of relief descent of the City of East Sarajevo; (c) chart of relief exposition of the City of East Sarajevo
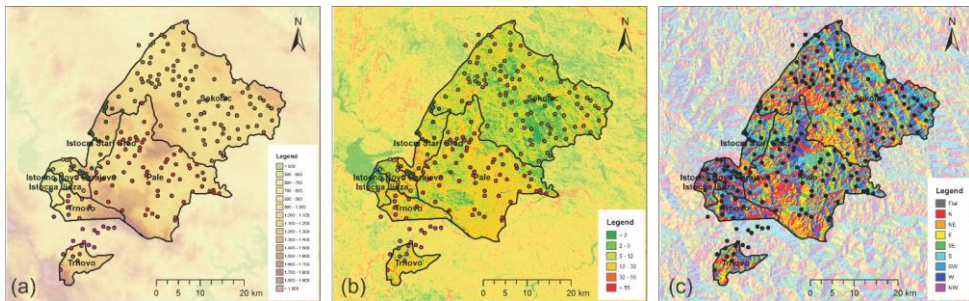
Chart 1. Relation between hypsometric relief characteristics and population in the territory of East Sarajevo
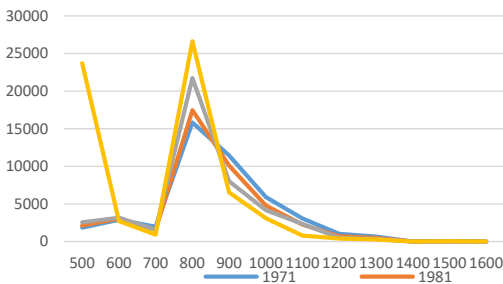
Chart 2. The relation between relief descent characteristics and population in the territory of East Sarajevo
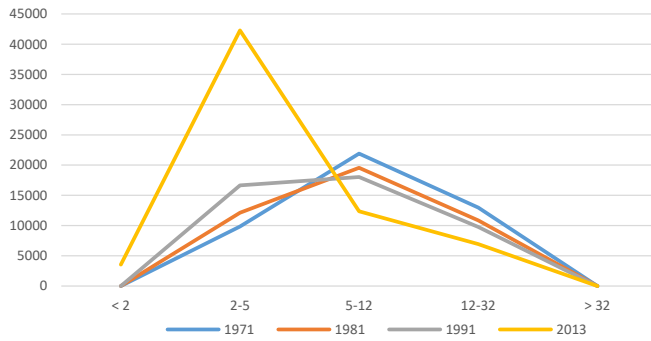
Chart 3. The relation between relief exposition characteristics and population in the territory of East Sarajevo
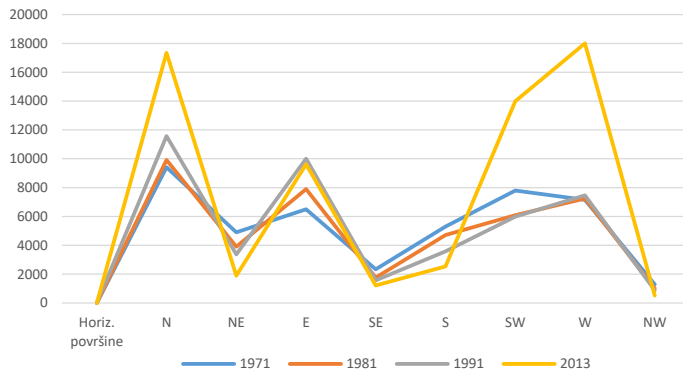
Multiple Citizenship at Stake: a Critical Assessment of the Croatian Citizenship Policy Towards National Minorities

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Abstract

The question of (multiple) citizenship of national minorities has been omnipresent in the intellectual and public discourse of the Republic of Croatia since the very beginnings of its independence in the course of early 90s of the 20th century. The transition period of the post-socialism era marked the effort of political elites to establish a balance among the democratic and nationalist concepts of the Croatian statehood, whereat the repercussions of this clash reflected on both the definition of citizenship and the fate of national minorities. With its ethnocentric approach, the Croatian citizenship regime comes out of standard frameworks which define citizenship as a legal bond between the state and an individual, also adding a cultural and political dimension to the nexus in which citizenship frequently becomes an instrument of self-identification with ethnic Croats. The paper aims to shed light on the positioning of national minorities in such social constellations, accentuating the issue of their access to (multiple) citizenship and challenges they face thereof, as well as the inconsistent and selective nature of the Croatian citizenship policy towards different parts of its multi-ethnic corpus. This is primarily done through a concise analysis and interpretation of the Law on Croatian Citizenship – its evolution, core provisions and socio-political circumstances surrounding it. In that vein, the fundamental method used for scientific inquiry is legal dogmatic. The focus of the interest refers to the question to what extent the norms on multiple citizenship accommodate the needs of national minorities, help them preserve their peculiar identities and encourage their wider integration into the Croatian post-transitional society.

Key words: multiple citizenship, national minorities, ethnic identity, ethnocentrism, the Republic of Croatia

1. Introductory Remarks

The concept of citizenship has been under the spotlight of the legal-political discourse in the contemporary Croatian history since the very beginnings of the Croatian independence. The emphasis needs to be put on the notion 'contemporary' since the origins of the Croatian statehood reach back to the 9th century and during various historical epochs, Croatia has gone through different forms of statehood and political statuses (Macan, 1992; Stančić, 2002). The period preceding the acquisition of recent independence, which is of utmost relevance for our analysis, relates to the 46-year existence of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. In this union, Croatia was one of the six entities which were, despite sharing the same destiny within the same federation, characterized by diverse socio-political circumstances, ethnicities and national identities. The historical heritage of the former state and the consequences of its dissolution have set grounds for the perception of the Croatian approach to the issues of citizenship, including the one concerning multiple citizenship, observed within the context of national minorities. Such linking of citizenship with the rights and status of national minorities in multi-ethnic societies fairly often moves to the forefront of current legal and political theory (Kymlicka & Norman, 2000).

The following chapters examine the most peculiar aspects of the Croatian (multiple) citizenship policy with regard to national minorities, seen through the lens of the complex repercussions of the succession of the former Yugoslavia and the closely intertwined quest for national identity. The focus is set on the disputable difference in treatment between ethnic Croats and 'others' when acquiring (multiple) citizenship, legalised by several provisions of the Law on Croatian Citizenship. The respective controversial and widely contested division along ethnic lines appears as the starting point for the central study of the access of national minorities to Croatian citizenship and consequently, to multiple citizenship. Both in theory and practice, the latter issue represents the secondary problem which lies in the shadows of the primary one related to the acquisition of Croatian citizenship in general and the closely interwoven phenomenon of ethnocentrism. Starting from a legal analysis of the subject matter, the paper seeks to discuss the wider social arena burden with the past experiences of the coexistence in the multi-ethnic federation, prejudices towards ethnic differences and the wish of the Croatian state to preserve the ethnocentric model of the social order. *Summa summarum*, the purpose of the paper is to clarify the peculiarities of the Croatian citizenship regime in which not all the national minorities share the same destiny with respect to the access to (multiple) citizenship and its possible benefits.

2. Yugoslav Legal Heritage as a Basis for the Croatian Concept of Citizenship

Safeguarding a nation's identity and the fight for independence are deemed as the basic elements of the Croatian historical development (Matković, 1998: 16). What seems to be a curiosity is that Croatia came to be a part of a common state of the South Slavs due to the assumption that these are the nations that share related ethnicities, languages and cultures, or in other words, all those integral elements of identity which served as an instrument of denial of their equality or even similarity during and after the fall of the former Yugoslavia. Along with the idea of 'Yugoslavism' evolved the idea of 'Croatism'. The *ratio* of the national idea encompassed gathering of all ethnic Croats into one state which, due to a superior ruler – the Habsburg Monarchy, could be achieved only by unification of affiliated neighbouring nations who strived to a similar goal (Goldstein, 2003: 201). However, the creation of one state did not imply generation of one nation. The Yugoslav supra-ethnic nation constituted only an artificial notion since the nations of the Yugoslav peoples had existed long before the establishment of a common state (Vrcan, 2006: 62-63; Skledar, 1998: 113-119; Ćimić, 1998: 121-133).

While trying to recognize national individualities within the federal state, Yugoslavia was constituted as a federation of equal peoples (hr. *narodi*) and nationalities (hr. *narodnosti*). The term of 'peoples' referred to the constitutive nations whose kin-states represented their constituent entities (Bosniaks, Croats, Macedonians, Montenegrins, Serbs and Slovenians) whereas the term of 'nations' entailed national minorities whose national states lay beyond the territory of the former Yugoslavia (e.g. Czechs, Hungarians, Germans, Italians etc.). The breakup of the federation led to the presence of, conditionally speaking, two kinds of national minorities in Croatia – the so-called 'old minorities', i.e. ethnic groups who enjoyed the same minority status prior to the emergence of the independent Croatian state and the 'new minorities', i.e. former constituent peoples in the SFRY. In consequence, this shift brought to substantive changes in the citizenship and civil status of the former constituent peoples which have now become new Croatian minorities. In such circumstances, Croatia had to search for modalities of its citizenship policy which could mitigate or neutralise the negative consequences of political deconstruction. The longing for democracy at the moment of the disintegration of the former federation coincided with the rebirth of extreme nationalism (Buchanan, 2012: 218) which has remained to be a potent social force to this day with significant impacts on the Croatian citizenship policy as one of the tools for additional reinforcement of the positions assumed at the moment of the establishment of new states.

At the present time, the Croatian society can be depicted as bipolar in terms of national identity and citizenship. On one hand, it possesses distinctive national and ethnocentric properties while on the other hand, it reflects a considerable transnational character. The transnational social area is designated by the existence of close cross-border ties and policies of national minorities and their kin-states. Generally speaking, in order to preserve the ethnic ties and particularities of those ethnic collectivities, democratic states are prone to recognise the legitimacy of 'dual loyalty' which gains its legal acknowledgement in the institute of dual/multiple citizenship. As it is shown in the below chapters, Croatia has expressed certain inconsistence and selectiveness regarding this issue. *In concreto*, it has recognized democratic legitimacy of dual loyalty to a large part of the Croatian ethnic corpus living abroad and hence enabled them to fully participate in the political life of the state (esp. to Croats in Bosnia and Herzegovina) whereas this right has been simultaneously denied or made complicated to members of national minorities who have been present on the Croatian territory for centuries (esp. to Serbs). The status of multiple citizenship is inherent to the Croatian legal tradition. Its predecessor state established the 'nested structure of dual citizenship' (Bauböck, 2000: 368) in which every citizen simultaneously possessed *de iure* at least two citizenships (Medvedović, 1998): the federal, Yugoslav one, universal for all, and a republic, sub-state one derived from the residence status (Citizenship Act of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, 1976; Citizenship Act of the Socialist Republic of Croatia, 1977). However, *de facto* republic citizenship was only a formality implying no legal effects within the international community since the republics constituting the federation were no subjects of international law (Komanovics & Mazur Kumrić, 2011: 358-359). However, this citizenship gained utmost importance at the time of the dissolution of the SFRY when most people were expected to opt for their republic citizenship as a citizenship of their newly emerged states. Moreover, those with previous citizenship of the Socialist Republic of Croatia acquired Croatian citizenship *ex lege* while all the others became aliens no matter how long they resided on the Croatian territory (Ragazzi, Štiks & Koska, 2013: 6). The latter, as well as those who inclined to the citizenship of some other republic, could acquire it through the naturalisation procedure, in accordance with the respective citizenship laws. However, in a significant number of cases, disparities in the citizenship regimes of successor states made the acquisition of desired citizenships convoluted. It is beyond any doubt that the example of the succession of the former Yugoslavia indicates a plethora of problems and obstacles which could be faced in the process of fragmentation of the citizenship regime of the former state as a consequence of different approaches to acquisition and loss of citizenship in newly established states (Shaw & Štiks, 2012: 11-12, 22-23). This particularly affected internal Yugoslav migrants who, at the time of the dissolution, resided in the republic whose citizenship they did not possess and had an ethnic background other than the one of the entity's majority population. Furthermore, the additional

difficulty was obligatory renouncement of the previous citizenship, which was set as a precondition for acquiring Croatian citizenship, because many overnight aliens in the war-torn region had no access to administrative services necessary for renouncement or issue of a proof of the renouncement. During the Serbian occupation of the Croatian territory, the citizenship status of the Serb minority remained unresolved in occupied areas and it became particularly sensitive and difficult once they fled to neighbouring Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina due to the Croatian military takeover. They were *de facto* Croatian citizens while they resided in the occupied areas, but without 'proving' documents (the so-called *domovnica*). Once they resettled, they lost a genuine link with Croatia, which led to further aggravation of their chances to acquire Croatian citizenship as Serb refugees/members of the Serbian national minority. Moreover, some of them did not want to embrace the citizenship to which they were entitled (Croatian) and there was no ground for acquisition of the desired one (Serbian). Over the time, they have gradually gained an easier access to Croatian citizenship due to a few normative changes resulting from the Croatian accession to the EU and the correlated harmonisation of national laws with European ones. One of them, the introduction of the new Aliens Act (Aliens Act, 2011) enabled those who had a permanent residence in Croatia on 8 October 1991 and have returned to Croatia, to obtain a permanent residence status necessary for the residence requirement in the procedure of acquiring Croatian citizenship.

3.   Croatian Multiple Citizenship Policy and Its Implications on National Minorities

Broadly speaking, the Croatian citizenship policy has evolved over two notably distinct periods of time: the nationalistic and ethnically exclusive one from 1991 to 1999 and the more democratic and ethnically inclusive one from 2000 onwards. In the latter period, the predominantly right-wing, overly nationalist political option has been overthrown by considerably liberal and tolerant pro-European parties that have demonstrated a much higher level of inclusiveness towards ethnic minorities and ethnic non-Croats in general, although the citizenship legislation had remained intact until 2011. The norms did not formally change, but their perception and interpretation unquestionably did. This was further facilitated by the enactment of good-quality pro-minority internal legislation, above all, the 2000 Law on Education in Languages and Letters of National Minorities and on the Use of Language and Script of National Minorities, the 2002 Constitutional Act on the Rights of National Minorities and the 2008 Anti-Discrimination Act.

The conditions for acquisition and termination of Croatian citizenship are regulated by the Law on Croatian Citizenship (Law on Croatian Citizenship, 1991, 2011) which has laid firm legal foundations for a stable citizenship regime (Koska, 2012: 195, 207). The Law was adopted during the first wave of codification, on 8 October 1991, i.e. on the day of the succession of the Republic of Croatia, which confirms the utmost relevance of the citizenship issue during succession of states. In the Croatian legal and institutional space, citizenship represents a multilayered and multidimensional notion which transcends a sole legal bond between an individual and the state and steps into the area of national sentiment and pride.

The Law on Croatian Citizenship does not explicitly recognize multiple citizenship and this notion is defined rather ambiguously. Nevertheless, Croatia tolerates it and an access thereto is stipulated by Article 2, Articles 8, 8a, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15 and 16 (on naturalisation) and Article 21 (on renunciation) of the said Law. Article 2 promotes the principle of exclusivity of Croatian citizenship, emphasising that 'a citizen of the Republic of Croatia who also has foreign citizenship is considered exclusively as a Croatian citizen by the governmental authorities of the Republic of Croatia'. In contradiction to that stipulation, there is a provision of Article 8 § 1(2) enabling a foreigner to obtain Croatian citizenship on the grounds of regular naturalisation, under the condition that he/she has been dismissed from his/her foreign citizenship or that he/she has submitted a proof that he/she will acquire the dismissal if granted Croatian citizenship.

The Law on Croatian Citizenship goes silent on multiple citizenship of national minorities. However, several provisions do have a direct or an indirect effect on their right to acquire multiple citizenship. To assess them, the first step that needs to be taken is to make a distinction between national minorities as potential multiple nationals in Croatia. Namely, these ethnic groups can be viewed from two angles: the external and internal one, i.e. as members of the Croatian national corpus abroad, kin-minorities, on the one hand, and as national minorities on its own territory, on the other hand.

The members of the first group belong to the privileged category of ethnic Croats who are granted a disproportionately easier access to Croatian citizenship in comparison with ethnic non-Croats. The *ratio* behind this preferential treatment is the intention of the political elites to homogenise the Croatian nation to the greatest possible extent. It is no surprise that in such advantageous conditions, a significant portion of Croatian national minorities abroad has opted for multiple citizenship (provided that the country of their residence allows this) and thus additionally preserved genuine links with their kin-state and most elements of their Croatian identity.

As far as the national minorities residing within the national borders are concerned, there are 22 registered ethnic groups, all of them enumerated in the preamble to the Croatian Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of Croatia, 1991, 2010). They are, however, not equally treated à propos the issue of acquisition of (multiple) citizenship. Generally speaking, in order to have the status of a member of a national minority in Croatia, a person needs to be a Croatian citizen (Constitutional

Act on the Rights of National Minorities, 2002, Art. 5). Most of these groups have no obstacles to acquire citizenship of another country if its citizenship laws permit multiple citizenship. In that sense, they are treated on the same footing as Croatian citizens of the Croatian ethnicity. It is common and acceptable that they wish to preserve close links with their kin-states through acquiring their citizenships and that act is not contested as a double loyalty phenomenon. Just on the contrary, in such cases, multiple citizenship is regarded as a peculiar legal supplement which enhances standard minority rights protection.

However, due to complex conflicts and post-conflict circumstances, some members of the Serbian and Bosniak minority were put at a disadvantage with members of other national minorities. As noted earlier, they have been facing peculiar obstacles while (re)acquiring Croatian citizenship. Theoretically, there are two provisions of the Law on Croatian Citizenship that might be of use for members of vulnerable Croatian minorities facing problems with the (re)acquisition of Croatian citizenship. Firstly, those who were minors at the time they left Croatia in the course of war and lost Croatian citizenship in accordance with Article 20 (dismissal) and 22 (renouncement) can benefit from Article 23 which stipulates that he/she can acquire Croatian citizenship again if he/she has resided in Croatia for at least twelve consecutive months and if he/she provides a written statement saying that he/she considers him-/herself a Croatian citizen. Secondly, although this could be applicable to probably very few cases, there is another legal ground for these persons to obtain Croatian citizenship (by facilitated naturalisation) – Article 15 relating to a Croatian citizen who has requested and received dismissal from Croatian citizenship in order to acquire foreign citizenship, which was imposed on him/her as a requirement to be able to perform a profession or activity by the foreign state wherein he/she has a domicile. Namely, such a person shall be deemed eligible to acquire Croatian citizenship again if he/she lives in Croatia and has been granted residence despite not meeting all the requirements for regular naturalisation.

To understand the Croatian stance toward multiple citizenship and its ethnocentric policy, a closer look needs to be taken at the naturalisation specificities. The naturalisation procedure is not the same for everyone. The Law makes a clear distinction between regular and facilitated naturalisation. The latter category subsumes aliens who do not need to present a proof of renunciation and refers to those married to a Croatian citizen (Article 10), emigrants (Article 11), those whose citizenship is of interest to Croatia (Article 12), those who were previously Croatian citizens and received dismissal from Croatian citizenship in order to acquire foreign citizenship for professional reasons (Article 15) and *ethnic Croats* (often members of the Croatian national minority) with no domicile in Croatia (Article 16). However, even this privileged group benefiting from facilitated naturalisation can be divided into subcategories, depending on how many requirements they need to meet to become naturalised citizens.

Article 16 occurs to be one of the most controversial pieces of the Croatian citizenship legislation since it affixes an ethnocentric seal to Croatian citizenship and is very restrictive towards non-ethnic Croats, especially to members of national minorities. The referring provision stipulates that Croatian citizenship may be obtained by a 'member of the Croatian nation' who does not reside in the Republic of Croatia if they meet only one, rather vaguely shaped requirement stated in Article 8 § 1 – that their conduct suggests that they honour the legal order and customs of the Republic of Croatia. By the time, the term of 'member of the Croatian nation' has become disputable as well since the criteria according to which someone can be characterized as such have lost their clarity. The latest amendment of the Law on Croatian Citizenship has been envisaged to put an end to these doubts, so today the scope of the term of 'member of the Croatian nation' involves all those who have earlier declared themselves as such in legal transactions, stated this affiliation in particular public documents, protected the rights and promoted the interests of the Croatian people as well as actively participated in Croatian cultural, scientific and sports associations abroad.

As demonstrated in the above lines, the exclusivity of multiple citizenship has been maintained mostly for the sake of a particular contingency of ethnic Croats living abroad. Such preferential treatment has led to a paradox that many non-ethnic Croats are expected to express exclusive loyalty to the Croatian state by renouncing their previous citizenship during the regular naturalisation procedure, while at the same time, ethnic Croats are free to express multiple loyalties (Koska, 2011: 18). As ethnic Croats are always exempted from renunciation of their current citizenship stipulated by the rules on regular naturalisation, such practice has often been denoted as discriminatory towards ethnic non-Croats. The European Commission against Racism and Intolerance identified members of Roma, Serbian and Bosniak minorities as the most vulnerable sections of the Croatian population in that regard (ECRI Report on Croatia, 2012: 10). The same discriminatory attitude toward these three ethnic groups was also noticed in the opinions of the Ministry of Interior who, in line with Article 26 of the Law on Croatian Citizenship, retains a wide margin of discretion while deciding on who should be granted Croatian citizenship (Sajfert, 2013). This particularly affects ethnic Serbs. However, their fate with regard to dual citizenship could have been different. Namely, the idea that the Serbian national minority should be granted dual citizenship is as old as the independent Croatian state. It originates from the European Community's proposal, given within the framework of the International Conference on the Former Yugoslavia held in October 1991, which called for the right to dual citizenship for

members of national or ethnic groups who reside in the area with a special status where they constitute the majority population. This right, however, has never been exercised in such manner.

The rules on facilitated naturalisation are not the only provisions of the Law on Croatian Citizenship which make a discriminatory distinction between ethnic Croats and ethnic non-Croats. Namely, Article 30 has induced severe polemics due to its negative repercussions to members of (some) national minorities. It provides that a person is considered a Croatian citizen if he/she has acquired this status pursuant to regulations which had been effective until the day when the Law came into force. However, if a person belongs to the Croatian people but he/she did not have Croatian citizenship on the day when the Law came into force, he/she would be considered to be a Croatian citizen if on that day he/she had a registered domicile in Croatia and provided a written statement saying that he/she considered him-/herself a Croatian citizen.

For better understanding of the generally ambiguous Croatian stance towards its kin-minorities, it is necessary to emphasise that Croatia frequently uses a colloquial expression 'Croatian diaspora' for all the ethnic Croats living abroad, thus making no distinction between migrants and national minorities who are basically two social groups that are subject to a different corpus of legal rules in national and international law (Božić, 1998). This terminological confusion was partly eliminated after the adoption of the Act on the Relations between the Republic of Croatia and Croats Living Abroad (Act on the Relations between the Republic of Croatia and Croats Living Abroad, 2011). This Act differentiates between three groups of Croats living outside their kin-state: members of the sovereign and constituent Croatian nation in Bosnia and Herzegovina, members of the Croatian minority living in European countries and Croatian emigrants living overseas and in European countries and their ancestors (diaspora). It encompasses Croatian people with Croatian citizenship, those having the status of a Croat but not possessing Croatian citizenship and those lacking both elements. They are all considered an equal part of one and inseparable Croatian nation. This status provides them with a number of privileges, for instance they can apply for an accelerated procedure when trying to obtain certain permits such as a temporary residence, work and business permit, they can have a privileged access to particular services and similar, all according to special laws.

The recent amendments to the Law on Croatian Citizenship have not significantly altered the naturalisation procedure. The titulars of regular and facilitated naturalisation have remained the same. Ethnic Croats have retained their preferential status while the conditions for regular naturalisation of ethnic non-Croat foreigners residing in Croatia have tightened. In general terms, the Croatian citizenship policy has remained polarized. On the one hand, it strives to democratise and become more sensitive to ethnic non-Croats through inclusive minority rights legislation, but on the other hand, it keeps preserving its ethno-centric character which favours transnational communities of ethnic Croats (Ragazzi, Štiks & Koska, 2013: 1-2, 8-9). From the viewpoint of the prism of ethnic identity and multiple citizenship policies, there are two fundamental principles deriving from the Law on Croatian Citizenship: the principle of the legal continuum of republic citizenship and the principle that every member of the Croatian nation (ethnic Croats) shall be regarded as a Croatian citizen (Omejec, 1998).

One of the decisive factors that needs to be taken into account while evaluating the multiple citizenship policy toward national minorities in Croatia is the fact that ethnic sentiments are not equally distributed among all the national minorities, so their identities may appear in a latent or manifest form (Banovac, 1998: 250-251). As a result, not all the minorities are equally interested in acquisition of multiple citizenship. Expectedly, the trend is most prominent among the former constitutive peoples of the Yugoslav federation. The exact figures on the prevalence of dual citizenship among members of national minorities are, however, unknown. The official data on numbers of dual citizens also differ, depending on the source. For example, the benefits of dual citizenship are most widely used by the Croatian kin-minority in Bosnia and Herzegovina, what is evident from the data disclosed by the Croatian Ministry of Interior according to which as many as 678 918 applicants possessing Bosnian citizenship were admitted to Croatian citizenship in the period between 1991 and 2010 (Koska, 2013: 220). There is a great disparity between these records and the ones collected by the Croatian Bureau of Statistics in the course of 2011 population census which set the total number of dual citizens in Croatia to only 84 885 persons (Stanovništvo s hrvatskim i drugim državljanstvom prema narodnosti, 2011). This vast difference in numbers can be attributed to the reluctance of people to expose their citizenship data in population censuses, the point at issue that could be avoided by introducing a register-based census.

Even though the Croatian accession to the European Union has had positive effects on making the Croatian citizenship policy softer and more inclusive, it is unlikely to expect a rapid transformation of the present ethnocentric model into a civic one in the near future. This raises curiosities because the inclusive policy towards ethnic Croats living abroad has resulted in a few hundred thousand new EU citizens living outside the EU borders since the Croatian accession in July 2013 (Koska, 2011: 32). To date, the accession has not accelerated the usually correlated trends of the declining importance of the anachronic state boundaries and the increasing importance of post-national or European citizenship (Rosenfeld, 2010: 235-242; Howard, 2009: 196-199). Neither did the European Union significantly object to the ethnocentric citizenship standards. It is to assume that one of the main reasons for such a resignation is the usual inclination of states (esp. those prone to ethnocentric laws or stricter citizenship regimes in general) to perceive the notion of citizenship primarily as a matter which

to the greatest possible extent falls within the competence of each individual state. Spiro (2011) vividly described this prevalent view with his statement that 'nationality law is the last bastion in the citadel of sovereignty' (p. 746). This autonomy, however, is not absolute and is encompassed by the limitations set by a growing body of international law – international treaties, international custom and general principles of law (Vonk, 2010: 3; Faist, Gerdes & Rieple, 2004: 914). So far, Croatia has expressed reluctance towards ratification of core international treaties regulating matters of citizenship (International Legal Norms – Croatia, 2014); in fact, it is a party to only two of them: the 1957 Convention on the Nationality of Married Women and the 1999 Convention n°28 on the Issue of a Certificate of Nationality. Moreover, it has only signed, but not ratified the 1997 European Convention on Nationality. The respective unwillingness is considered as a direct consequence of the Croatia's ethnocentric policy and the fear that the preferential treatment system established thereof should be modified or abandoned.

4.   Bilateral Agreements on Multiple Citizenship with Neighbouring Countries

The longstanding aspiration of the Croatian authorities to homogenise the Croatian nation by granting a whole set of privileges to members of kin-minorities and other ethnic Croats abroad, has helped facilitate the improvement of the status and position of some (internal) national minorities in Croatia as well. This has been successfully achieved through conclusion of bilateral agreements on dual citizenship. By now, Croatia has signed and ratified only one respective agreement with Bosnia and Herzegovina and drafted another one with Montenegro. Based on the principle of reciprocity, not only the Croatian kin-minorities in neighbouring states may benefit from such agreements but also the members of the Bosniak and, once/if the dual agreement comes into force, Montenegrin national minorities in Croatia. Taking possible disadvantages of dual citizenship into account, having such agreements is of great importance to legal certainty and transparent interstate relations. This mode of cooperation with other former Yugoslav states tolerating multiple citizenship would unquestionably enhance the rights of their national minorities and improve mutual relations, thus contributing to the preservation of the peculiar multi-ethnic character of the region at large. In addition, in the circumstances of a plural society, multiple citizenship may contribute to softening of the ethnic conception of a nation (Vonk, 2010: 33).

The bilateral agreement on dual citizenship with Bosnia and Herzegovina was signed in 2007 and it came into force in 2012 (Announcement of the Entry into Force of the Dual Citizenship Treaty between the Republic of Croatia and the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2012). The willingness of the two states to enable acquisition of dual citizenship was expressed already in 1992 in the bilateral Treaty on Friendship and Cooperation. The Dual Citizenship Treaty provides citizens of the Republic of Croatia and of Bosnia and Herzegovina with the possibility to obtain citizenship of the other contractual party in the fashion and procedure governed by their national legislation. It is based on the principle of mutual respect, integrity, sovereignty and good neighbourly relations. In accordance with general international law rules, a dual citizen is exclusively a citizen of the contractual party on whose territory he/she resides. The Treaty comprises provisions that regulate the traditionally complex issues related to dual citizenship: military obligation, active and passive voting right, diplomatic and consular protection, repatriation from third countries and other (Act on the Ratification of the Citizenship Treaty between the Republic of Croatia and the Republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2007). The holders of the rights stipulated in the treaty are primarily Bosniaks in Croatia, who comprise 0.73% of the population (Census of Population, Households and Dwellings 2011, 2013: 11), and Croats in Bosnia and Herzegovina, who constituted 17.36% of the total population in 1991 (Statistički bilten no. 233, 1993: 10). More recent data on the share of the Croatian ethnic group in the total population of Bosnia and Herzegovina are unavailable as the results of the latest census conducted in 2013 have not been published yet.

Croats in Bosnia and Herzegovina are deemed as 'potential Croatian citizens in diaspora' (Štiks & Ragazzi, 2009: 345) despite their recognition as constituent peoples in their state of residence (Human Rights in Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2009: 411-412, 414-416). Several aspects of their dual citizenship have been seriously criticized in the past few years. One of the most questionable issues is their right to take part in presidential and parliamentary elections in Croatia, which is granted by the Constitution and law (Act on the Election of Representatives to the Croatian Parliament, 1999; Act on the Presidential Elections in the Republic of Croatia, 1992). The Croatian Elections Act foresees a separate election unit for diaspora and a great majority of those votes refer to Bosnian Croats who predominantly vote for right-wing nationally oriented parties (Election of representatives to the Croatian Parliament who are elected by Croatian citizens residing abroad in the 11th electoral unit, 2007). Another controversial aspect of dual citizenship which aroused numerous critiques was linked to the abuse of the extradition procedure for perpetrators of crimes. A large number of convicts, including war criminals, attempted to escape from the country that sentenced them to the country whose citizenship they also possess, (mis)using the national regulations on the prohibition of extradition. However, in order to eradicate misuses of dual citizenship, both states have concluded several agreements on extradition, mutual enforcement of judicial decisions with respect to criminal affairs and

prosecution of perpetrators of war crimes, crimes against humanity and genocide ("Overview of bilateral international agreements of the Republic of Croatia", 2014). There is also the persistent problem of returnees of non-ethnic Croats (mainly members of Serbian national minority) who had a residence in Croatia on the day of the proclamation of the Croatian independence, but have acquired Bosnian citizenship in the meantime. Their legal status had not been resolved by the entry into force of the Dual Citizenship Treaty due to different interpretations by the two contractual parties. Namely, Croatia calls upon the ethnically selective Law on Croatian Citizenship whereas the starting point of Bosnia and Herzegovina includes the civil principle which has set grounds for its citizenship act (Sarajlić, 2013: 172).

In 2008, Croatia has launched negotiations on dual citizenship with Montenegro as well. Croatia prepared a draft agreement and Montenegro confirmed its interests, but the drawback is the Montenegrin Citizenship Act that is rigorous concerning dual citizenship granted to citizens of former Yugoslav republics and permits it only in case of possession of residence in Montenegro prior to 3 June 2006, i.e. on the day when Montenegro gained independence ("Do dvojnog državljanstva uz ograničenja", 2012). Therefore, the further course of the negotiations needs to be viewed through the prism of planned amendments to the Montenegrin citizenship legislation. For the time being, the status and preservation of the national, cultural, linguistic and religious identity of the Montenegrin national minority in Croatia, who participate in the total Croatian population with 0.11% (Census of Population, Households and Dwellings 2011, 2013), and of the Croatian national minority in Montenegro, who make 0.97% of the Montenegrin population (Population Census 2011, 2014), are regulated by the Agreement on Protection of the Croatian Minority in Montenegro and on Protection of the Montenegrin Minority in Croatia (Agreement on Protection of the Croatian Minority in Montenegro and on Protection of the Montenegrin Minority in Croatia, 2009).

5. Conclusion

Over its 23-year long history, Croatia has exposed different sentiments towards different national minorities, which, in turn, has had a direct effect on their unbalanced access to (multiple) citizenship. Those sentiments have ranged from an overly protective attitude towards its external kin-minorities to a discriminatory treatment of some of its internal national minorities (primarily Serbs). Although both sub-groups may be portrayed through the analogous desire to retain close links with both countries: of origin and of residence, and are similarly characterised by the transnational identities of both nations, Croatia has been denying such a reality through its citizenship policy for quite a while. However, due to a solid internal legal framework for the protection of national minorities and the ongoing process of its harmonisation with the EU legislation, it is expected that in the long run these negative aspects will get annulled through ethnically inclusive policy measures.

For the countries that have risen from Yugoslav ashes, acknowledgement of the multiple identities and loyalties of their national minorities through liberal multiple citizenship policies may contribute to the overall stability of the region. In such circumstances, well-defined arrangements on multiple citizenship could be regarded as a special protection instrument of national minorities, which supplements and widens the standard forms of minority protection defined both on national and international level. Population censuses demonstrate that Croatia is becoming increasingly homogenous, so in search for the best modus for the revival of the Croatian multi-ethnic state and harmonic inter-ethnic relations, transparent multiple citizenship policies could be embraced as a significant reconciliatory tool.

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THE NEEDS OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES FOR AN ORGANIZATION THE CASE OF COMPANIES IN KOSOVO

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Abstract

How we can improve the quality of our employees within an organization? What are the methods of personnel development within the organization? How many and what training for human resources is necessary to enhance the organization's capacities? These are some of the questions which will be answered in this paper. The training and the development of human resources should be such that it will make an organization move forward. If the training and the development of human resources, as an important input for the organization, are not appropriate and professional then the organization will face difficulty in all its working processes. Human resources should facilitate the growth of the organization and therefore training and development are the foundation where the organization should be supported. Training is important for several reasons and the two most important are: organization development and capacity enhancing of HR in work efficiency. However, training and HR development have a cost for the organization and for this reason they often hesitate to invest in their employees' development. In this paper will be explained the reasons why training and development are essential to the organization and that the investments will be translated into efficiency. This will bring in productivity growth and will meet the goal of the organization which is to profit. To avoid wasteful investments the organization must choose the right people for training that will support the organization and fulfill its goals and objectives.

Key words: training, development, human resources, efficiency.

Introduction

The economic development of a country depends largely on private business. Kosovo, a country with an unstable economy, where, the unemployment rate is around 31% and the GDP per capita is 2, 750 Euros per year, is considered as the lowest in the Balkans. From a centralized planned economy before 1999 in a decentralized economy, Kosovo is facing the privatization of public companies. Besides the benefits that this process has brought, it should be noted that many people have been made redundant or unemployed without any alternative solutions, consequently, increasing the unemployment rate.

Considering that Kosovo after the war was facing many challenges, very little or nothing important have been devoted to human resource development. The businesses that have begun operating were mostly family owned businesses. Gradually, through the help of donors and remittances of the Kosovo immigrants, the economy of the country started to be renewed. It has been started a new approach of understanding the importance that human resources have on the enterprise growth and economic development.

Human resources, the success and failure of enterprise

The rapid globalization as well as technological development has led enterprises to be more prudential in order to stay in the market and create competitive advantage. But one thing should be clear: today, companies are individuals. Individuals are those that enable enterprises to be those that are. Enterprises are established, operated, evolved or go bankrupt as a result of the success or failure of a significant source: the human one! In Kosovo, from the statistics of 2013 by a total of 126 thousand businesses 1151 of them have been closed down/extinguished. Of course, it should be analyzed all the factors that have led to the failure of these companies but the human factor should not be overlooked. Public organizations in Kosovo are those which face difficulties in recruitment and human resource management and that because of the political differentiation and pronounced nepotism.

Many companies are clear on how to achieve financial benefits, refine machinery and equipment but, when it comes to personnel is an own story behind. It is noted that many companies rarely encourage employees as partners in their business; on the contrary, their behaviors are controlled. If human resources are taken and treated seriously then, the company will take another direction, certainly a positive one. Sometimes, the important issue for an organization is not employing a talent or finding the best possible training but the most important is the handling and considering the individuals

as part of the organization and as a source of competitive advantage. Claiborne (2009) stated that the poor management of human resources, marketing and business strategy are three key factors in the failure of small businesses. Human resources are distinguished from other sources that may have an organization. Other resources of the organization can be purchased, stored or deleted at any time but, the human resources need special handling or treatment. Moreover, according to Muhammed, Bhati and Jariko (2013, pg. 129-130) other sources can be depreciated over time but the human resources gain experience and become more profitable for the organization.

From the economic perspective, the accumulation of human capital and the effective use of it lead to facilitate the process of economic development. If companies will use their resources efficiently then, this would lead to achieving their objective, that is profit. Many enterprises in Kosovo give special importance to the technology and equipment they use often leaving aside those who use this technology or equipment, the human factor. This deficiency is noticed that the recruitment process, especially, to the public companies and less to private business where, development interest and profit is greater.

One of the best methods in the development and advancement of human resources is also training. How much are training programs practiced in the Kosovo organizations? Are training programs targeted to the type and location of work? These are some issues which will be discussed below.

Importance of Training in Human Resources Development

It is now accepted by all the outstanding fact that training is planned efforts of the organization to enable the acquisition of competencies associated with the job competencies. While, the development includes formal education, work experience, interrelation and evaluation of personality and abilities that help employees to prepare for successful work in the future.

Everyone can affirm the fact that each organization intends to recruit individuals who are qualified as well as adjusted, employees that mostly respond to demands and terms set by the organization.

In the tables below it is indicated some data from an observation that has been done at about 500 small businesses operating in Kosovo, that presents the statute of employment percentage and training, experience and consultancy services.

Table 1: SME employment status by percentage

Description	% share of number of employees
Full time employees	92.2
Permanent part time employees	1.1
Seasonal employees – with contract	5.1
Seasonal employees without contract	1.7
Total	100.0

Source: Source: BSCK SME Survey, 2010

From the observation it can be seen that a large percentage of employees (92.2%) in these businesses and the other percentage belongs to the other ways of employees. What makes an impression on this table is the seasonal employment without a contract. This shows the great need of individuals to work even without a contract.

Table 2: Training, experience and consultancy services

Responses	Have you or your mangers attended any training in the area of management and business? (%)	Have you or your mangers ever worked in a managerial position before joining this company? (%)	Have you used any type of consultancy from other institutions/organizations? (%)
Yes	24.3	22.8	13.6
No	75.7	77.2	86.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: BSCK SME Survey 2010.

Training of employees is an integral part of human resources development at both the managerial and non-managerial level. The findings of BSCK are as follow: only 24 percent of SME managers have completed some type of training for management and business practice (Table 2). In addition is observed an even smaller proportion of them that have managers with previous managerial experience in other organizations. Training of employees is an integral part of human capital development at both the managerial and non-managerial level. From the survey findings we observed that only 24 percent of SME managers have completed some type of training for management and business practice (Table 2). In addition is observed an even smaller proportion of them that have managers with previous managerial experience in other organizations (Business Support Centre Kosovo (2011) "Entrepreneurship and small business development service in Kosovo" Research Report").

Regarding the consultancy services that SMEs in Kosovo make use of, is observed unsatisfactory results as only 13.6 percent of enterprises declared that they receive some type of consultancy services from other organizations. SMEs seem to enjoy only limited benefits from consultancy. If we compare the small percentage of firms that have experienced managers and also the small portion of them that have received management training, it becomes more obvious that SMEs should make more efforts to contract complementary skills form external consultants in order to increase managerial capabilities. However, from companies that received consultancy, only 46 percent were satisfied with the quality of consultancy services, raising questions about the quality of consulting firms in Kosovo.

From the observations done by the Business Support Centre Kosovo (2011), it is seen obviously that less importance is given to training human resources in organizations. As mentioned above on many private businesses have a primary objective of which is profit. Thus, mainly everyone believes in profit and still have not clear that this is a short-term objective and because of this they are reluctant to invest in training and staff development, considering this as a cost as well as waste of time for the enterprise.

Hence, one of the main goals of this paper is to understand the importance of training in staff development, because, it is the only way that will provide enterprise sustainability and competitive advantage in the market. Phillips's (1996, pg 42-47) summary of the American Society for Training and Development's Return on Investments for training case studies in a variety of industries notes that the returns on investment ranged from 150% to 2000%. The purpose of training always is improving the capacity of employees and thus, the capacity of the organization.

However, to be effective, initially, the organizations need to do training needs analysis and financial costs and the time dedicated to them should be closely associated with the mission and vision of the organization. Donald Kirkpatrick, Professor Emeritus at the University of Wisconsin and past president of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), first published his Four-Level Training Evaluation Model in 1959, in the US Training and Development Journal. The model was then updated in 1975, and again in 1994, when he published his best-known work, "Evaluating Training Programs." The four levels are: Reaction; Learning; Behavior; Results.

He also explained each level in greater detail.

Level 1: Reaction

This level Measures how your trainees (the people being trained), reacted to the training. Obviously, you want them to feel that the training was a valuable experience, and you want them to feel good about the instructor, the topic, the material, its presentation, and the venue.

It's important to measure reaction, because it helps you understand how well the training was received by your audience. It also helps you improve the training for future trainees, including identifying important areas or topics that are missing from the training.

Level 2: Learning

At level 2, you measure what your trainees have learned. How much has their knowledge increased as a result of the training?

When you planned the training session, you hopefully started with a list of specific learning objectives: these should be the starting point for your measurement. Keep in mind that you can measure learning in different ways depending on these objectives, and depending on whether you're interested in changes to knowledge, skills, or attitude.

It's important to measure this, because knowing what your trainees are learning and what they aren't will help you improve future training.

Level 3: Behavior

At this level, you evaluate how far your trainees have changed their behavior, based on the training they received. Specifically, this looks at how trainees apply the information.

It's important to realize that behavior can only change if conditions are favorable. For instance, imagine you've skipped measurement at the first two Kirkpatrick levels and, when looking at your group's behavior, you determine that no behavior change has taken place. Therefore, you assume that your trainees haven't learned anything and that the training was ineffective.

However, just because behavior hasn't changed, it doesn't mean that trainees haven't learned anything. Perhaps their boss won't let them apply new knowledge. Or, maybe they've learned everything you taught, but they have no desire to apply the knowledge themselves.

Level 4: Results

At this level, you analyze the final results of your training. This includes outcomes that you or your organization have determined to be good for business, good for the employees, or good for the bottom line.

Training investment returns for the company

Motorola calculated that every dollar spent on training yields an approximate 30 percent gain in productivity within a three-year period. Motorola also used training to reduce costs by over $3 billion and increase profits by 47 percent (source: Tim Lane et al., "Learning to Succeed in Business with Information Technology, " Motorola).

Career development is considered as the No.1 factor in keeping employees in the company according to a survey of 6, 400 employees conducted by Sharon Jordan Evans and Beverly Kaye.

Another study "100 Best Companies to work-with" shows that the best companies in the world make significant investments in training programs, thus, providing 665 hours of annual training for staff and 53 hour training for others. From these training hours, almost 70% is devoted to the current roles/positions of the employees and 30% is focused on growth and development. However, it should be noted that the training resources tend to be more abundant when the company performed well but in periods of economic hardship tends to be the first to be interrupted.

Identify training needs and training grounds failures in Kosovo companies

From Table 2 it has been seen how much importance is given to training in Kosovo companies and it is concluded that one of the reasons why most of these companies do not succeed is because of lack of organizing training and staff development. Kosovo companies intend to grow and to be equal with companies of the developed countries and to achieve this one of the strategies that they should use are training of the new and existing staff in the company. Before starting the training process companies need to make a careful analysis to identify training needs. But what are the reasons why the staff is trained and developed? For the reason that:

- Jobs and technology change;

- New staff/recruit needs special training;

- Promoted staff needs to be equipped with innovative skills;

- Impact on increasing motivation and continuing their work;

- Increases efficiency of staff;

- Improves the career development of staff;

How a company can identify training needs?

According to Pigors and Myers (1983:283) the types of employee training best suited to a specific organization depend upon a number of factors such as skills called for in jobs to be filled, qualifications of candidates applying for jobs, and the kinds of operating problems confronted by the organization…
In my opinion, it would be more appropriate the existing employees to identify their needs, because they best know their strengths and weaknesses. Nevertheless, there are other methods that will assist the company in identifying training needs:

New employees/recruit can be identified by interview or working for a short time on the relevant job;

Older employees based on their performance in the existing work.

Some of the reasons of trainings failure

Thousands of hours and money are spent each year creating training that doesn't work. How can this be? There are three primary reasons according to Nanette Miner:

The training is created by individuals with limited experience and background in

the field of training and development.

The training is created by subject matter experts.

The training is designed without clearly thought-out objectives.

Let us explain each of the training failure reasons in Kosovo companies:

The first reason: because of the lack of experience in training field in Kosovo the trainings are held by persons that are experts in different fields, for example if a person was good as sales manager than this person trained the others the same with the manger of marketing and so on. For this reason a big number of training failed. However, in the last years has been noticed a trend, this as a consequence of the companies' growth, to train the employees out of the country or to bring to the company international and professional trainers.

Albeit (1985) dated the most recent research regarding the education of training professionals discovered that less than eight percent of us have formal education in the field of human resource development. The preponderance of degrees are in the field of primary education.

Furthermore, many trainers don't realize that the mother of training and development is adult learning theory--and scant few individuals have any exposure to adult learning theory and methodology. For example, there are six primary principles of adult learning theory, these are:

Adults have a need to know why they should learn something.

Adults have a need to be self directed.

Adults have a broad range of life experience from which to draw and contribute.

Adults become ready to learn when their life situation creates a need to know or need to be able to do in order to be able to perform more effectively and satisfyingly.

Adults enter into a learning experience with a task-centered or problem-centered orientation to learning.

Adults are motivated to learn more by intrinsic, rather than extrinsic (grades, raises) motivators. (Knowles)

Training designed by subject matter experts spells disaster in one of two ways:

Basic information is left out because the subject matter expert does not recognize what basic means anymore, or

The subject matter expert is so hot on their topic that every possible nuance of the topic is included in the training.

Certainly, if the company is cautious and does not make the abovementioned mistakes, then the training will be considered successful and the company will achieve its objectives.

Another reason why the companies in Kosovo fail in training is because they hesitate to invest in trainings. These companies are not aware of the consequences: the best employees will leave if the company isn't invested in their future. As best said by Lang, money is no longer motivating the workforce. Instead, it's training and development. In this millennium, employees are focused on advancement and want to know, "How will this company help me? How will this training help me reach my career goals?" A company that invests in training will be able to retain their best-performing employees, along with all the benefits associated with long term company retention, including lack of retraining based on decreased turnover and increased performance levels. Lang reasons if you're serious about doing amazing things and having a performance, culture, and training is the most obvious part of successfully competing in the marketplace or workforce.

 If the Kosovo companies are interested in competing in national or international level, than the key to be a serious player is investing in the future of the workforce. Progressing forward with the tools of yesterday can result in expensive losses, including lack of communication, losing key accounts and disastrous mistakes. Organizations should support training as a means of ensuring high performance levels, in order to maintain competitiveness in the private sector and efficient operations in the government. Kersten1explains that training is a critical part of key strategies, such as employee development, retention and implementing new initiatives, all of which relate to organizational performance.

Conclusion and recommendations

Kosovo companies after a difficult economic and political situation of 90' entered in a new era of their development. Many of these companies survived the situation and others started from the beginning. The needs were big and initially they gave less importance to human resources.

After the emergency situation and a kind of country stability the companies started to seriously think about their employees and about their professional preparation. With the enlargement of these companies, the free and open market, entering of the new technologies….etc was necessary the need of human resources training.

The employees within a company should be managed with different methods and techniques of those used earlier. In the case of Kosovo, despite the ease of finding workforce in the labor market, due to the high level of unemployment, some of our country's companies are starting to realize that they must make an effort to train and develop their employees will not leave from work, but will give their best

The present paper aims to be a guide to those companies that are interested in their employees' development and to take as a recommendation everything they consider useful. The companies that train and develop their staff are those companies which appreciate, support and promote learning and knowledge. These companies know how to keep their workforce with capacity and trained employees, as the success of a company depends on the longevity of all employees. In general plan are recommended necessary changes that will bring a direct positive impact on human resource management and these recommendations are: (1) if the company decide to train its employees than the company must choose the right experts of the field; (2) before starting with the training process the company should clearly identify the training needs; (3)The company should not hesitate to invest on training because all studies show that their return is multiple and training improves employee performance, training enhances company profits, training saves labor, training saves money, training improves a company's competitive edge, training increases worker productivity, training saves supervisory and administrative time and costs, training improves customer satisfaction, training improves employee satisfaction and retention.

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Paradigm Shift in Early Learning In Montenegro

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we try to look at the dimensions of the educational context in Montenegro, from the perspective of reform goals/changes that have occurred in the past decade in the field of preschool education.

Objective: To determine the extent to which the upbringing and education process in pre-school institutional context Montenegro corresponds to the fundamental reform requirements /tasks in the field of: educational process (learning), curriculum, competencies, educators /teachers, organizational conditions governing the upbringing and education work (environment) and cooperation with family. Starting from the key research fields (active learning/child interaction in the process of education; holistic approach to child development and learning; open curriculum and integrated planning; opening the institution to family and community), we structured a questionnaire for educators and implemented it in selected sample areas in Montenegro. We surveyed 484 respondents from the three regions, and the interviews were conducted in the focus groups. Our respondents claim that the quality of preschool education in Montenegro, in general, is at a relatively high level, but it is necessary to stimulate further research practices, and to make cooperation with the family and environment more diverse and interactive, to change the attitudes of the participants in the preschool context towards the necessity of a permanent change of the kindergarten into a "learning organization".

Keywords: active learning; curriculum; open system; reform,

Introduction

Long-term consideration of early childhood in the context of the deficit model, "the concept of missing childhood" and clearly delineated development categories, which precisely determine children's capabilities and limits, neglected the internal and external context of growth and development. Mechanistic, positivist paradigm which promotes the fragmentary image of childhood and early learning, is being replaced by a holistic, systematic, probabilistic paradigm, which is based on a full understanding of the child in the context, and which takes into consideration all the intertwining variables that determine children's development and learning needs (Slunjski, 2011). Holistic consideration of children's early learning and development, gains in importance in 80's and especially 90's of the last century, thanks to the scientific findings and relevant research by renowned pedagogues and psychologists in this area, as well as thanks to their discoveries about cause-and-effect connections between the ways of encouraging children and long-term effects of these interventions (Villegas Reimers, E. & F. Reimers, 2000). Support of the concept of open education and systemic paradigm reaches far back into the past (Rousseau, representatives of maturation-socialization theories), and more recently, there have been theories of Piaget, Bruner, Erikson, Bronfenbrenner and others.

Instead of a scholarized, didactically fragmented, field-specific curriculum and entire organization of life in preschool, which exist in a controlled and clearly delineated spatial-temporal framework, the reformed concept in Montenegro, now promotes an approach which is holistic-oriented, open and context-dependent (Pešić, 1989).

Context is a system which is organized and layered around child/educational group/kindergarten. In the 90's of the last century, Bronfenbrenner's ecological model becomes the new mainstay of research and examining of the dimensions of preschool context. Child is a unique being, a person with complex and varied resources and who should be understood that way, and provided with adequate support for the full projection of their potential. Vividly explaining the need for affirmation of children's unique capabilities, Loris Malaguzzi (The Hundred Languages of Children, 1998) writes: "There are a hundred of them out there. The child has a hundred languages (and hundreds and hundreds more), but ninety-nine are being stolen from them. The school and the culture separate the head from his body. They tell him to think without hands/ to work without head / to listen and not to speak/to understand without joy, love and to admiration" (Miljak, 2009, p.11).

A new concept of childhood affirms active child, who affects his learning and development, which has his own culture and own opinion and who is capable to organize and be responsible for his own choices and actions, in order to manage them and to develop his intellectual, social, emotional, creative and other resources. Therefore, the kindergarten is a mat

composed of many interactive and related structural components (physical, temporal and social), which are based on a deeper foundations of culture (attitudes, values, beliefs, educators, etc.). (Slinjski & Ljubetić, 2012).

Changes In The Context Of Preschool Education In Montenegro

Montenegrin education system, after decades of nurturing preschool concept focused on the contents in a structured school system, defined the concept of preschool education that is based on the holistic-ecological understanding of children's learning and development. It starts from the child and his or her unique capacity within a distinct family and social context. In the essence of children's learning and development process is a unique developmental socio-constructivist way of learning.

Starting from the paradigm of active learning and development of children's potential in the process of exchange with peers and adults, education reform brought a new concept of preschool education, focused on the child, which is developing an integrated curriculum, through the engagement of team of professionals, parents, and representatives of the local communities in Montenegro (Sočo-Petrovič, 2011). A new look at the child and childhood, and recognizing exceptional importance of this fundamental developmental stage in the life of every person, leaning on the latest scientific knowledge on the potential of early development, gradually changes social awareness of the position of preschool education in educational continuum and society. Thus, it becomes clear that the effects of socialization and personal empowerment in the peer community for children are invaluable for strengthening their cognitive-conative, socio-emotional, speech and motor potentials. Although we are slow to break from the tradition to perceive kindergarten as "babysitting facilities" and an extorted solution, the idea of a childhood rich in interactions with peers and adults, as a natural supplement to the family life, is becoming more and more popular. Social awareness of the need to strengthen this segment is seen through the intentions of educational policy makers which are present in strategic and other official supporting documents. The strategy of early and pre-school development (2010) pointed out that the coverage of children in Montenegro, in the period up to the 2015, should increase from the current 32.2% to 40%. In the context of open kindergarten, which is the framework for a pedagogical approach that focuses on the needs of all participants in the upbringing and education process, children have the opportunity to realize their needs and capabilities in a spontaneous and permanent exchange with all internal and external stakeholders. The role of teachers is becoming more complex because, instead of guiding the whole process and having the pedagogical view "from above", and pre-defined interventions and corrective actions, they more naturally "sink" in the internal relations and exchanges in the educational environment, getting to know the children individually. They also get to know themselves in this professional position in relation to all participants in the life of preschool. The development of cooperative relations, the strengthening of mutual trust in the community, supporting the process of development of educational processes, joint problem solving and cultural two-way, reciprocal and respectful communication among all participants in the process are important dimensions of the development of quality of life and learning in preschool." (Slunjski & Ljubetić, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

In this paper, we will try to look at the dimensions of preschool context in Montenegro, from the perspective of reform goals/changes that have occurred in the past decade in the education system. Our focus will be predominantly focused on the review and assessment of the reformed preschool context, from the perspective of a part of the research sample, i.e. pre-school teachers, as key actors and stakeholders of educational life in kindergarten.

The wider objective: To determine the extent to which the upbringing and education process in pre-institutional context Montenegro corresponds to fundamental reform requirements/tasks in the field of: educational process (learning), curriculum, competencies, educators/teachers, environment) and cooperation with the family.

Given the complexity and layers of the research subjects/fields, methodological concept was based on the combined quantitative-qualitative approach and the application of appropriate instruments. In this paper we will analyze the opinions of teachers on the efficiency of a new paradigm in preschool practice, based on the responses obtained from surveys and focus groups interviews.

Analysis Of The Responses Of Teachers (questionnaire and interview)

Starting from the key fields the research is focused on, we have structured a questionnaire for pre-school teachers, and, according to the designed criteria (thematically concentrated categories: active learning/participation of children through play, a holistic approach to child development and individualization, open curriculum, opening of the institution to family and community) and realized it in the sample selected areas in Montenegro.

Sample

Because of the representativeness of the sample, 484 respondents from all three regions of Montenegro were surveyed (North - 131, central -227, southern - 126), including all pre-schools in these areas.

Table 1 The research sample-educators

region	JPU "Vukosava Ivanovic"	JPU "Ljubica Jovanovic-Mase"	JPU "Nasa radost" Herceg Novi	JPU "Dragan Kovacevic" Niksic	JPU "Djina Vrbica" Podgorica	JPU "Ljubica Popovic"	JPU "Zagorka Ivanovic" Cetinje	JPU "Eko bajka" Pljevlja	JPU "Radmila Nedic" Berane	JPU "Duso Bijelo" Bijelo	JPU "Sestre Radovic" Kolasin	JPU "Djecji vrtic" Plav	JPU "Bosko Buha" Rozaje	total
Southern	39	42	45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	126
Central	0	0	0	44	69	80	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	227
Northern	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	25	43	43	4	6	10	131
total	39	42	45	44	69	80	34	25	43	43	4	6	10	484

By analyzing the sample, from the standpoint of the level of education of teachers, we find that most of the teachers hold a college degree, that is 61.4% of them, followed by 10.5% with bachelor degree and 28.1% who have completed specialist studies. Permanently employed respondents dominate in our sample (68.9%). In order to obtain the most consistent and objective indicators of the focused aspects of empirical research fields, survey responses will be accompanied by statements from the interviews that were held with focus groups in all three regions of Montenegro.

The introductory question in the survey was related to the assessment of the quality of preschool education in Montenegro by our respondents, and it offered a scale of four options (very good, mainly good, mainly not good, and not good at all). The results show that the second option dominates the respondents' answers, and that in in all regions/preschools, surveyed respondents believe that this segment is predominantly well organized.. Thus, 67.1% of respondents from the central region mark the option by which the preschool education in Montenegro, is mainly good, and 30.6% of them say that it is very good. We find that 94% of respondents from the southern region hold the opinion that the pre-school education is very good and mainly good, and that percentage is even higher in the third group of surveyed teachers and amounts to 97%. Below we will filter the obtained information through the already mentioned research segments.

Active Learning/participation Of Children In Educational And Upbringing Activities (Interaction)

Region	fully achieved	mostly achieved	mostly not achieved	not achieved	total	fully achieved%	mostly achieved%	mostly not achieved%	not achieved%	total %
Southern	39	84	0	0	123	31, 7%	68, 3%			100, 0%
Central	114	107	1	1	223	51, 1%	48, 0%	, 4%	, 4%	100, 0%
Northern	58	71	0	0	129	45, 0%	55, 0%			100, 0%
Total	211	262	1	1	475	44, 4%	55, 2%	, 2%	, 2%	100, 0%

For the purposes of assessing of the level and quality of the representation of one of the very important components of the reformed pre-school education system – the active learning through play and full participation of children in educational

and upbringing activities, in the survey we asked a question, operationalized through several individual items. The respondents chose the option on a four-degree scale that was closest to their assessment of the level of representation of the concept in question. Starting from the region, as a criterion variable, the respondents evaluated: The extent to which the stated objectives of the reform of preschool education were achieved? Option: promoting active learning through participation in educational and upbringing activities (and play) (N = 475)

Table 2 the level participation in educational and upbringing activities

As can be seen from the table with frequencies and percentages, respondents from all three regions estimate that encouraging active learning in children (through participation) in pre-school institutions is represented in high percentage: southern region 31.7% (fully achieved) and 68.3% (mostly achieved); central region - 51, 1 % (fully achieved) and 48.0 % (mostly achieved); northern region - 45, 0 % (fully achieved) and 55.0 % (mostly achieved). To be honest, choosing, predominantly, the second option may indicate a certain reserve and caution in consideration of the level and quality of implementation of this important concept in practice.

Another item that further operationalizes the question - teacher encourages children to choose their centers of interest , as opposed to the option that children are directed towards the centers at certain times in the determined period/interval also indicates a high value, in favor of a modern approach, the one oriented on the child (arithmetic mean/95 % confidence interval from 1-5 : south - 4, 2642; center - 4, 4695 , north- 4, 6000), affirming child's right to choose and be responsible for their own initiatives.

On a 5 degree scale, in the interval from expects reproduction and repetition (1) to encourages children to experiment and explore (5), respondents predominantly opted for values toward the second part of the continuum (5) , so the cumulative score/arithmetic mean (95 % reliability) is: 4.0784 (south), 4.3412 (center) and 4.2857 (north), suggesting a significant positive changes in practice, in the opinion of our surveyed teachers, towards a much more active involvement of children in educational process by opening an opportunity for them to independently investigate, explore, express their curiosity. According to the respondents' answers, teachers do strive to provide children with learning from experience, through direct participation and sharing, and use of various cognitive processes-observing, manipulating materials, combining, research, and experimentation.

Also, respondents were estimating the professional conduct of teachers in practice, in direct contact with them in the upbringing and education process, on a continuum of expects obedience from children (consistently follow orders given by their teacher - 1) to encourages initiative, freedom of thought , autonomy in children (5), and marked high values in all research areas, and the arithmetic means on a scale of 1-5 were: 4.0192 (south) , 4.2701 (center) , 4.2627 (north) . So , very high values in the assessment and selection of our respondents indicate that in practice children we given much more space for independent action and decision making, and that it is less insisted on "blind " and uncritical obedience of children, and heteronomous consistency in the execution of the given instructions.

Assessing the extent to which, in the opinion of the teachers in our sample, the entire process is directed towards the needs of children and their better interaction (5), as opposed to the earlier, directive guiding and controlling (1), our respondents dominantly mark the high value, so that the average score is 4.3628 in the 1-5 intervals. "Children should be allowed to independently investigate whenever possible. This knowledge is both lasting and better, and they can learn from each other, "says one of the interviewees (Podgorica).

One of the indicators of stimulating active learning/participation of children in educational process is encouraging children to solve problems, so our respondents say that pre-school teachers reinforce these skills in children very often - 55.0 % and often - 41.8 %. Participating in a collaborative, team activities, in the centers of interest, children are able to coordinate their perspective with others, to be tolerant to different needs and opinions. Also, they are in a position to overcome the conflicts themselves, to solve problems, to share with others, to rethink their responses, to wait their turn, in order to preserve their place in the peer community, improving their socio-emotional and other competencies.

To the question To what extent, in your opinion, educators encourage children to explore the causes and consequences, our respondents answer: in 21.8 % of cases - very often and in 65.2 % of them often. Instead of memorizing poems, content, guided and controlled child's expression, these new opportunities for learning in kindergarten allow recognizing causal relationships, identifying new meaning, and practicing continuous cognition.

Furthermore, in the interval from imposes roles on children to respects the child's interest, respondents predominantly mark the second-mentioned option, or category 5, on the interval scale, which fully corresponds with previous answers about respect for children's autonomy , the right to choose and to have own opinion , and to act in practice .

In the context of the perception of quality and ways of encouraging children to actively learn/ participate, educators assessed the extent to which, in their opinion, in kindergarten, children were encouraged to apply their knowledge to new situations (N = 469): educators from the southern region 95, 1 % very often and often , educators from the central region: 95 % very often and often , educators from the northern region: 96 % very often and often . This is supported by the assessment of our respondents when considering the following option in the questionnaire: the extent to which the practice fosters development of children's independence and securing the right to choose, take initiative and make decisions. Dominantly , our respondents felt that the aforementioned intentions are realized, i.e., respondents, in a very high percentage, estimated that educators allowed children to work independently and supported the possibility of choice (arithmetic mean: 1-5 , with 95 % reliability : southern region – 4. 2170, central – 4. 4038, northern – 4. 3697).

Respondents/pre-school teachers estimate that, in practice, all aspects of development in children , as well as all areas of activity, affirm evenly. "Educators prefer some areas (e.g. cognitive domain or mathematical or logical area) (1)... to they take into account the equitable representation of all areas /fields (5)." High values dominate (5) in most respondents from all three fields (arithmetic mean - 4.3921, reliability interval - 95 %), which implies the belief of our respondents that the fragmentary and scholarized and area-structured approach of teachers was replaced in practice with a new, holistic approach to children's learning and development. A holistic approach allows natural linking internal and external constituent components of educational environment. The selection of learning content in shaping the curriculum is based on an understanding of children and respecting their perspectives (opinions, ways of understanding, etc.). Enabling choices of different content and selections of other children and adults in shaping their own activities encourage the development of the child's autonomy, and the development of his identity, self-esteem, self-confidence and self-realization. Therefore, it is necessary to activate children through activities in which they explore, discover, build and review their own theories, building their concepts and terms. It is therefore necessary to provide a rich and varied offer of appropriate materials and situations for learning, which enable the child to self-discover and solve problems". (Slunjski & Ljubetić, 2012).

From the interview we learn that educators connect life-practical activities from different areas and fields and allow children to use linguistic-communicative, cognitive and socio-emotional skills through a variety of play contents. After the phase of surface and associative linking of different objectives and contents from certain areas/domains of learning, pre-school teachers understand and apply specific integrated curriculum in practice , seeking deeper connections between certain areas through the development of key terms and concepts .

Judging by the responses received, the respondents estimated that the practice has undergone significant change, and that children in pre-schools have the opportunity to actively participate in educational activities, according to their possibilities and needs, to follow their interests and coordinate them with others , both those of their peers and adults around them. From the interview we learn that this is significantly contributed by a more flexible spatial-temporal organization of life in kindergarten, centers of interest, diversity of materials , more open attitude to parents and the wider community. They find that children develop their skills better in this environment, that they are more independent, more open, more active, and more cooperative, that they know how to share duties and responsibilities, and know how to freely communicate with peers and adults. Also, the teachers encourage critical thinking by opening opportunities for research, comparing, and manipulating objects. In the words of the interviewed teachers, the practice reaffirms integrated learning through sharing with peers and adults because children "learn through responding with their whole being " (Krnjaja , Miškeljin, 2006 : 126). Shaping the curriculum is based on careful observation, listening to children, and documenting their activities. This mode is directed to the full development of the child, with respect for his personality and individual characteristics.

Competences of the educator

The openness of educational and training institutions, as a "learning organization", has influenced the changing role of teachers with its new tasks and responsibilities. Professionals are turning to a different conception of labor in which children should be encouraged to learn "to know, to do, to be, to live together" (Delors, 1998). The teacher today is not only the interpreter of the given and ready-made solutions but also a "thinking practitioner", "critical professional" and intermediary in program ideas re-shaped by children themselves. Therefore, teacher's role is very complex. He/she creates the conditions for life and work in the community, chooses and carefully models own professional techniques and strategies of work, constantly observes, monitors and evaluates the progress and development of the child, or a group with continuous self-evaluation of his/her own professional growth in order to plan improving the quality of educational process. The teacher creates opportunities for children's active participation in reviewing and discovering reality, relationships between people, events, questioning his abilities, without offering ready-made answers and rounded suggestions. In order to respond to

these complex professional challenges, educators must reconsider missing skills and systemically and continuously develop competencies of the modern pedagogical context. In a poll regarding the question of urgent professional needs, the respondents singled out the key fields, where they need professional support.

Region	seminars which will enrich the practical knowledge	training for organizing drama workshops	training for teaching dance	workshops for making dolls	cooperation between kindergartens/institutions in the country and region	computer training	advancement to a higher degree	training to work with children with special needs (handicapped and gifted)	training in communications	training on music education	workshops on the individualization	Workshops on planning	Total
South	33	3	3	1	3	1	0	7	3	0	0	0	54
Central	16	11	0	16	10	3	2	12	4	8	1	1	84
North	41	1	2	4	3	3	3	9	1	3	0	0	70
Total	90	15	5	21	16	7	5	28	8	11	1	1	208

Challenges and obstacles: As one of the problems, our respondents in the central and coastal region (the northern region the situation is different) mention supernumerary educational groups that exceed pedagogical norms, and in such circumstances the work is extremely complicated, and space for children's active participation and full individual expression is limited. From interviews with the teachers we observed and marked some of the barriers in the current pre-school context: the incoherence of preschool institutions at the level of Montenegro; disconnection between preschools with the school; lack of literature, manuals, didactics... Teachers from the focus group interviews, in coastal/southern region pointed out, "The practice shows a lack of training of teachers to work with children in nurseries. Work with talented children is neglected too; there is no relevant research and publishing activities for children, as well as publishing of professional literature. "

Also, the respondents report that cooperation with parents , is only declaratively varied and intense. Most of the time, general parent-teacher meetings and individual exchanges of information dominate, while some modern forms of communication between families and kindergarten are often missing. The new paradigm of childhood, focusing on the child as an active and competent, requires a systemic and holistic relationship between all relevant parties in the child's life, on the road to accomplishing so-called "Pedagogy of reciprocity." (Bruner, 2000)

DISCUSSION

The study, which was devoted to the consideration of the dimensions of the revised pre-school context in Montenegro, which affirms a new paradigm of learning and development, notes both significant changes that were adopted in practice, as assessed by the surveyed teachers, and challenges for systematic and targeted intervention.

Surveyed and interviewed pre-school teachers from all three regions estimate that encouraging active learning in children (through participation) in preschools is present in a high percentage and that in this regard there is a pedagogical shift of the focus from the teacher to the child, and from the contents to the practical activities. The spatial organization of these institutions and work at the centers of interest essentially determines the quality of social interaction of children with each

other, as well as children with their teachers. Children have the opportunity to learn from experience, through direct participation and cooperative activities, and the use of different cognitive processes - observing, manipulating, combining, research, and experimentation. Also, in the atmosphere in which educators open more space for independent action and decision making, temporal and spatial organization of learning are constantly changing. The practice, according to the respondents, evenly affirms all aspects of development in children, as well as all areas of activity (holistic approach). Instead of a frontal, unified approach and guided activities, the new context allows all parts of the day to be open for learning, even those which belong to routine daily activities (sleeping, eating). Replies of respondents from the three regions indicate the expected differences. While the number of children in the northern region is much smaller (population migration, lack of awareness of the need for the involvement of children in preschool institutions), central and southern regions suffer from supernumerary educational groups and rather cramped conditions for individualizing educational actions and developing the distinctive quality of children. Also, in interviews, educators articulate the need for better designed and dedicated to structured training. Respondents point out that the context of preschool is dynamic and open, but that cooperation with parents, as important actors in the life and work of kindergarten, is to a large extent routinized, reduced to the old external actions.

As a part of the open question, created for the purpose of identifying the strengths and shortcomings of the reformed system in Montenegro , surveyed and interviewed educators have stated the following recommendations for promoting this segment .

Recommendations :

• It is essential to systematically improve the position of the preschool segment at the level of the overall educational and social context in Montenegro's milieu ;

• Educational- teaching process should be more flexible , i.e. it is important to improve interaction and active participation of all children in the upbringing and educational context , to improve the overall atmosphere culture in educational groups/ kindergarten;

• It is necessary to stimulate research practices, openness of institutions "inside and outside ", as well as to involve all stakeholders intensely, methodically and functionally because kindergarten is a "living system" (Fullan, 2000 : 106);

• Cooperation with the family and environment must be diverse and eventful;

• There must be respect for the educational standards in terms of the number of children in educational groups; it is also important to "stretch" time and space "boundaries" in kindergarten , increase the enrollment of children in pre-school context (today it is 30 %);

• Changing the attitudes of participants in the preschool context about the necessity of a permanent change of the kindergarten into a "learning organization ";

• Encouraging personal and autonomous engagement of children in learning;

• Improving professional training and basic university education.

Finally, high-quality, developmentally promising improvement of preschool education, largely depends on the current social reality, but also on the implicit image of a child, childhood, and education model of all professionals. Environment for learning , spatiotemporal organization, the quality of social-emotional reactions in kindergarten, pedagogical and psychological environment of learning, imply a fundamental orientation of educational professionals who create and develop preschool system in their communities.

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Challenges of the accession process to the European Union: study case on adoption of the acquis communautaire chapter on social policy and employment

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Abstract

Improvement of the EU social protection coordination is supported by monitor of social performances of the member states alongside adjustment of the negotiation process with candidate countries. The paper is focus on the evolution of adopting the social policy and employment chapter of the acquis communautaire in the case of fifth and sixth EU enlargements waves. The stable elements of this negotiation chapter are overviewed as well as period of time needed, and transitory measures established for each of the Central and East European countries. Comparative analyse of sensitive aspects within pre-accession and post-accession phases support further in-depth understanding of EU versus domestic priorities in the social field. The research hypothesis is that the standard bureaucracy of adopting the social acquis communautaire is a rather "top down" decisional process than a "bottom up" one. Legislative harmonization and strengthening the institutional framework in the field of social policy and employment could create unexpected and even opposite effects related to long term national capacity of newly member state to accomplish EU common goals. In terms of methodology, the paper is based on desk research of domestic and EU regulations related to negotiation of social policy and employment chapter, EU and national monitoring reports. Preliminary research outputs focus on the two steps fifth wave of the EU enlargement (2004 and 2007) emphasized differences among countries "ready" to adopt the social acquis (i.g. Estonia, Malta) and "less ready" ones (Bulgaria, Poland, Romania). In terms of adaptation capacity to new socio-economic challenges, chapter 13 "Social policy and employment" of the fifth wave of EU accession process acquis communautaire became chapter 19 as part of the sixth one. The paper contributes to a constructive assessment of development of the acquis communautaire as an exercise to improve the social coordination with (potential) candidate countries to EU.

Keywords: accession to the European Union, social policy, acquis communautaire, Central and East European countries

Arguments for a closer look at development of new member states

Primary community regulations with impact on national social policies are broadly represented by the Roma Treaty (1958), the Community Charter of the Fundamental Social Rights of Workers (1989), the Maastricht Treaty (1992), and the Amsterdam Treaty (1997). The initial cooperation between the six EU founder states[1] was based on economic and politic cooperation promoting competition and free movement of goods, capital and persons. Within that context, marginal and exclusively economic related attention was paid to social regulations among member states. In this respect, first social measures were adopted to support the movement of workers and their families including the provision of social security. "European social space" launched in 1984 by Jacques Delors, the president of the European Commission was not focus on common social policy objectives as expected but rather on the dialogue between employers and employees (Zamfir, 1997, p. 244). Later on, the "European Social Model" will reflect a more adequate policy approach of social vulnerabilities and will promote common welfare exercises among member states.

Strategic EU platforms towards achieving common socio-economic goals were also represented by the Lisbon Strategy (2000), and the Europe 2020 Strategy. Launched in March 2000, the 10 years Lisbon Strategy proposed an ambitious goal for EU member states: "to become the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based economy in the world by 2010 capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion and respect for the environment". Lisbon Strategy mid term assessment (2005) emphasized implementation difficulties due to various socio-economic as well as procedural reasons among which the two steps fifth EU enlargement wave[2] was mentioned alongside national economies differences or unclear share of responsibilities and tasks between European and national levels. Pursuit of established Lisbon Strategy's goals parallel with EU standard accession procedures happened in the context of difficulties in bringing back the idea of planning in Central and Eastern European post-communist countries. These came

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[1] Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands

[2] Ten new member states joined EU in 2010: Cyprus, Czeck Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia. Two member states joined EU in 2007: Bulgaria, and Romania.

as arguments in accepting the idea of insufficient research focus on enlargement of Central and East European countries and needed further analysis in this direction (European Parliament, 2010, pp. 57-58). Outputs of public consultation for launching the successor Europe 2020 pointed out that "a successful EU 2020 strategy must be built on a good analysis of the constraints facing policy makers in the coming years, and on the correct identification of the challenges to be tackled" (Commission of the European Communities, 2009, p. 3). Comparative sociologic publications developed during last years include statistic analysis and partially supported by qualitative approach (interviews with key stakeholders). Still, the analysis are focus on a rather EU member states' perspective than member states to EU which incompletely reveal domestic debates and strategic decisions confronted when adopting the consequent acquis communautaire' harmonisations legislative or institutional procedures. Further research is to be further conducted in order to better understand the national strategic motivation as hints in strengthen the domestic capacity. With the support of open method of coordination, both social engagements as national harmonised changes adopted within EU accession periods by 2005, 2007 and 2013 newly entered countries and newly common social directions (increase of employment rate) are to be respected. From this perspective the current paper supports the process of assessing national capacity of new member states from fifth and sixth enlargement waves to face the challenges of accomplishing EU commonly established and agreed social goals.

Adoption of EU structural decisions in developing social common actions as well as allocation of EU supporting budget (i.g. European Structural Funds) depend on absorption capacity of all member states. Lessons learned from successes and failures in this respect take into account EU's capacity to adequately and efficiently answer challenges permanently posed by international trends such as globalisation process, demographic trends, national investments of international economic players, climate and environment changes, and, last but not least, migration of labour force.

Identified "collective action problem" as reason for Lisbon failure is paradoxically generated by the fact that "countries find it in their national interest not to pursue policies that would support he overall collective European good as long as everyone else played by the rules. But because the incentives are the same for all, none will make the efforts necessary for achieving the common interest" (Collignon, 2006, p. 8). Careful analysis of national role, contribution and achievement of each member state in building EU plans is to be taken into account in all strategic phases in adopting such EU strategic decisions: design, allocation of needed resources and implementation. On the other hand, equally important is that simplified procedures in terms of EU coordination versus empowerment of national strategies were required. The need to reduce the deficit between member states against the argument that the whole process "become too complicated and is poorly understood. It generated much paper, but little action" (Commission of the European Communities, 2005, p. 29).

In 2005, a revised version of Lisbon Strategy was launched focus on four priority areas: „research and innovation, investing in people/modernizing labour markets, unlocking business potential, particularly of SMEs, and energy/climate change" (European Commission, 2010a, p. 2, 3). The closing evaluation of Lisbon Strategy made in 2010 emphasized the general positive impact as a total of 18 new jobs were created in all member states. Still, assumed objectives were not completely reached. In terms of employment rate prospects for 2010, starting point 62% registered in 2000 developed in 66% in 2008 and 70% in 2010. Supportive integrated employment guidelines addressed by the Commission to member states included: full employment, inclusive labour market, and lifecycle approach to work (Commission of the European Communities, 2007, p. 6). Labour market related target of follow up Europe 2020 is focus on 20-64 population and refers to "at least 75% including through the greater involvement of women, older workers and the better integration of migrants in the work force" (European Commission, 2010b, p. 8). Within this context, common efforts are to be done in order to adequately support the empowerment of national engagement capacity towards supporting structural reforms at both EU and domestic levels.

Negotiation of acquis communautaire in the social field

Within accession to EU process candidate countries work on adopting the minim standards included in negotiation chapters of the acquis communautaire. They are not compulsory but harmonisation is requested at both legal and institutional level. Supporting pre-accession and post-accession financial tools are available for applicant member states. Negotiation process between EU and candidate countries bring together different national experiences and design to common policy elements identified as played a key role in functioning of EU as a whole.

We comparatively analyze the 2007 changes of acquis communautaire. In terms of composition of the acquis communautaire, previously composed by 31 chapters, the version used within the fifth enlargement wave was composed by 35 negotiation chapters. We take a closer look at development between acquis communautaire for the fifth comparatively with the sixth enlargement waves. 21 negotiation chapters were kept; others were either reshaping (eight chapters) or

newly introduced (six chapters). The content of one 2005 negotiation chapter was distributed among other chapters. We present bellow in details the situation for each negotiation chapter. For more details please see table 1 included in annexes.

21 identical negotiation chapters were registered: Free movement of goods, Free movement of capital, Company law, Competition policy, Fisheries, Transport policy, Taxation, Economic and monetary policy, Statistics, Social policy and employment, Energy, Science and research, Regional policy and coordination of structural instruments, Environment, Consumer and health protection, Customs union, External relations, Financial control, Financial and budgetary provisions, Institutions, and chapter Other issues.

In terms of slightly changes of negotiation chapters, Chapter 15 Industrial policy and Chapter 16 Small and medium-sized enterprises merged in Chapter 20 Enterprise and industrial policy. Chapter 2 Free movement of persons became in 2007 Chapter 2 Freedom of movement for workers. Previsions of Chapter 3 Freedom to provide services were transferred to Chapter 3 Right of establishment and freedom to provide services. Chapter 7 Agriculture transformed in 2007 Chapter 11 Agriculture and rural development. Chapter 18 Education and training became Chapter 26 Education and culture. Chapter 19 Telecommunications and information technologies became Chapter 21 Trans-European Networks. Chapter 24 Co-operation in the field of justice and home affairs became Chapter 24 Justice, freedom and security. Chapter 27 Common foreign and security policy became Chapter 31 Foreign, security and defence policy

Previsions included in 2005 Chapter 20 Culture and audio-visual policy of the fifth EU enlargement wave were not kept as a whole but they were distributed among other negotiation chapters. 2007 newly introduced negotiation chapters were: Chapter 5 Public procurement, Chapter 7 Intellectual property law, Chapter 9 Financial services, Chapter 10 Information society and media, Chapter 12 Food safety, veterinary and phytosanitary policy, and Chapter 23 Judiciary and fundamental rights (Stanescu, 2013, pp. 271-274).

In what regards the social policy and employment chapter of the acquis communautaire, during negotiation period with countries from the fifth enlargement wave, the number of the chapter was 13. and it changed in chapter 19 as new negotiation chapters were added. Complex negotiation chapter 13 "Social policy and employment" tackled issues such us: employment (health and safety at work, labour legislation, social dialog), gender equality, migration, and social protection. The themes approached by ex-chapter 13 present points of common interest for other negotiation chapters such as Chapter 2 Free movement of persons, Chapter 7 Agriculture, Chapter 8 Fisheries, Chapter 15 Industrial policy, Chapter 16 Small and medium-sized enterprises, Chapter 18 Education and training, and Chapter 23 Consumer and health protection.

Regulations included in social policy and employment chapter do not require either the adoption of a particular regulation at the national level either the implementation of a particular rule. This process could be rather interpreted as a general important obligation to coordinate policies building a homogeny social framework towards EU treaty principles and rules (European Commission, 2004, p. 46).

Key elements included in the 2005 social policy and employment chapters are: employment, gender equality, anti-discrimination measures, health and work safety, social protection, social dialogue, public health. Comparatively, the sixth wave chapter include regulations relative to labour law, health and safety at work, social dialogue, employment policy, European Social Fund, social inclusion, social protection, anti-discrimination, and equal opportunities (European Commission, 2006, pp. 2-8)

Taking into account the amount of time requested for negotiating previsions included in chapter 13 "Social policy and employment", four categories of Central and East European countries could be identified. Candidate countries most "ready" to join EU were Malta, Latvia, and Slovakia. The second category in terms or readiness includes: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Lithuania, and Romania. Countries of the third category were: Estonia, Hungary, and Slovenia. The forth category of countries which needed the longest period of time included Check Republic and Poland. Two years of negotiations were registered in their cases. The analyse uses one semester of the EU presidency as common measurement indicator respecting the standard national accession reports as shown in the graph bellow.

Graph: Time allocation for adopting chapter 13 Employment and social policy by candidate countries from five enlargement wave

Sourse: Stanescu, 2013, p. 161

Legend: ☐ Provisionally closed ■ Finally closed
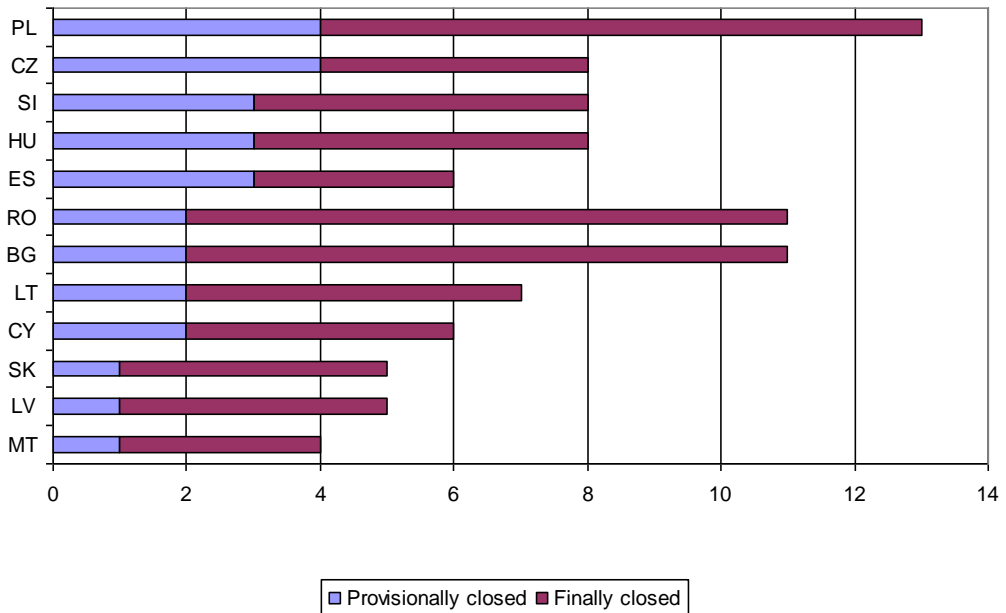
Referring to the fifth EU enlargement wave, from the time perspective, negotiation of social policy and employment chapter was open in 1999, 2000, and 2001. September 1999 represented the beginning of harmonisation for six countries: Check Republic, Cyprus, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, and Slovenia. Latest openness of the chapter for negotiation was registered in the case of Lithuania and Malta: November 2001. Transitory measures were established for Bulgaria, Malta, Poland, and Slovenia. They included aspects related to: work equipment, workplace, working time, noise at work and so on. For more details please see table 2 included in the annexes.

Conclusion and relevance

The paper focused at the way negotiation process in the social field towards adopting chapter employment and social policy shape and challenge the national social policies. Accomplishment of both communities' regulations as well common social goals included within Lisbon Strategy and latest Europe 2020 Strategy impose a closer research of social transformation developed within latest member states especially due to harmonisation of acquis communautaire.

Results support a better understanding of five and six EU enlargement waves' countries capacity to face common responsibilities and achieve EU goals such as Europe Strategy 2020. Last but not least, research outputs contribute to a smooth harmonisation of social regulations for countries preparing to join EU: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Kosovo, Montenegro, Serbia, and Turkey.

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Annexes

Table 1. Development by chapters of negotiations of the acquis communautaire used for fifth and sixth EU enlargement waves

Source: Stanescu, 2013, pp. 271-274

No.	Identical chapter		Modified chapter		New chapter	
	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement
	Chapter 1 – Free movement of goods					
			Chapter 2 – Free movement of persons	Chapter 2 - Freedom of movement for workers		
			Chapter 3 – Freedom to provide services	Chapter 3 – Right of establishment and freedom to provide services		
	Chapter 4					

No.	Identical chapter		Modified chapter		New chapter	
	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement
	Free movement of capital					
						Chapter 5 – Public procurement
	Chapter 5 (2004)/ 6 (2007) Company law					
						Chapter 7 – Intellectual property law
	Chapter 6 (2004)/ 8 (2007) Competition policy					
						Chapter 9 – Financial services
						Chapter 10 – Information society and media
			Chapter 7 – Agriculture	Chapter 11 – Agriculture and rural development		
						Chapter 12 – Food safety, veterinary and phytosanitary policy
	Chapter 8 (2004)/ 13 (2007) Fisheries					
	Chapter 9 (2004)/ 14 (2007) Transport policy					
	Chapter 10 (2004)/ 16 (2007) Taxation					
	Chapter 11 (2004)/ 17 (2007) Economic and monetary policy					
	Chapter 12 (2004)/ 18 (2007) Statistics					
	Chapter 13 (2004)/ 19 (2007) Social policy and employment					

No.	Identical chapter		Modified chapter		New chapter	
	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement
	Chapter 14 (2004)/ 15 (2007) Energy					
			Chapter 15 - Industrial policy	Chapter 20 – Enterprise and industrial policy		
			Chapter 16 - Small and medium-sized enterprises			
	Chapter 17 (2004)/ 25 (2007) Science and research					
			Chapter 18 - Education and training	Chapter 26 - Education and culture		
			Chapter 19 - Telecommunications and information technologies	Chapter 21 – Trans-European Networks		
					Chapter 20 - Culture and audio-visual policy	
	Chapter 21 (2004)/ 22 (2007) Regional policy and coordination of structural instruments					
						Chapter 23 – Judiciary and fundamental rights
	Chapter 22 (2004)/ 27 (2007) Environment					
	Chapter 23 (2004)/ 28 (2007) Consumer and health protection					
			Chapter 24 – Co-operation in the field of justice and home affairs	Chapter 24 – Justice, freedom and security		
	Chapter 25 (2004)/ 29 (2007) Customs union					
	Chapter 26 (2004)/ 30 (2007) External relations					

No.	Identical chapter		Modified chapter		New chapter	
	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement	5th enlargement	6th enlargement
			Chapter 27 - Common foreign and security policy	Chapter 31 - Foreign, security and defence policy		
	Chapter 28(2004)/ 32 (2007) Financial control					
	Chapter 29 (2004)/ 33 (2007) Financial and budgetary provisions					
	Chapter 30 (2004)/ 34 (2007) Institutions					
	Chapter 31 (2004)/ 35 (2007) Other issues					

Tabel 2. Negotiation of chapter 13 Social policy and employment by Central and East European countries of fifth enlargement

No.	Country	Chapter open	Provisionally closed	Closed	Transitional arrangements
	Bulgary	October 2001	April 2002	December 2004	maximum tar yield of cigarettes (till 31 December 2010)
	Cyprus	September 1999	March 2000	December 2002	-
	Czeck Republic	September 1999	May 2001	December 2002	-
	Estonia	September 1999	October 2000	December 2002	-
	Hungary	September 1999	November 2000	December 2002	-
	Latvia	February 2001	June 2001	December 2002	work equipment (til 1 July 2004) workplace (til 31 December 2004)
	Lithuania	November 2000	March 2001	December 2002	-
	Malta	November 2001	November 2001	December 2002	Working time (till 31 December 2004) Work equipment (till 2005)
	Poland	September 1999	March 2001	December 2002	Work equipment (till 2005)
	Romania	October 2001	April 2002	December 2004	-
	Slovakia	February 2001	May 2001	December 2002	-
	Slovenia	September 1999	November 2000	December 2002	Biological agents (till 2005) Noise at work (till 2005)

An Assessment Of Foreign Direct Investments Effects In Albania

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Abstract

In a country like Albania, Foreign Direct Investments (FDIs) are the main priority for economic growth and especially where they focus. Many developing countries (including our country) view these investments as unique opportunities to develop faster and increase the competition and the level of exports. We try to find in this work a link between FDIs and economic growth in Albania. We estimate in this framework some quantitative models, with some economic indicators as independent variables and with the level of foreign direct investment in Albania as a dependent variable. In this context, FDIs are dependent on many factors which can be classified as quantitative variables, like economic growth, average wages, foreign trade, GDP per capita, taxes, etc., and qualitative variables, like Index of Economic Freedom, infrastructure, secure internet servers, etc.

Key words: FDIs, developing economies, FDIs flows, economic growth.

INTRODUCTION

Foreign Direct Investments, in their classical form, are defined as a physical investment that a foreign entrepreneur does in a country other than his country of origin, by engaging his financial funds with the purpose of having returns over this investment. FDIs are investments that affect the growth of economical and political stability between the country of origin and the hosting country. Foreign investors benefit from certain facilities that are offered to them by the hosting country (that are not offered by the country of origin) and in return, they bring long-term investments to the hosting country. FDIs have become very quickly a very important element of growth, development and global economical integration during the 90's, (UNCTAD, 2003).

FDIs bring in the hosting country companies with a different culture and capacity, compared with existing companies in that market, by bringing change, even radical sometimes, in the way goods and services are perceived and offered and of standards in the entire sector. All of this, effects the economical growth in general, but in countries like Albania, they increase first of all the employment. The employment growth in the production industry has been one of the most obvious benefits from FDIs for Eastern European countries during 1995 – 2010 (UNCTAD, Trade and Development Report 2012, pg. 86-93). Seen in this context, (as per reasons mentioned above) both country of origin and hosting country have economical development and growth.

Countries that respect authorship and patent rights, invest in research and development and use innovative technology and software's, have a focus in building and increasing capacities of their working force, become very soon major attractions for foreign investors. It's related to many advantages in the country's market and also according to competiveness in global markets.

THE EFFECT OF FDIs IN DEVELOPING ECONOMIES

The effects of FDIs in the economy are multidimensional; FDIs in Albania are in the form of shared equity, in almost 80%[1] of cases, and in the form of initial capital and additional contributions. The first full legal basis in Albania concerning FDIs are founded under the Law No.7764, 2.11.1993, "On Foreign Investments" with a status derived from Law No.7594, 4.8.1992, "On Foreign Investments". Legislation in Albania make sure that foreign investors and local investors have equal rights. We can find in the table below some main practical advantages and disadvantages of FDIs in Albania.

Tab.1:   Impact of FDIs in developing economies (the case of Albania):

The Effect of FDIs in developing economies	
Advantage	Disadvantage
FDIs are pure funding sources, even for the development of projects of large scale. They offer new opportunities of development (in preparation of agreements with foreign clients, due to entering in the international market). FDIs are long-term and strategic investments (the focus of the company is the long-term activity with development perspectives). High performance (FDIs are investments that influence the use of new technology, new capacities and more efficiency). Increase of employment and quality of management in the hosting country. Reduction of the cost of capital (foreign investors can increase the amount of capital in international markets by reducing the level of capital cost). They increase significantly the quality aspect, both for goods and services, making it comparable to the standards of developed countries.	Repatriation of profits by foreign owners, given that FDIs in Albania have 80% of their stock in shared capital, a large proportion of profit (if net profit is expected to be positive) will go out of country as a dividend, meaning that we will have a movement of capital from our country to the countries of origin. Negative impact in current account (repatriation of profits; outflows can also be funds of financial nature for various non-resident creditors in Albania, e.g., in 2008 'Albanian Mobile Communication' gave a loan to the parent company in Greece). The deficit of domestic capital or foreign capital (this is not even potentially problematic for Albania). If foreign capital exceeds certain limits or parameters of an economy in equilibrium, it can create an economic dependency on foreign investors.

According to official statistics, the average annual of stock of foreign investments in Albania for the years 2001 – 2011 is spread in these countries of origin:

Tab. 2:   The average annual stock or FDIs in Albania, 2001 – 2011.

Country of origin	Total in millions Euro	Percentage over the total
Greece	558.4	23.6%
Italy	326.6	13.8%
Austria	280.2	11.8%
Turkey	228.4	9.6%
Netherlands	227.8	9.6%
Canada	194.2	8.2%
Switzerland	79.0	3.3%
Germany	72.2	3.0%
Other	405.2	17.1%

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[1] National Bank of Albania, "Report on Foreign Direct Investments, 2011".

Source: Bank of Albania, 2013.

The average annual stock of FDIs in Albania for the years 2001 – 2011 is concentrated mostly in the sectors of 'Financial Intermediation', 'Transport, warehousing and communications' and 'Refining Industry'. We can see table 3 for a more detailed classification.

Tab. 3: Dispersion of FDIs for each sector, 2001 – 2011.

Economy sector	Total in million Euro	Percentage over the Total
Financial Intermediation	627.4	26.5%
Transport, warehousing and communications	424.4	17.9%
Refining Industry	392.4	16.5%
Productions Industry	228.4	9.6%
Trade (big and small quantities)	212.6	9.0%
Constructions	186.0	7.8%
Production and delivery of electricity	88.2	3.7%
Hotels and restaurants	82.6	3.5%
Other	130	5.5%

Source: Bank of Albania, 2013.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

In this section, we analyze several economic indicators, which are related to the development and growth of FDIs flows. We consider time series data with an annual period, from 2001 to 2011.

Tab. 4: Annual empirical data for Albania, 2001 – 2011.

Year	FDIs net inflows /GDP	Economic Growth	OP/GDP (foreign trade)	Average monthly wage (in ALL)	Index of Economic Freedom	Secure Internet servers for 100 inhabitants	Gross capital formation /GDP	Fiscal Burden
2001	0.0507	0.07	0.60	14, 820	56.60	1.00	0.2755	0.1017
2002	0.0303	0.03	0.67	16, 541	56.80	1.00	0.2449	0.1084
2003	0.0315	0.06	0.67	18, 522	56.80	1.00	0.2344	0.1197
2004	0.0457	0.06	0.65	19, 039	58.50	2.00	0.2384	0.1194
2005	0.0313	0.06	0.68	19, 993	57.80	1.00	0.2360	0.1399
2006	0.0356	0.05	0.74	21, 842	60.30	5.00	0.2505	0.1494
2007	0.0609	0.06	0.84	27, 350	61.40	8.00	0.2976	0.1304
2008	0.0957	0.06	0.86	34, 277	62.40	15.00	0.3213	0.1471
2009	0.1108	0.08	0.82	36, 075	63.70	22.00	0.2891	0.1495
2010	0.0919	0.03	0.86	34, 767	66.00	27.00	0.2579	0.1480
2011	0.1056	0.04	0.90	35, 949	64.00	44.00	0.2534	0.1438

Based on empirical data and on the relation of variables in the following tables, we can create some regression models that indicate statistically significant connections between the dependent variable, FDIs net inflows/GDP, and other several independent variables.

Tab.5: Economic indicators and their explanation

Code of the variable	Economic Indicator	Description	Source of data
Y	FDIs net inflows/GDP	It is the best indicator of the level of net inflows of foreign investment in the economy.	World Bank
X1	Economic Growth	Increase in % of GDP. Grogan and Moers (2001), found a statistically important relation between economic growth and FDIs inflows in economies in transition, for the studied period (from 1990 to 1998).	World Bank
X2	OP/GDP (foreign trade)	The amount of imports and exports of goods and services (OP) in relation to GDP. According to Wheeler and Mody (1992), there is a positive relationship between OP and manufacturing sector and a weak negative correlation with the electronic sector.	World Bank
X3	Average monthly wage (in ALL)	As one of the most important voices of the business operating costs, salary expenses are an attractive factor for foreign investors when the wage standard is low. Charkrabarti (2001) concluded that there is a stable connection between average wages and FDIs.	INSTAT
X4	Index of Economic Freedom	This index takes values from 0 to 100. The index itself consists of 10 other variables that are weighted. This index measures the entrepreneurial abilities of a country. Economic freedom "is the key to creating an environment that allows a virtuous cycle of entrepreneurship, innovation, and economic growth and sustained development to flourish (The Heritage Foundation, THF, p. 2) .	WHF & WSJ
X5	Secure Internet servers for 100 inhabitants.	Improved facilities range from simple but protected pit latrines to flush toilets with a sewerage connection. To be effective, must swear facilities constructed correctly and properly maintained.	World Bank
X6	Gross capital formation/ GDP	It is a ratio of tax revenues to GDP (in $). Favourable fiscal policies encourage both local and foreign business. According to the study of Egger and Raff (2011), taxes have a significant effect on attracting FDIs flows.	World Bank
X7	Fiscal Burden	Servers using encryption technology in Internet transactions. This indicator is considered as determining for the technological development of the use of internet. Technological development and FDIs flows have a significant positive connection, according to the study of Neuhaus (2006).	World Bank

Based on these variables we can create several regression models as shown in the table below.

Tab. 6:   Variables used in the models and their explanations.

Variable	Econometric Models		
	Y(I)	Y(II)	Y(III)
X1			
X2			
X3			
X4			
X5			
X6			
X7			
$Y_1(I) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 \log(x_3) + \alpha_5 x_5 + \alpha_6 x_6 + \alpha_7 x_7 + \varepsilon$			
$Y_1(II) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 \log(x_3) + \alpha_4 \log(x_4) + \alpha_5 x_5 + \alpha_6 x_6 + \alpha_7 x_7 + \varepsilon$			
$Y_1(III) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 \log(x_3) + \alpha_5 x_5 + \alpha_6 x_6 + \alpha_7 x_7 + \varepsilon$			

Note: ✓ included in the model, ✗ not included in the model.

We represent in table 7 the level of statistical importance for the selected variables, for each model. We observe that all the coefficients are statistically significant.

Tab. 7:   Level of statistical importance of selected variables

Variable	Econometric Models		
	Y(I)	Y(II)	Y(III)
X1			-0.109*
			(0.049)
X2	-0.290**	-0.292**	-0.325**
	(0.022)	(0.016)	(0.023)
X3	0.267**	0.249**	0.285**
	(0.022)	(0.018)	(0.018)
X4		0.160*	
		(0.067)	
X5	0.001**	0.001**	0.001**
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
X6	0.405**	0.407**	0.445**
	(0.035)	(0.025)	(0.032)
X7	-0.347**	-0.362**	-0.327**
	(0.082)	(0.060)	(0.062)
Adjusted R2	0.996	0.998	0.998

Note: Numbers in parentheses are t ratios. * and ** denote significance at 10% and 5%, respectively. According to test F, the statistical importance is 5%.

CONCLUSION

For the hosting country, the existence of FDIs is associated with the introduction of new technologies and more efficient capacities, intake of additional capital in the economy, more advanced technical and managerial skills, increased economic competitiveness (in terms of vertical and horizontal expansion or both), etc. According to UNCTAD (2012), investment of international corporate companies played an irreplaceable role in the globalization process.

In this regard, this study had as main focus to show statistically significant relation of FDIs inflows / GDP, with the main indicators of the Albanian economy. In this study we took 11 years (from 2001-2011), taking into account limitations on obtaining the data. We also did not take into consideration the Albanian economic recession of 1997 – 1998, a period with major influential forces in the denaturalization of the variables.

From this study, we conclude that the dependent variable, FDIs inflows / GDP ratio, is negatively correlated with the economic growth (% GDP), the level of external trade (import and export), fiscal burden, and has a positive correlation with the use of services through internet for every 100 inhabitants, the average wage level, and a positive strong correlation with the level of GDP invested in fixed assets.

 Above results emphasize the significant relationship according to theoretical background. We affirm that FDIs in Albania will create possibilities for the development of businesses (local enterprises), and improve the standard of living in the country. They will reduce the level of unemployment in Albania, and improve the infrastructure standards and conservation of the environment. They will also affect positively the growth, the organization and the connection of market parts and will contribute to the consolidation of the whole national economy.

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Developing a sense of identity in preschoolers

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Abstract

Identity is understood as the whole feeling of personality, a sense of continuity and stability in spite of numerous changes and impacts that the person is exposed to. A sense of identity starts to form in childhood, with active participation of people from children' and the social environment. Children from birth tend to develop a sense of ownership, identity. The authors cite several types of identities: the social, cultural, personal, ethnic, racial, sexual, national, and in the case of children, especially adolescents, we examine the concept of peer (group) identity, etc. Obviously, children who feel worthy and capable are mostly more optimistic and better students. Also, healthy sense of identity helps children to be more open to other communities, and not to fear from differences. A healthy sense of identity helps children to feel better about themselves. This paper deals with the analysis of the ways in which preschool children are encouraged to the identity development, what are the teachers' attitudes about the identity development in preschoolers, what are their support methods and strategies about identity development, do preschool children understand the concept of identity, do they have encouraging environment for developing and nurturing a positive sense of identity. Also one of the questions was what type of identity is the most developed for preschool children. The research was conducted using: a questionnaire for preschool teachers (which included 50 teachers working in kindergartens at the municipality of Niksic) and interview protocol for preschool children (which included twenty five children aged 4 and 5 years attending preschool institutions of the municipality of Niksic). It has been found that teachers are helping children to develop a sense of group identity and self-identity, that they are respecting children needs and helping children in their development. The most common teachers' activities are helping children in performing certain tasks, monitoring children's needs, building a portfolio for each child, etc. The strongest factors which had influences to the identity development are the families, the social groups to which children belong, social conditions, as well as traditions and cultural milieu. Children mostly have developed sense of the self, family and group identity, and they said that teachers implement many activities about identity development. Most of the interviewed children already have a clear idea about their own identity and future plans they want to achieve.

Keywords: identity, children, preschoolers, preschool teachers, group identity, self-identity, positive sense of identity, family

Introduction

We understand identity as a sense of a whole personality, sense of consistency and stability in spite of changes and numerous influences person is exposed to. From beginnings human seeks to reveal who he is, what he is striving to, and what are his values. Said in other words he wants to find his identity.

Word identity dates from Latin language, from word identitas, meaning identical (Trebjesanin, 2012, p.116). Through the idea of self-identity, we try to answer the key question- "Who am I?".

Studding the identity is often connected with Ericson, who developed the concepts and crisis of identity progress. Still, the concept of identity dates back from ancient times, and it can be associated with Plato's views (Gerson, 2012). Cooley realized significance and influence of social interaction on developing individual identity at the beginning of twentieth century, and he was the first who studied the identity development (Cooley, toward Willis, 2013). Later, Mid (1934) and Ericson (1968) continued his work and deal with the studing of the social influences, interaction and communication on identity development (Willis, 2013). During the time, the concept of identity connects with culture and society as the mail factors. Also, very important segments were sense of friendship, so as taking parts in society, in which individual exists.

Ericson separates group (social) identity, ego identity and personal identity (Ericson, 2008, p.34). Appiah (toward Mesic, 2006, p.284) points out the existence of two dimensions of individual identity: collective (which were based on religion, "race", sexuality, or ethnicity), and personal (based on some morally important characteristics as intelligence, charm, spirituality and so). Both of categories affect the social life, but still collective identity is seen as social category. Most of the time, identity concept is mixed with self-concept. Ericson made distinction here. He sees self-concept as something connected with others, while identity is complex self-concept, which is above self-concept including significant parts from

individuals' present and past (Ericson, 1968, p.78). Most people who researched this concept agree with Ericson that person isn't born with certain identity, but identity is getting formed during time (Willis, 2013).   Therefore, we shouldn't neglect the early childhood period as a strong base to develop sense of individual's identity.

Marsia and Kroger (2011) recognize identity as a compound concept connected with different values. Those are: self-respect, anxiety, authority, moral progress and ego progress (Ericson's ego identity).

At the Convention of United Nations devoted to children rights in early childhood, it's pointed that early childhood is the base for physical, psychological and mental health, emotional security, cultural and personal identity, so as development of various competences (United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2005: Paragraph 6(e)).

Infants, even if they can't speak, they use body, vocal and facial expressions to show their satisfaction or protest. Somewhere in that period their first social contacts with others start. At fourth month kids start to develop intense (satisfaction of their needs). At eighteen months they make clear distinction of others, and in with two years they can point their needs and wishes clearly. The first sense of autonomy is also showed, which is specific in basing on relation addicted-non-addicted. Pre-schoolers begin to be aware of other people needs and senses, so as they provoke people's reaction. At the age of five, six, before going to school, social possibilities are multiplying. That's the period when they connect with kids from different cultures and when they meet with different life situations (Seefeld and Barbour, 1998).

Children identity is forming through possibilities, advances, so as boundaries in front of him. So, Hurlock considers that identity is "idea of how individual sees himself, his possibilities, characteristics and relations with people around him". The idea about self has 2: physical and psychological factors. First ones relates to the concept of individual and his physical characteristics, while second (psychological) relate to the features significant for finding a way in life as honesty, independence etc. (Hurlock-toward Kamenov, 2008, p.243). Kamenov said that both child's identity and unconditional assimilation to society don't represent full independence of individual despite society (2008). Ericson thinks that by this way, person stands on his foot includes in society and builds his sense of self (1963, p. 244).

Forming identity in early childhood is complex concept which changes along with child's experiences, activities, relations with others, responsibilities and obligations (Brooker and Woodhead, 2008, p.1).

Before school starting most of the children have already formed picture about where they are, what's their role at home, in preschool institutions, neighbourhood and according to way we treat them they build sense of who they are.

During the study of identity we must take into consideration the significance of milieu, the way in which it's presented. Authors point out more types of identity: social, cultural, personal, ethnic, racial, sexual, while in the case of children, especially adolescents we can also point out concept of coeval (group) identity, and so. Human can adjust in several types of identity, mostly belong various identities in different life periods.

Socialisation process is very essential for any kind of understanding a child which is conditioned by numerous factors.

Child is not constancy, universal product which functions as protected sole, but social being.   Identity development starts from experiences, that are children seek for new ideas of self and others, modify the present, while confronting with his/hers social and physical society. In order to set identity it's necessary to feel ourselves as independent person.

At the begging (by birth), this self-sense is made through connection with one person, mainly the mother, so that later it would involve more people (Research Digest – Standard 14 Identity and Belonging, 2007). In order to understand the progress of child's identity through childhood, personal engagement and child's activity in cultural life, we must recognize identity and personality even in infants (Rogoff, toward Brooker and Wood head, 2008, p.4).

Important part of childhood is developing the sense of self or personal identity. Developing personal identity is dynamic process which is seen through various activities and relationships in everyday life at home, in community, and in kindergarten. We can describe identity as constructing, building and reconstructing of a child through his/hers reactions with parents, teachers, peers and others (Brooker, 2008, p.6).

Modern theories comprehend identity as a complex while soles are described by the help of more identities. It's all conditioned by changes of cultural and social context, which have influence on individuals to develop new identities, and mainly existed ones (Brooker, 2008, p.10). In accordance to most of the authors, it can be said that when child first enters the kindergarten, he carries with himself the certain identity which is very essential for later building of child's personality. Child might come from family where he/her is treated as a "family star", then he/she might be just another family member and at the end might be an outsider or respected member.

It's clear that children at different ages have different picture of themselves, and the picture depends also on child's position in family. Several researchers from many western countries indicate that experiences that children get from home and from nearest environment affect development of thinking, talking, behaviour, which later indicates their progress in school.

If there is stimulating environment it doesn't mean a lot without a person who is between child and environment, who stimulates and gives directions to child (Kamenov, 2008a, p.169).

If we observe child's development, so as his/her identity development, we must look at the social context in which child is educated. Social context is composed from family structure, cultural heredity and political-economic conditions. From birth to adolescence and later, human sole is exposed to different, often confronted influences (Pennington, 2004).

We encourage children to understand and accept some of common norms (implementing certain rules, respecting rights and values) by helping them to develop positive personal and group identity. These values consist of rights for piece, human rights for solidarity and equal possibilities, so as development of personal responsibility. This can be achieved through numerous activities such as songs, telling stories, various cultural celebrations, playing roles etc. these are some of the things parents and teachers use to ensure that their work brings positive sense of identity and belonging. Settling this type of identity later develops better relationships with others, prevents violence and discrimination, and develops competency and sense of useness and responsibility within children. Sometimes, it is of great importance for progress of child's identity to make contact with people outside their home, because their position in that case would be defined in spite the way they represent themselves and of constructed personality, not in the case where family accept them being what they are.

Those accepted kids will mainly seek to develop acceptable features of personality (for certain society) (Hurlock toward Kamenov, 2008). Kids that are accepted are mostly leaders, full of security, self-confidence and carring, which results that they are favourite ones. They successfully set social relationships.

Friendship helps to overall situations in which children feel vulnerable. It is also important for both adults and kids, even for very little ones. It can also lead to new picture of themselves including stronger feeling of self as a member of certain gender, age, and ethnical origin (Danby, toward Brooked and Woodhead, 2008, p.36). During plays and conversations with peers children often study new values and models of behaviour. Participation in coevals' groups gives children sense of collective identity which differs one that children share with others. Although during early childhood interact mostly with parents, after first years, some other factors have influence. Coevals take a significant place. Some researchers show that two years old child interacts with other children, which increases as child groves up (Helper, toward Spasenovic, 2008). Therefore, we cannot neglect coevals' influence on forming pre-schooler identity.

Will child build his/her attitude toward confidence in their own strength and environment depends on self-awareness and relationship with children in small groups, and then will accept the world as inclined and opened place. Child needs to prove, to acknowledge and accomplish his/her self. Preschool period some also call "period of pride "witch represents not only resistance toward authorities, but also pride on their achievements.

Small children are especially proud of something they do or make, so they need to be additionally stimulated and encouraged (Elkind toward Kamenov, 2008, p. 247). All the process should be folloved with adults' support. That's how children will form the picture of themselves as worthy and capable persons, good friends and participants in activities at kindergarten and family. In that way it can also affect child's socialization and dealing with disciplinary issues within group (Aysacks, toward Kamenov, 2008, p. 247).

Children build identity and adopt cultural worthy skills, knowledge and attitudes through relations with others. İn this case, parents or tutors are main stimulators to realize children rights (UN Committee for Children rights, paragraph 16). Family experiences help and offer opportunity for children to develop identity which has some cultural features and is still unique for every child.

Zvonarevic divides child development into two phases. According to him, first development phase contains dividing self from others, so that later would follow the phase of accepting self as object. According to Pijage attitude Zvonarevic claims that child at first lives as no divided person, and later becomes aware of his/her existence as individual.

At early period other people, family, coevals, society… have influence on creating picture of themselves and building self-identity. This influence on creating a picture of his/her self so as building the self-identity is more significant and crucial in early childhood.

Accepting the concept of oneself process often has hierarchical character. Child builds primary founds of identity in family, through relationship with parents and other family members, identification with one or both parents, through acknowledgement, parents' expectation and so (Kamenov, 2008, p. 244). Concept of identity often finds its basis in

multiculturalism. When looking from this aspect it represents connection and attraction of those who share it. This kind of role could have also positive and negative aspects, in certain way it can capture members of social community, even when they want to change it.

Teacher, like everyone who works with children is confronted with important roles. Child needs help to build his/her personal sense, and belonging. As to accomplish that, it is essential to understand child and comprehend the way he/she's thinking, his/her interests, wishes, needs and so.

If we want to work on child's attitude in a proper way, it is necessary that teacher treats child as a whole positive personality that is to always focus on what is positive in every child. If punishing a child, this should be done with much more attention, so as to accomplish desired results, and at the same time to avoid negative consequences.

If we want to provoke child's changes, we should be very careful so that teacher's role could be played properly (Kamenov, 2008). Child is not a small human, therefore he/she shouldn't be module by ideas of adults, nor should we change whole child's personality. In preschool period and everywhere else is necessary to respect child's personality, to respect his individual rights, but also to help them to be actively involved in daily routine.

Method

Participants

Our research included 50 teachers who work in kindergartens in Niksic municipality (all examined were females). In this example there were also 25 children at the age 4 and 5 who go to these kindergartens (twelve-48per cent boys and 13 girls (52 per cent)).

Materials

We gathered the answers from teachers who filled the questionnaire, written for this occasion. The questionnaire had closed and opened questions, so teachers could give their opinion about the topic. The first part of questionnaire consists questions about general data which are named for teachers (gender, years they work, groups they are working or worked in). Other questions were about our research topic. There we set questions about types of identities of pre-schoolers, influence of factors, and also the possible environment which stimulates pre-schooler's progress. We also used an interview protocol (also designed for this opportunity) for children of the age of 4 and 5 (senior kindergarten group). Within the interview, we tried to see the way these children get the concept of identity, do they see their home and preschool as stimulating environment for identity progress, and if they have a vision of their own identity, now and in the future.

Procedure

After creating we checked instruments. We find out that it took 10-15 minutes to fill in the questionnaire and about 30 minutes to answer the questions during interview. Research was organized in March and April of 2014. The questionnaires were distributed by hand, and interviews were held orally and put down by authors.

Before approaching the questioning, we've done all needed consulting with preschool management and with candidates. It was agreed with candidates what is suitable time for successful interviewing and questioning. Such collected data, was gathered in specially constructed tables, and then came their statistical arrangement and interpretation.

Results

The aim of our research was to affirm the way that identity progress within the pre-schoolers can be stimulated. We strived to affirm and research following tasks:

Which type of identity is mainly recognized within the pre-schoolers, and what are ways and methods to stimulate its progress;

Teachers' states about the factors which have influence in identity progress of children;

Are children raised in supportive environment for identity progress;

Which way the children get the concept of identity.

We got the results that represent the qualitative and quantitative evidences. As for better site of this work, we joined these evidences in few categories, so that we can consider and discuss them.

Types of identity within pre-schoolers and their progress stimulation

As we have shown, there is large number of identity taxonomy, the fact that there are certain age periods in which certain types are developed (Ericson, 2008:29-63) and the possibility that person could belong to numerous identities (Mesic, 2006:281-282).

In the aim of researching this segment, following questions were set for the teachers:

Is it necessary for children to develop sense of group identity?

There are 80 per cent or 40 teachers considering that it is essential to nourish both group identity in a way of peers identity and communal identity, the group in which child spends time. There are 16 per cents or 8 teachers thinking that this is not essential. Mostly, development of this type of identity is stimulated by group projects, dividual games, contests, mutual helping each other.

Is it essential to develop a strong sense of self-identity that is/i.e., is it essential for children to feel respected and unique in their preschool?

In the return we found that questioned teachers, 96 per cent or 48 of them, think that children should develop strong sense of self-identity, so as they should feel respected and unique in their preschools. The good story is that no one of the questioned teachers thought that these children shouldn't nourish the sense of self-identity. Listening the children needs, wishes, interests teacher tried to stimulate this, and by knowing every single child, and respecting their autonomy they stimulate them to respect and valorise their own achievements.

Do you find that family and its relationship have influence on identity progress?

All the questioned teachers have answered that family and its relationship are important to identity development. They said that family is the base of children's life; it represents their first model, inexhaustible fount of love and respect in which their identity starts and continues to develop later in their life. They said that unfortunately, family could affect negatively on developing identity and self-confident, in case that child is neglected, oppressed or maltreated.

Is it necessary for children to build a sense of multiculturalism?

It is known that we recognise multiculturalism, and its nourishment to be very strong developing component in modern society (Mesic, 2006:35-40). To confirm the story, we have answers given from teachers. This shows that there are 40 of them (80 per cent) thinking that the sense of multiculturalism should be nourished among children, while others don't agree with this point. Nourishing the sense of multiculturalism helps children to build both, their identity and sense for accept and meet differences, so as to respect them, and to learn how to live in today's era of internet, globalisation and large number of cultures and societies.

The sense of identity we see already within children of six, seven months. (This was the issue of multiple choices, so teachers could choose more claims to agree with.)   As we can see at table 1. , they help with:

Almost every questioner (48 or 96 per cent) helps children to meet both, themselves and the environment they live in. 94per cent or 47 of them are building a portfolio for each child by which they can follow their progress and improvement. High per cent of them (90 per cent, 45 teachers) plan to visit local community, there 88 per cent or 44 of those who meet children with natural phenomena, common society etc., 43 of them (86per cent) are providing time for children to play together, then 60 per cent of them insist that children play with others of different age. There are even 74 per cent those who try to help children recognize themselves as personality, and 33, or 66 per cent of them who helps infants to understand their physical abilities. All the claiming we can accept as a very good fact, considering the number of 60 per cent or more, so as the fact that interviewed kids (100 per cent) said that they work in groups in their kindergarten, that members of groups (24 questioned, or 96 per cent) occasionally have their own tasks, they are respected by teachers, and they recognize the supportive environment in kindergartens (92 per cent of them). Also, all children (24 of them or 100 per cent) are taking part in performances organized in preschool.

Factors that have influence on children identity development

In order to examine this part we asked teachers:

Do you think that social structure and occasions have influence on preschoolers identity forming?

For 86 per cent of teacher social structure and occasions are important factors during identity form. Only 6 per cent consider this unimportant. Teachers think that social occasions affect the sense of secure which children need to form a personality. Connected with society, child builds his own personality, statements, values and self-awareness. Even those who think those social occasions don't effect on forming identity, acknowledge that they still affect indirectly, because a human is a part of society and can't live, work, or develop outside of it.

Is identity forming affected by tradition and cultural milieu?

46 or 92 per cent of questioners think that this is very important in identity forming, but yet there are 6per cent who think otherwise. Teachers said that child could know and accept himself and also to know his tradition and culture. Cultural milieu and tradition also affect families in which children grow up, and this we recognized as very important. Also, we think that child should keep and nourish tradition of his society, and yet to keep his identity.

Are children friendships important to build identity?

High per cent (92) of teachers see children friendship as important thing to build identity. That is if child build healthy relations with his peers, he will feel more secure and happier, and his socialization will be better. All this will affect positively on development of group and personal identity.

Does the peer acceptance affect the identity development?

There are 90 per cent teachers thinking that peer acceptance is very important during identity building within preschoolers. In that way child is accepted and his role in group is understood, and he will improve self-confidence, and have supportive atmosphere. If coevals accept him, child feels love and happiness, which will affect positively on forming his identity.

We have already pointed out how teachers feel about importance of both family and multiculturalism sense, which had enormous influence on preschoolers identity forming. In interviewing children we found out that they have strong feelings when it comes to importance of being with their coevals, named that most of them (80 per cent) said that they love going to kindergarten because of friends, and that most of the time they feel cheer happy and fine there. 60 per cent of them do some tasks with their best friend or with someone picked by their teacher. Family is also important for 80 per cent of them, and they said its fine, good and secure at home.

Supportive environment for identity building

Do you seek to acquaint every child in group, and to respond to their needs and requests? This was a multiple choice question, and teachers could choose more claims to agree with. Question was presented in table 2. These were the answers:

Most of the teachers (94 per cent) said that they know biological rhythm children in their group. 90 per cent react quickly to children calls and need, with couple of them (38 per cent) who try to learn few words of foreign language in case there were such children in group, while 38 per cent of teachers are trying to make domestic atmosphere in preschool.

To develop identity in a proper way, it's important to respect child's interests, needs, rights and desires. This was also issue of multiple choices, where teachers could choose more offered questions. Results were presented in table3.

All the questioners observe and listen carefully to what children want to say and stimulate them to speak properly. Almost everyone (98 per cent) is trying to sympathize with kids and help them if they are worried and scared. Same percentages of them read them stories and try to stimulate their creativity. 96 per cent or 48 teachers make effort to enable every child their own place for stuff. High percentage (94) of teachers is emphasising children work, and 90 per cent are trying to respect and valorise things important to children. 86per cent or 43 teachers encourage children to spend time with each other and learn names of each other. 68per cent of teachers talks with children about different types of families, cultures, religions, while other helps children to do their tasks.

In table 4. answers to question were presented: During the identity building process it's essential to stimulate children to move towards the proper way, by working with them (many answers can be circled):

Knowing the importance of supporting the proper psychophysical development, teachers try to support this whenever they have opportunity. Almost everyone (98 per cent) encourage children to improve themselves by emphasising their work, so other can see it, and also same percentage stimulate them to give approval to others success. Even 96per cent of them try to find talents and gifts of children, so they talk to children about their individual potentials and interests. Many of them (94 per cent or 47 teachers) give positive example by trying to speak correctly; also there is the same percentage of those insisting on celebrating holidays with children, and 86 per cent of those who encourage discussions about children work,

game and about listening each other in group. Numerous 41 or 82 per cent of teachers stimulate children to be active in learning, so as to choose activities they are involved in within the group, while 80 per cent try to make children discuss about certain attitudes, feeling, motivations and so. Most of the children (72 per cent or 18 interviewed) said they are asked about their opinion when it is about an issue at home, and 60 per cent or 15 of them said that for preschool.

Concept of identity-in the eyes of pre-schoolers

We've interviewed early primaries. 72 per cent of interviewed live in nuclear families while others live in multigenerational families. There weren't statistic significant differences between answers of children from these two types of families. Kids are aware of their role in society, 88 per cent of them completely, and 12 per cent know partially. They know how to behave at school, and 100 per cent know how to behave at home. More than half of them (56 per cent) behave the same way, while others have different form of form behaving at school and at home.   As we already said, the significant percentage has part in making decisions. 96 per cent of children help each other to do some tasks. Some of them even help adults at home if necessary.   All interviewed have a best friend, they get along well with them and most of the time they help each other.   When it comes to idols, some of children (46 per cent) find them in a character of parents, brother, sister, grandmother or grandfather. Some children see a teacher as an idol (28 per cent) while other see them in friends (20 per cent) or even in sympathies (12 per cent). Most of the interviewed children (80 per cent) admit their mistake when they are not right. At the question "Who are you?" we got different answers which we sorted in 4 similar categories. Some of them, 36 per cent, recognize themselves by names; 28 per cent classifies themselves by gender, 20 per cent by religion or nationality, while 16 per cent recognized themselves as son, daughter, grandson or sister. Most of the interviewed children accept and understand their interests, and are aware of the fact that it is easier to learn something you like. They can clearly divide their wishes and possibilities. At the final question "What do you want to be when you grow up?" we got varies answers, among which were pilot, teacher, sportsman, dentist, singer, actor, vet and other. One boy even said he would like to be 8 years old. Mainly, wishes are connected with children possibilities, so as influences from different sides.

Discussion

Child starts to build identity from his/her birth. Parents and teachers, who are responsible for development of child's identity, also have influence on child's self-understanding, because in preschools they learn how to react, build and keep friendships, so as how to confront to different conflicts (Research Digest – Standard 14 Identity and Belonging, 2007).

It is come to knowledge that teachers try to develop child's sense of group identity, and self-identity. By helping such as with working on tasks, knowing child's needs making portfolio of every child, acknowledging and stimulating them to work better, they support their identity development. Factors that have most influence on forming identity are: family, mutual groups which children belong to, social occasions, tradition and cultural milieu, influence of peers and sense of multiculturalism. Mostly, children develop sense of self, group and family identity, and pointed out almost every activity that teachers quoted. Children are growing up mainly in stimulus environment, in kindergartens teachers take care of their needs, they support their physical development, and they respect children' interests, needs, rights and desires. Kids pointed out that most of the time they are taking part in making decisions at home and preschool, and that they usually have clear picture about self-identity and further plans and identities they want to achieve.   As noticed, the teachers' effort, the one that relates on personality development, is very visible, so as the building of identity within children of early ages.

In order to help children to develop identity, its necessary they understand that making decisions and choices is normal part of growing up, and that it's quite normal to feel insecure about that. Since, parents and coevals have strong influence on preschoolers; it should help them to properly fit into society, so that they don't lose sense of self identity.

Positive personal and group identity promotion is possible when:

Promoting the understanding that everyone should have own identity, family structure, character, senses and ways of behavior.

Upgrading senses of respecting a child, emphasizing his/her positive sides, relying on child's strengths, styles, possibilities, which develops self-confidence and relationship based on mutual understanding and respect.

Better understanding of emotions, child's behavior, so as effects they have on others.

Encouraging "healthy societies" which valorizes and understands influence of prevention health performing, necessary for children sake (Research Digest – Standard 14 Identity and Belonging, 2007).

Children can develop positive sense of themselves and self-value through love, support, stimulation and approvals. Through this period adults can help children develop sense of identity upon skills and emotions which would make them easier to understand acceptance of differences, to show their attitudes about equalities and differences, and also to understand influences of their attitudes and values on children.

Children can be helped to develop positive sense of identity within local communities or microsystems (Bronfrebrener, 1997). There is no unique recipe that can help in building identity, coordinating self-awareness, achievements and believes, in developing individual senses or social group membership. It's important that they develop certain competences, knowledge and skills based on culture, and also to accomplish emotional satisfaction (Brooner and Woodhead, 2008, p.12). Unfortunately, the identity process comes not always with positive outcome; although we often idealize early childhood period (i.e. it is considered that this is the period of life with no negative outcome). First task for children is to differ themselves from their parents, family, environment, so that by time they could make differences according to gender and ethnicity.

Methods for child's personality development are often very delicate, especially when trying to provoke changes, so it is necessary to use them carefully. Child's personality must be respected and he/she should be treated as individual with personal rights. On the other side, child needs help in overall his impulses and accepting certain rules in society (Isaac, toward Kamenov, 2008, p.248).

All this together helps to overall barriers during child's development, to accept his/her changes, to learn, improve and participate in society. These numerous activities and processes will affect the developing and forming child's identity, and also canalizing positive or negative children' development.

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Tables

Table 1. Sense of identity starts to develop within children of six, seven months. To help I: (Many can be cycled)

	Frequency	Per cent %
I try to help infants understand their physical abilities	33	66
I help children to recognize their personality	37	74
I try to make children more opportunities for learning with all senses	41	82
I make portfolio for each child	47	94
I insist that children play with others of different age	39	78
I help them meet themselves and environment	48	96
I provide time when children can play together	44	88
I meet children with natural phenomena, common society, etc.	44	88
I plan visits to local community (parks, malls, libraries, playing yards	45	90

Table 2. Do you seek to acquaint every child in group, and to respond to their needs and requests? Circle the states you agree with (many can be circled)

	Frequency	Per cent %
I know biological rhythm of children's from my group	47	94
I try to make domestic atmosphere to children in class	19	38
I try to learn few word of foreign language, if there are such children in class, so they could feel comfortable	20	40
I try to react quickly on children' calls (if they cry, are disturbed, etc.)	45	90

Table 3. For developing child's identity in a proper way, it's important to respect their needs, interests, rights and wishes. Therefore: (Many can be cycled)

	Frequency	Per cent %
I observe and listen carefully to what children have to say and stimulate them to speak correctly	50	100
I sympathize with children and help them when they are worried or scared	49	98
I respect and value things that are important to children	45	90
I do tasks together with children	38	76
I read children their favorite stories and present them new ones	49	98
I make situations where children can be creative	49	98
I emphasize their good work	47	94
I talk about different types of families, religion and so	34	68
I encourage to know each other's better	43	86
Every child in group gets place where they can put their stuff	48	96

Table 4. During the identity building process it's essential to stimulate children to move towards the proper way, by working with them (many answers can be circled):

	Frequency	Per cent %
I try to find what every child's talent and gifts are	48	96
I talk with children about their individual potentials and interests	37	74
I celebrate holydays together with children	47	94
I encourage children to improve themselves by emphasizing their work so others can see it	49	98
I encourage discussions about children work or game	43	86
I stimulate children to discuss about certain behaviors, feelings and emotions	40	80
I stimulate them to be active in learning	40	80
I speak correctly	47	94

Planning of Sustainable Tourism in Kosovo western region is a key factor for all involved in touristic offer

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Abstract

Tourism is one of the most complex activities in nowadays modern society. In the developed countries, as well in transition countries, is an important product of export and employment generator. It involves wide interweaving of phenomenon's and reports occurring during the touristic journey, whereas in its realization it deepens not only in the economic aspect but also in ecological, social and living culture aspect. It seems clear that the success of tourism in the realization of the role as a major moving force for the development of integrated development zone will depend on the type of structure, scale, quality, cost and location of tourist buildings. This means that the development of tourism and protection of natural and cultural heritage should be planned according to the resource base, economic and social needs and ecological sustainability. In the tourism context, planning referee widely on the expectations of the touristic activities and changes that must be done to soften the problems that negatively influence in the development through regular development promotion by effecting social, economic and environment benefits of a touristic zone and at the same time fulfilling the needs of the habitants and the tourists. Planning in tourism can be seen as a decision making and the organizing process for appointing and designing the tourism development preferred for the future. Studying the previous experiences of the touristic destinations brought to light the fact that tourism development in irregular or unplanned way will for sure lead to degradation of the bases of physical and social resource. es on what the tourism is dependent, community as well the destination. Therefore, Kosovo western destination with carefully developed plan has the possibilities to be fully successful in the aspect of achieving the high level of tourism satisfaction, positive economic benefits and minimal negative effects in the local, social and economic environment.

Key words: Planning, Tourism, Sustainability, Economy, Ecological

Introduction

The concept of stabile development even though didn't have a target in specific way the development of tourism, with no doubt had a reasonable influence in tourism department. Stabile development has an intention to secure and offer a sustainable and safe life which minimizes the use and depletion of natural resources, environmental degradation, social instability and cultural splits. (Hall 1998, p.13).

Sustainable tourism implements through managing of assets in a way to ensure integration of resources and economic development. Its long-term goal is to build a comprehensive development process that will increase the quality of local resources, motivations and understanding of market demand, the study of social-economic development, development of an option for land use, involving local people in planning decisions and management.

The sustainable tourism brings splitting of the costs and profits through touristic business, promotional and hospitable community (Godgrey 1998, p.214). In the context of tourism, planning refers broadly to expectations of tourism activities and changes that must be done to alleviate the problems that negatively affect development, through promoting the development influencing on increasing of regular social, economic and environmental profits of tourism in one area and at the same time to satisfy the needs of inhabitants and of tourists. So the destinations with diligent development planning have huge possibilities in achieving the great success in terms of achieving a high level of tourist satisfaction, positive economic profits, and minimal negative impacts on the local social, economic and physical environment. In this context one touristic destination is defined as physical space in which a visitor spends at least one night and consumes touristic products as well as support services and touristic attractions of that destination.(UNWTO, 2006).

Other authors and researchers of the touristic planning field as Baud-Bovy and Lawson identify a number of reasons why public authorities can stimulate planning in touristic field including starting and developing of tourism industry in one area with aim to firstly evaluate possibilities for touristic development, to organize regional development of one existing resort or to protect natural resources as well as other touristic resources, to check spontaneous development by individual entrepreneurs, to protect and increase area resources and to integrate tourism development policies of the regional and economic planning.(Baud-Bovy, M. ; Lawson, F. 1971). Based to the planning tradition of tourism initially proposed by the

researcher Getz and conceived further by the researcher Hall five approaches to tourism planning are considered as inalienable: economic, physical, environmental, and stable community (Hall, C. M. 2000).

The goal of sustainable development is fulfilling the need of actual tourists and visitors of the area while social and economic values are protected and maintained for the future. Development of sustainable tourism tends in managing of all resources in a manner that can fulfill economic and social needs while preserving the cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, ecologic diversity and life support systems.

Grups of interest at the Touristic Destination

As with all business in general, tourist destinations should have a variety of interested parties and groups that should be consulted at all stages of planning and decision making. The harmony of many interested parties is one of the defining characteristics of development of a sustainable tourism and to tourism in general, as well as the groups of interests can compete and cooperate (Buhalis, D. ;Cooper, C. 1998).

The groups of interest can include a range of subjects as: the government (at international, national, regional and local level); Ministries and government departments related to tourism; international organizations, national, local and regional organizations of tourism; development organizations of tourism and entrepreneurs, practitioners of tourism industry; practitioners that no business sector involves tourism, and community, including local community groups, groups of people and local residents. Groups that have a special significance for the design of a coherent and comprehensive strategy can effectively rank and three major groups of parties: governments, the tourism industry and tourist destination community. Sustainable tourism requests strategic planning of the destination, so this strategic development as well as the process of decision making should be wreathed cross-sectorial and integrated.

 As we approach to the involvement of public sector support community, an involvement in Strategic Planning sustainable approach to tourism planning requires a broad range of participating groups of interest. In organizational context an actor is defined as a person or a group that can influence or be influenced by touristic activities in achieving goals and all those who have interest or believe that they have an interest to give to organization, or on the other hand can claim ownership and legal rights in activities of one corporation.(Wolf, R. A. ; Gering, D. T. 1998). Among researchers of tourism is overseen an agreement regarding the participation of the community in the process of touristic development (Tosun 2000). The community is still treated as observing object more than a partner in this process. The discussions today are not being focused at the question will the community be involved in the process of touristic development but how and when should be involved.

The main question is if involving of the community will increase the controlling of management and profits from tourist development in their areas.(Woodley, 1993). Inhabitants at the touristic destinations are heard a little or at all at the process of touristic development and as a result they can only react towards consequences at their settlements. Although touristic industry is always being criticized for decision making by the part of planning group or groups outside of the area. But if the community should be considered a legitimate group of interested parties then matters of their direct and significant participation should be right to bring a sense of ownership and the decision making. With this feeling of ownership comes also the community support for the implementation of the strategy or strategic planning.

Territory and scope of the Region of Western Kosovo

The region is located in the western part of Kosovo. It includes six municipalities as Peja, Istog, Kline, Deçan, Junik and Gjakovë with 322 settlements (6 cities as municipal administrative centers and villages) spread in Area of Dukagjini and in mountains around. The region is connecting point of Kosovo bordering with Albania (Gjakova and Juniku), with Montenegro (Deçani and Peja), and with Serbia (Istog Municipality). Klina Municipality borders with three other municipalities (Istog, Pejë and Gjakovë), of the region and has a position in which are located the crossroads of the main way east-west and the railway from the capital city Prishtina. Neighboring municipalities of the region in Kosova are Prizreni (J), Rahoveci and Malisheva (JL), Gllogoci and Skenderaj (VL) and Zubim Potok in northern part of the region. Sea level in large urban centers varies starting from 357m until 520m, while the highest point in the region of Kosova is Gjeravica (2, 656m). Climatic characteristics of the Western region are almost the same as in the whole territory of Dukagjini Valley. Western Kosovo has a continental climate influenced by the Mediterranean climate. Relatively high temperatures with average annual value of 11 ° C, August and July are the hottest months of the year with temperatures of 21.7 ° C and 21.68 ° C and January as the coldest month of the year with temperatures of 0.5 ° C.

Potential and trends of tourism

On the basis of its geographical position, geomorphology, climate, natural and cultural resources protected by law and the other in the western region, based on the strategic location in the border triangle, potentials are summer mountain tourism, winter sports (skiing, hiking with rounds), cultural, rural, curative and rehabilitating, recreational rambler, alpine (mountains and rock climbing), flying paraglide, speleology, hunting and fishing, host, transit tourism, etc.

Period	Number of visitors(Resident)	Nights of stay	Non resident	Nights of stay
2008	19.678	24.616	22.602	46.910
2009	52.631	36.318	54.876	76.042
2010	44.662	34.382	45.123	76.394
2011	42.044	30.349	44.757	65.584
2012	49.973	48.790	52.008	90.968

Table 1. Source: Statistics of Hotels , ASK (report 2013).These data show increasing trend of the local visitors from Kosovo for about 60% on year 2012 compared to 4 years ago (2008), even

though the increasing point was on year 2009 accompanied with a light decrease during following years, while the trend of increasing of the number of foreign tourists from 2008 to 2012 is around 50%, while stay (sleeping nights) of local tourists and the foreing tourists increased for about the same around 50% from 2008 to 2012 most of its changes from year to year as in the table. While, at the west region, the frequency of night stay for local and foreign tourists doubled in 2012 compared with 2008. Visually this increase is shown in the chart below according to the ASK (2013 report). .
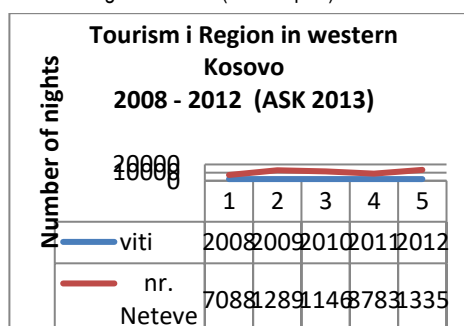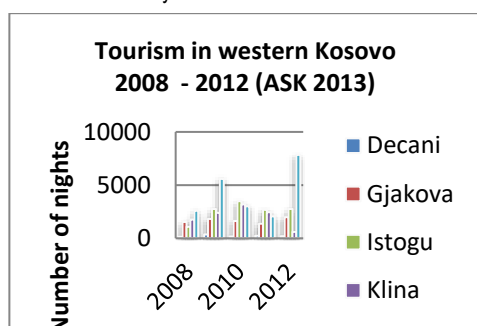
From these data we can come to the conclusion that the trend of tourism measured with nights of stay of local and foreign visitors in Western economic region is in harmony with the national ones, it means it doubled from 2008 to 2012, with increasing point on 2009, for different reasons likely declined in two following years and on 2012 reached the highest number compared to 4 past years. While on individual level Peja Municipality has the biggest increasing (triple) of nights of stay on its hotels by local and foreign visitors in western region, after her comes Istog and Gjakova. Decani has a frequency of night of stay almost uniformly while Klina faced decrease from 2010 and further. Actual and possible factors are different and should be researched for factors that could influenced in number of tourists/ nights of stay so the adequate steps could be undertaken to improve the situation

Table 2 – Hotel Capacities in Western Region.

Municipality	No of Hotels	Number of rooms				
		One bed	Two beds	Three beds	Apartments	Residencies
Deçan	2	2	7	0	0	0
Gjakovë	5	62	69	0	4	2

Istog	4	25	16	1	1	0
Klinë	4	21	26	6	3	0
Pejë	9	35	41	21	4	1

Based to the data that possesses the Ministry of Trade and Industry (MTI, 2013-2014) Hotel and Tourism department, as well as Statistic Agency of Kosova (SAK, 2013-2014). The cities that have most hotels surveyed are: Peja, Gjakova, Istogu, Deçani and Klina. Based on the business registers only in Peja municipality until September 2012 were existing 920 touristic operators (hotels, restaurants, cafeterias, touristic agencies). Based to the researches during the planning of developing strategy for Peja municipality (Peja Municipality 2013-2017 page.41.) only in area of Rugovo and White Drini exist this condition: 3 touristic villages, 11 motels, 2 hotels, 15 restaurants, 2 organized camping places by 2 associations. In the zone are acting 8 active households or ready to start, the others are interested to start.

Methodology of works

Methods which are being used for the project are based in available scientific literature, legal documents from touristic field and respective fields as well as surveys through questionnaires were focused in local population in five Municipalities: Peje, Gjakove, Deqane, Istog, Kline in a sample by 90 inhabitants, where 87 from them were ready to answer. Where through surveyed was attempted collection of information of peoples opinion about local touristic offer as well as their participation in the development process of their location.
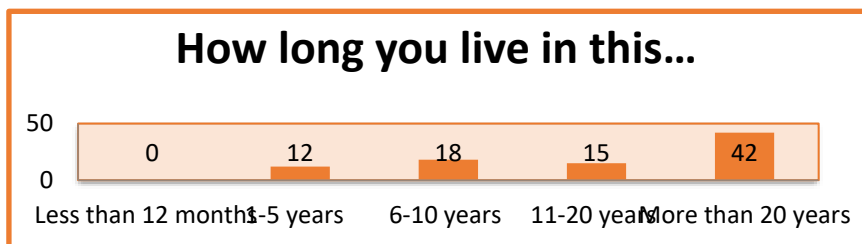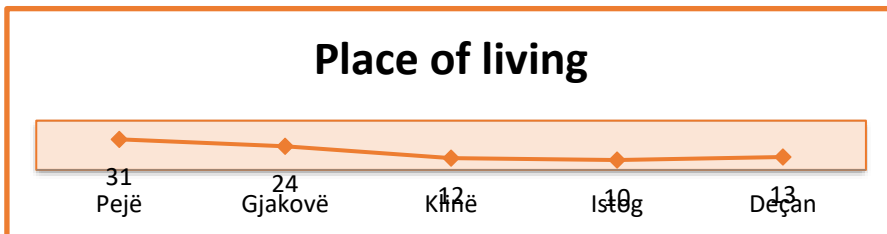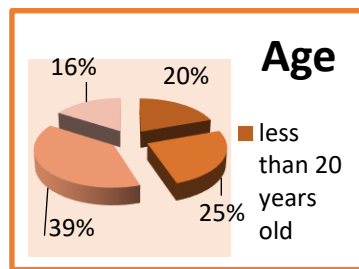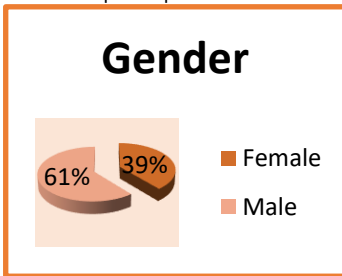
	Frequency
What is your present occupation?	
Agriculture	19
Private bussines	17

Employed in private sector	24
Employed in public sector	13
Unemployed	14
Do you have contact with the visiting tourists?	
Yes	68
No	19
What do tourists prefer to do see in these zones?	
Visit cult objects	26
To have picnics in the natural pitoresque zones	43
To visit important historic objects	18
Do you have any profit from tourism?	
Yes	82
No	5
If Yes	
You rent apartments	13
You own a house that you rent it	17
You own a hotel or restaurant /bar.	23
Tourism development has positive effect in our contry economic development .	34

Please give your opinion relating the local involvement in tourism planning:					
1. I do not agree at all, 2. I do not agree, 3. Neutral, 4. I agree, 5. I totally agree	1	2	3	4	5
Tourism planning in your zone needs local; involvement	2	5	7	29	44
Local involvement in tourism planning brings more profits rather than problems.	3	9	11	38	26
Economic profits is an important challenge for incouraging local involvement	0	6	4	31	46
There is a need for community awareness and education	1	8	27	24	17
Local habitants must be involved in the early planning process	7	4	17	19	40

Factors that effect the increase of community involvement.					
1. I do not agree at all, 2. I do not agree, 3. Neutral, 4. I agree, 5. I totally agree	1	2	3	4	5
Creates new working places for the habitants	4	11	13	24	35
Supports the community to gain services	7	14	11	28	27
Toursim chellenges the investments	11	10	17	18	31
Toursim effects in saving the cultural environment	18	16	15	27	10

Do you have any knowledge realting the plans and the decisions taken for tourism planning in your community?	
Yes	26
No	61

If Yes how were you informed about the decisions taken from the local governance	
Publication of the decions	0
From the involved people in the process of decision taking	0
Through TV	52
Trough radio	35

How the habitants must be involved in tourism planning of the region.					
1. I do not agree at all, 2. I do not agree, 3. Neutral, 4. I agree, 5. I totally agree	1	2	3	4	5
To be involved in the decision making process	11	13	18	23	22
To give their opinion	9	16	11	27	24
To be aware of the taken decisions and to react on wrong decions	3	7	5	30	42

What advice can you give us in order to increase the local involvement in tourism planning in your community?					
1. I do not agree at all, 2. I do not agree, 3. Neutral, 4. I agree, 5. I totally agree	1	2	3	4	5
To make the community aware	7	8	5	30	37
To conduct trainings in population active parts	5	6	19	27	29
To present the problems and give them a possibility to express their opinion	1	3	16	31	36

Results of questionnaire

From the collected information was shown to us a presentation with some qualities of the community in the region. Region West which is compiled by five municipalities have a reasonable community and with specific characteristics where mainly dominates youth age. A total of 87 questionnaires, average of the responses are up to 40 years of age, while the largest percentage of respondents is 53% more males, while females its only 34%. The largest number of the surveyed was from the city with biggest number of inhabitants Peja, and then follows other cities of the western region of Kosovo. Mainly surveyed were employed in private sector, while other were from different sectors as well as a specific number were unemployed. Most of the surveyed had contacts with tourist, visitors from foreign countries or our fellow-companions that work abroad, where mostly of these tourists 43% were having different picnics in attractive touristic areas. Most of the surveyed 82% responded positively that they benefits from tourists for the reason that a big number of them were employed in private sector and the intake of tourists affected positively in their places. As for local participation in planning of tourism most of the surveyed were positive to participate and their opinion was that they would have more economic profits. These profits would be like new job openings, inhabitants to have benefits for these services, to have new investments, to protect the environment. Most of the surveyed around 61% didn't have knowledge regarding the plans and undertaken decisions for touristic planning in their locations also those who had knowledge with these actions 26% were notified through media (Radio, Tv). Most of the inhabitants agreed or most agreed in planning of tourism of the region, where through this

commitment they will express their opinions, to get knowledge with undertaken decisions and to react towards unfair decisions.

Conclusion

Touristic values have almost all regions of Kosovo in forms and dimensions, depending from resources and the level of development. Physiognomy of the attractive elements of the western region clearly guides in the mountain regions, tourist transit directions, cities, spa and property complexes of natural and cultural heritage, hunting locations and villages. The collected information shows us a presentation with some qualities of regional community study. If we look at study areas they have a reasonable community. From the interviews done by the inhabitants emerged these problems: Inhabitants were interested for touristic development but were requesting more focusing by the local authorities as well as many critics appeared for local directors regarding the work and selection of individuals which have profits from some projects of international organizations. Afterwards inhabitants of the region saw significance in process of decision making for avoiding the problems and finding their solution. Problematic was also the departure of a big number of inhabitants especially new ages abroad to work.

Recommendation

-Cooperation between inhabitants and local authorities in the process of decision making m will lead in development of one destination and sustainable development of tourism.

-Accomplishment of successful cooperation between local authorities, communities and private operators in building, accomplishing of strategies, plans and programs for tourist development.

-Inhabitants of the region should have in mind their awareness in active participation in building the strategies, plans, programs of tourist development.

- Placing the new tourism products in the market and improving the quality of existing products.

- Should improve the defects that exist in the rules and laws and problems should be addressed about ownership.

-To give possibility to investors to invest in infrastructure through touristic zones.

- To protect and invest in natural, culture and archeological monuments.

- To eliminate the effect of forest degradation and to regenerate them.

- To eliminate illegal constructions.

-To place information offices in all touristic areas.

-To invest in infrastructure.

 -To have a space for working places for area inhabitants.

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Twitter User Behaviors In Turkey: A Content Analysis On Turkish Twitter Users

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Abstract

Social media, as an interactive and digital communication medium that is relatively free of time and place boundaries, is transforming the way we communicate. Since the Internet fully commercialized by 1995, web based technologies those constitutes social media have been developed with an accelerated pace. Relatively proportional to technology development pace, adoption rates of social media tools such as web logs (blogs), online social networks, social bookmarking sites, etc. are extremely high and Twitter, an online social networking and micro-blogging service, is a significant example with its hundred millions of users. Since the most of the Twitter penetration rates are from Turkey, obviously Twitter has been a popular social media channel in Turkey. In this article; at first interaction, the fundamental concept of social media, will be defined in depth and then a content analysis on Turkish dataset from Twitter will be shared to identify the user behaviors in Turkey.

Keywords: Social Media, User Behviours, Twitter Content Analysis, Behavioural Research, Interactivity

Introduction

Marshall Mcluhan's famous quote "Medium is the message.", with the influence of Social Media, is transformed into "User is the message.". We are living in a age that individual's influence on media is rising every passing day. Social Media, as a multi-directional new communication medium that is relatively free of time and place boundaries, enables users to create, share and interact with the digital content thus each user is a part of the audience and also broadcaster at the very same time.

The dynamics of the social media allows user-generated content to be amplified and spread to the mass. The flow of content diffusion starts with creating and sharing the content, however interactivity makes social media literally social thus content epidemically diffuses with interactions.

Twitter is one of the major social media tools that enables to create, share and interact with digital content. The structure of the online social network gives users a potential to be heared. In this research, it is aimed to understand user behaviours on creating, sharing and interacting with the content. According to this aim, at first social media as a new media, interactivity concepts and also Twitter as a social media tool will be defined in depth. Then a content analysis on #TwitterforICSS hashtag and participants' Twitter usage data will be analyzed and shared to actualize the aim.

Social Media, Interactivity and Twitter

New media is a term that was suggested in researches about social, pshpsychological, economical, political and cultural studies by 1970s. But in 1990s, the term of new media became clear with the developments on computer and internet technologies. Because new media cannot be thought without digitalization. New media has the ability to collect all of multimedia such as text, image, video, audio and, transforms audience to users. Because users can create, share and transmit content. New media provide to users interactivity. Interactivity create individuality. Because every user transforms a source, content creater.

Lev Manovich formulates new media via five principles: (Manovich, 2002)

Numerical Presentation: A new media object can be described mathematically. For instance, an image or a shape can be described using a mathematical fuction.

Modularity: New media sub-elements such as images, sounds, movies are represented as collections of discrete samples.

Automation: New media objects can automate many things without user.

Variability: New media allows us to create versions of the same object that differ from each other in substantial ways.

Transcoding: Computer data is represented in variable formats. Mostly formats are recognized by each other.

The most pervasive type of new media is social media. Social media is formed user generated contents and interactivity.

The global system of networked computers, servers and routers known as the Internet has transformed many aspects of modern society and social interaction. The online distribution of goods and services, for instance, has influenced almost every industry and has radically transformed many. Alongside commerce-oriented technological development has been a rise in what has been termed "social media." One of the most significant developments connected to social media is the rise of social network sites, such as Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter and Google Plus. (Boyd&Ellison, 2013)

Boyd and Ellison assert that Social Networks have three essential components:

1) a user-constructed public or semi-public profile;

2) a set of connections to other users within the system;

3) the ability to view one's own list of connections, as well the connections made by others in the system. (Boyd&Ellison, 2007)

In new media, interactivity creates a control field to users and behaviours of users became quality of source. Thus, communication became user-oriented. Interactivity is the key element for understanding user-generated social media.

Interactiviy

Interactivity is two or more way communication. Messages between source and receiver forms some sort of influence. This influence causes the receiver to react and give feedback. The feedback forms another message. Thus receiver becomes the source and sourcebecomes the receiver. It goes on until the end of communication. (Öğüt, 2004)

Interactivity is a process-related, variable characteristic of communication settings. Interactivity can lead to sociability. Interactivity is not a characteristic of the medium. It is a process-related construct about communication. we note that communication is mostly about and for the purpose of interaction. Interactivity places shared interpretive contexts in the primary role. Interactivity describes and prescribes the manner in which conversational interaction as an iterative process leads to jointly produced meaning. Interactivity is the condition of communication in which simultaneous and continuous exchanges ocur, and these exchanges carry a social, binding force. (Rafaeli & Sudweeks, 1997)

The aim for interactivity in new media is obviously the need of user involvement. This is an extension of the need for reaching information quick and accurately. (Öğüt, 2004)

According to Mathematical Theory of Communication, information source produces a message; transmitter that operates on the message to create a signal which can be sent through a channel; channel carries the information that composes the message; receiver tranforms signal back into the message intended for delivery; and finally destination takes the message. If there is a noise in channel, message cannot be transmit accurately (Shannon, 1948) This mathematical approach disregards content of the message. In the aspects of social siences, content of the message is significant and message should has the effectiveness. According to Umberto Eco, if receiver could not understand the content of the message, there is a kind of noise.

The aim of communication is not only transmit a message to receiver, and also create content. Thus, interactivity is the most significant feature of new media, because it makes the content effective.

The definition of interactivity according to Rafaeli recognizes three pertinent levels: (Rafaeli, 1988)

Two-way Communication (noninteractive) is present as soon as messages flow bilaterally.

Reactive Communication settings require later messages refer to earlier ones.

Fully Interactive Communication differs from reaction in the incorporation of reference to the content, nature, form or just the presence of earlier reference.

Not all communication is interactive and even noninteractive communication may contain coherent responses. Interactivity is not a medium characteristic. Media and channels may set upper bounds, remove barriers, or provide necessary conditions for interactivitiy levels. But potential does not compel actuality.

Interactivity is feedback that relates both to previous messages and to the way previous messages related to those preceding them.

Wiberg states that the concept of interaction and interaction support could be defined in relation to the concepts of communication and collaboration. Wiberg clarifies his model on defining the terms, communication as the exchange of information between people via a tool / medium and collaboration as two or more people operating a common object or artifact. In collaboration, operations produce "feedback" to the operator, but also "feed through" to co-workers. He states that in the context of his suggested model, communication and collaboration could be concived as subsets of interaction. (Wilberg, 2004) (Öğüt, 2011)

From Passive Audience to Active User By New Media:

With new media, audience of mass media transforms user. The users is the key element in new media. Because, receiver becomes source again, and users create content in new media. Content creation provides the user perception of freedom and selection oppotunity.

Differences between active and passive users will be given over Biocca's audience activity approach (Biocca, 1988). Because, differences between active and passive users also show the differences between new media and mass media users.

Freedom of selection: User activity is portrayed as the funneling process of media and content selection.

Utilitarianism: The audience member is the embodiment of the self-interested consumer. Beyond selectivity, which in some cases implies a certain defensiveness on the part of the user, the utilitarian version of the concept suggest a certain level of rational choice in the satisfaction of clear individual needs and motives.

Intentionality: It is in this form that the concept emphasizes the more cognitive dimensions of activity. Intentionality points to schematic processing and structuring of incoming information. Patterns of media consumption and memory bear the clear imprint of the users motivation, personality and individual cognitive processing structure.

Involvement: Involvement characterize both the level of affective arousal and a level of cognitive organization and information structuring. The same activity term is further used to label behavioral manifestations of active involvement such as parasocial interaction.

Imperviousness to Influence: It functions as a kind of goal of activity by reference to the degree to which the user limits, influences and controls the effects media.

Twitter

Twitter is an online social networking and microblogging service that enables users to send and read short 140-character text messages, called "tweets". The first Twitter prototype, developed by Dorsey and contractor Florian Weber, was used as an internal service for Odeo employees and the full version was introduced publicly on July 15, 2006.http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Twitter - cite_note-launch-9Twitter describes itself as a best way to connect with people express yourself and discover what's happening. Twitter has become a news reporting, coordination and social media marketing tool. Features of Twitter:

Tweets: Tweets are publicly visible by default, but senders can restrict message delivery to just their followers. (Wikipedia, 2014):

Retweet (RT): A retweet is someone else's Tweet that you chose to share with all of your followers. (Twitter, 2014)

Favourite: Users use this feature for tweets that they like. (Twitter, 2014)

Format: Users can group posts together by topic or type by use of hashtags – words or phrases prefixed with a # sign. Similarly, the @ sign followed by a username is used for mentioning or replying to other users. (Wikipedia, 2014)

Trending Topics: A word, phrase or topic that is tagged at a greater rate than other tags is said to be a "trending topic". Trending topics become popular either through a concerted effort by users, or because of an event that prompts people to talk about a specific topic.These topics help Twitter and their users to understand what is happening in the world. (Wikipedia, 2014)

Direct Messages (DM): Users can directly send or take messages from followers. These messages are not be seen on the timeline. (Twitter, 2014)

The most commonly used social networking platform of the five measured by Duggan and Smith. Facebook also high levels of engagement among its users: 63% of Facebook users visit the site at least once a day, with 40 % doing so multiple times throughout the day. Instagram and Twitter have a significantly smaller number of users than Facebook does, but users of these sites also tend to visit them frequently. Some 57% of Instagram users visit the site at least one a day (with 35% doing so multiple times per day), and 46% of Twitter users are daily visitors (with 29% visiting multiple times per day). (Duggan&Smith, 2013)

Overall, 42% of online adults use two or more of these social networks, while 36% use only one. Among those who only use one major social networking platform, 84% say that Facebook is the single site that frequent. However, other single platform social networking site users have adopted a site other than Facebook as their platform of choice. Among those who use just one social networking site, 8% ıse LinkedIn, 4% use Pinterest, and 2% each say that Instagram or Twitter is their social networking site.

Content Analysis on Turkish Twitter Users

Methodology

For determining Twitter user behaviours in Turkey an experiment is designed; a hashtag, #TwitterforICSS, is created and tweeted by the authors to ask users to participate with the research with a straightforward question such as "Why do you use Twitter?". Users has been told that the participation will allow authors to collect users' data from Twitter. In a week, 63 users participated with 76 tweets; #TwitterforICSS hashtag's and participants' twitter usage data is gathered from 22.06.2014 to 28.06.2014, the data collection categories can be listed as:

a. #TwitterforICSS

a.1. Tweets

a.1.1 Tweets' Time and Date

a.1.2 Interactions (Quantity of Retweets, Favorites and Mentions for each Tweet)

b. User Twitter Usage

b.1. Tweets

b.1.1. Tweets' Time and Date

b.1.2. Interactions

b.2. Users' Information

b.2.1. Quantities of Retweets and Favorites

b.2.2. Quantity of Total Tweets, Photo/Video Sharing, Followings/Followers

b.2.3. Twitter Registiration Date

b.2.4. Location

b.2.5. Gender and Age (Gathered from Users' themself)

From dataset a, participants' Twitter perception will be identified by concentrating responses. From dataset b, interaction behaviours will be identified according to topics, distrubuted multimedia elements, gender, age and time.

Participants

63 Twitter users participated with the #TwitterforICSS hashtag. The demographies of the participants is shown at table 1.
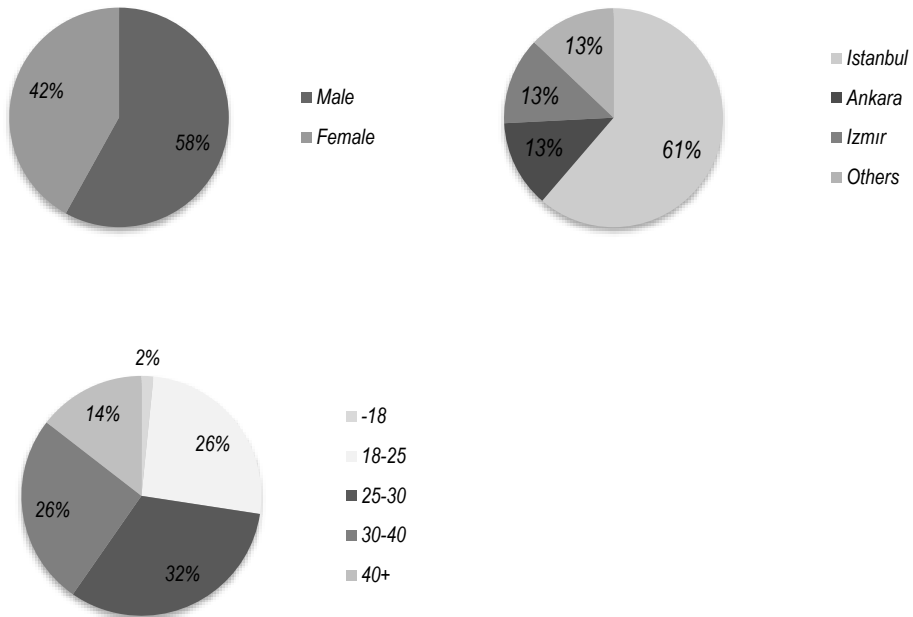
Table 1: Gender, Location and Age Distribution of Participants

Results

a. Content Analysis on #TwitterforICSS

Participants responded to the "Why do you use Twitter?" question with their tweets, after concentrating the responses 14 headings became distinct;

Self-expression tool	17	13%
Free media	11	8, 45%
Fast	22	17%
Only one of the social networks	4	3%
Filtering by interests	8	6.15%
Source of information/news	22	17%
Not an efficient online social network	1	0, 75%
Public Sphere	9	7%
Entertainment/Humor	5	3.85%
Actuality	14	10.75%
Discussion/Learning	6	4.7%
Opportunity to reach opinion leader/celebrities	3	2.3%
Reliable	3	2.3%

Simple/easy to read	5	3.85%

Table 2 - "Why do you use Twitter?" Responses at #TwitterforICSS

According to this research, most of participants expressed that Twitter is a fast social network and is a source of information/news. For each of two features has 17% participation. Twitter as a self-expression tool is seen by 13% of participants. Actuality of Twitter follows these features with 10.75% and, 8.45% of participants think that Twitter is a free medium. 7% of participants comment Twitter as a public space. From this point of view, Twitter is perceived as a fast source of news and free public space.

6.15% of participants emphasized the filtering feature of Twitter. Because Twitter provide the opportunity of filtering for interests by hashtags. In addition, 4.7% of participants see Twitter as a learning platform by discussion with the others. Thus, Twitter is a medium that provide communication with people who has the same interest and learning something with discussing about these interest fields.

3.85% of participants emphasize Twitter as an entertainment or humor medium. Especially sharing photos and videos provides this feature of Twitter. And also 3.85% of participants expressed that Twitter is a simple and easy to read. It makes this medium easy to follow. 3% of participants think that Twitter is an only one of the social networks. According to 2.3% of participants, they reach the opportunity to communicate with opinion leaders and celebrities. And 2.3% of them point out that Twitter is a reliable platform. Finally only 0.75% of participant see Twitter loses its function as an effective social network.

b. Twitter User Behaviours

63 participants' Twitter data from 22.06.2014 to 28.06.2014, (Users' information and 588 unique tweets with their interactivity metrics) are gathered. Significant results are;

Total tweets tweeted by the user and follower quantity of the user is weakly correlated (R=0.222, R2=0.0493); thus more tweeting does not necessarily mean more followers.

%58 of the tweets have humorous content. According to category distribution of humorous contents, users are tend to make humorous comments on politics.

- Politics
- Sports
- Personal
- Other
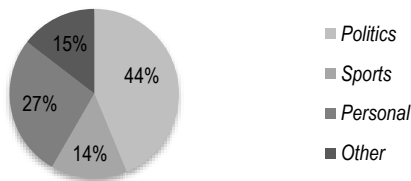
Table 3 – Category Distrubiton of Humorous Content

Twitter Interactivity is provided by actions such as Favorite, Retweet and Mention; the overall interactions of 588 tweets is shown at table 3.

	Total	Average
Favorite	2718	4, 62244898
Retweet	2482	4, 221088435
Mention	613	1, 042517007

Table 4 – Interactive of Tweets Gathered

The quantity of interaction activities in each tweet (retweets, favorites and mention) is summed up with equal weight to generate an interaction score. Results according to the Interaction score;

Distributed multimedia elements effect on tweets' interactivity:
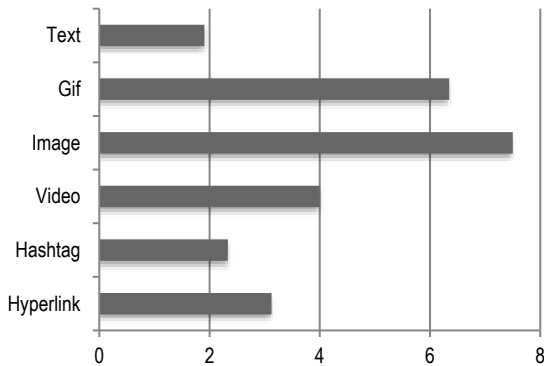
Table 5 – Multimedia Elements Effect on Interactivity [Multimedia Elements (y), Average Interaction Score (x)]

Humorous contents' effect on interactivity:
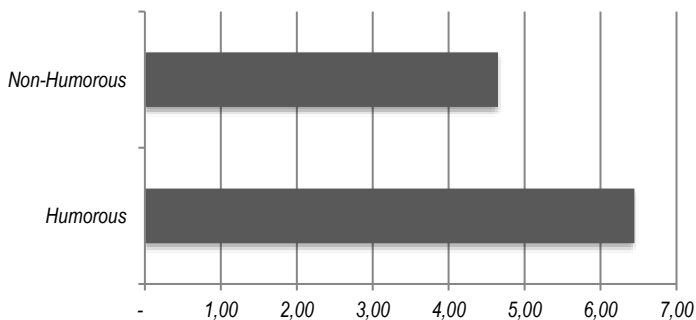
Table 6 – Humorous contents' effect on Interactivity [Content Type (y), Average Interaction Score (x)]

Research Limitations

The quantity of participants and gathered data within the corresponding time interval can not be considered as a sample for Turkish Twitter Users universe, in this manner the results will only enlighten a path for further researches with larger datasets. In further researches a digital tool, that enables gathering larger datasets from Twitter, will be used to provide a sample to represent the related universe.

Discussions and Further Research Questions

Social Media, as a New Media, is an interactive communication medium that enables users to communicate digitally relatively free of time and place boundaries. With the power of social media tools such as Twitter, individuals' voices is getting heard more every passing day as considerable amount of participants emphasize. Interactivity in social media is an amplifier that amplifies the opinions so understanding the dynamics of interactivity will allow individuals to reach the mass.

According to this point of view, our research is shaped. From the considerable amount of participation in #TwitterforICSS hashtag, Twitter is considered as a free medium that enables users to express themselves effectively. Twitter usage data of the participants gathered significantly showed us more tweets does not necessarily means more influence. Humorous contents interactivity effect is emphasized and in researched universe strong relationship between humor and politics

contents is came forward. According to distributed multimedia elements effect is shared and content that contains images' significant interaction potential is observed.

Because of the time and resource limitations, our research covered only a small universe and results shared are not responding our aim of understanding the dynamics of interactivty. However this research enlightens a path for further researches; with a sufficient dataset and time interval, quality of tweets' effect on interactivity, motivations of user interactivity, typology of users according to their tweets and interactions and interactivity according to content types will be covered in depth.

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Investigating Facebook Friendships through Five Similarity Dimensions

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Abstract

The unprecedented evolution of social media has led to the exploitation of the new technologies with the purpose of encouraging closer social relationships at the individual and group levels. One of the most prolific cooperation forms was objectified through the online social networks, a catalytic form of interaction that allows individuals to stay constantly connected and to exploit the complex nature of the communication devices and services. Starting from this point, the paper discusses the main forms of similarity which stand for the basis of interaction and communication among the members of Facebook social networks. The proposed approaches to similarity address the mechanisms which encourage the formation and the development of strong online social networks: the similarity as a condition, the similarity as a context, the similarity as a catalyzer, the similarity as a consequence and the similarity as a connection. The configuration of these dimensions in the context of the online social networks was tested by analyzing the case of Facebook online social networks. Each of the five dimensions was marked out from the perspective of a sociological interview-based inquiry conducted with fourteen students from a communication college. With a view to better illustrate certain findings, an online social network analysis was performed. As the preliminary results showed, Facebook, as an online social network, is used by the respondents especially for social searching and bonding social capital rather than social browsing which concerns the initiation of new contacts with unknown individuals in the direct interaction. In fact, the most important function of these communities is to allow members to discover other sources of similarity and to potentiate the similarity discovered in the offline environment through consistent communication and interaction.

Keywords: Facebook, Similarity, Online Social Networks

Introduction

The unprecedented evolution of the facilities ensured by the social media has led to the exploitation of the new technologies with the purpose of encouraging closer social relationships at the individual and group level. One of the most prolific interactions was shaped as online social networks, a form of communication that allows individuals to stay constantly connected and to exploit the complex nature of the communication devices and services.

The interest in analyzing the online social networks has grown significantly in the past years and has reunited researchers from multiple fields, leading to the development of various methods of studying the relationships among people, groups, organizations and other entities. Hereby, social relations and the relating processes within an online social network or community have become key components of human activity even though, in time, they have been limited by temporal and spatial coordinates. The respective restrictions have partially faded away due to the evolution of social media and due to their availability generalized by the use of revolutionary technologies. In particular, the emergence of the new technologies and the progress towards Web 2.0 have allowed people to organize themselves into online social networks in a manner similar to the one in which people organize themselves into social networks in the physical reality.

The differences between the early social networks and the online social networks generally consist in the mechanisms used by the members to communicate among themselves. For the communities in the physical reality, the face-to-face interaction represents the main form of interrelating, whereas for online communities the privileged place is occupied by the information and communication technologies that facilitate interaction and promote communication among individuals, anyplace and anytime. In other words, the online social networks have developed based on the hardware and software that allow individuals to share information through simple, immediate, universal, inexpensive and reliable interaction.

Literature review

Facebook facts and figures

The term of "online (virtual) social network" refers to a Web-based service that allows individuals to build a public or semipublic profile, to articulate a list of persons with whom they share a certain connection, and to view and to explore one's own list and the list of other members from the community (Boyd & Ellison, 2007, p. 210). At this level, there are several descriptions of the concept, depending on the perspective of the definition which often relies on a multidisciplinary approach – sociological, technological, economic, commercial-electronic etc.

Social networking sites represent a natural extension of these studies as they connect individuals in a geographically unrestrained way. On most social networking sites, individuals do not seek to meet or to establish connections with new people but, on the contrary, the prevailing intention is that of maintaining contact with the existing groups of friends and acquaintances (Boyd & Ellison, 2007; Boyd & Heer, 2006; Donath, 2007; Donath & Boyd, 2004).

Facebook is a social networking site created in 2004 by a Harvard student (Mark Zuckerberg) and made available to the wide public towards the end of 2006. Its technological design allows users to add friends, send messages, update personal profiles to keep friends and acquaintances informed on any recent change, to upload and view photos. Facebook users may also create or join virtual groups, explore or develop applications, host content, find information about the interests, hobbies and statuses of other members starting from the online profiles that may be publicly or semipublicly available.

Researches on Facebook have a short history but are growing at a fast pace and are adopting, most of the times, an interdisciplinary approach. In this respect, researchers have focused upon various issues that may be organized according to several major lines: presenting the self online and managing one's image on Facebook (Boyd & Heer, 2006; Liu, 2007; Buffardi & Campbell, 2008; Back et al., 2010; Papacharissi, 2009; Walther et al., 2009; DeAndrea, Shaw & Levine, 2010; Georges, 2010), confidentiality and privacy of Facebook communication (Boyd, 2008; Tufekci, 2008; Van Manen, 2010; Ledbetter et al., 2010), exploring the civic and political potential of Facebook (Smith & Rainie, 2008; Zhang et al., 2009; Watt, 2010), the psycho-social effects generated by Facebook among teenagers (Lewis & West, 2009; Pujazon-Zazik & Park, 2010), the impact of the uses and gratification theory upon Facebook relating (Quan-Haase & Young, 2010), differences among perceived audiences and real audiences (Barnes, 2006; Stutzman, 2006), relationships between teachers and students (Mazer, Murphy & Simonds, 2007), friendships among teenagers (Lenhart & Madden, 2007), maintaining interpersonal relationships as a maximum attraction point (Donath, 2007; Ellison, Steinfeld & Lampe, 2007; Tufekci, 2008; Baym & Ledbetter, 2009), the impact of social networks such as Facebook in terms of organization (Balagué & Fayon, 2010), the construction of online identities (Tinnell, 2014; Barba, 2014; Wessels, 2012; Davis, 2012; Jin, 2013; Goode, 2010; Macek, 2013; Schandorf, 2013; De Luna, 2011; Buffardi & Campbell, 2008; Kramer & Winter, 2008; Walther et al., 2008, 2009 etc.

The studies on the patterns of using Facebook suggest that this is used mainly to keep in touch with offline friends and not to develop new relationships (Ellison, Steinfeld & Lampe 2007). A study involving 2000 students concluded that Facebook is used by students for reasons related to social searching that implies learning new information about persons one knows offline and much less for social browsing that refers to using Facebook to establish new contacts. Most of the students answered that they use Facebook "to stay connected with old friends or with persons they met during high-school" (Lampe, Ellison & Steinfeld, 2006, p. 168).

Ellison, Steinfeld and Lampe (2007) obtained similar results indicating that students use Facebook to maintain preexisting close relationships (bonding social capital) and to stay in touch with various colleagues and acquaintances from high-school (maintaining social capital). Regarding the maintenance of social capital, Ellison, Steinfeld and Lampe highlight the fact that Facebook ensures the relatively easy maintenance of contacts by the constant updating and viewing of information related to friends' activities, important events in their life etc. Concerning the maintenance of the social capital, the authors emphasize that Facebook allows users to maintain weak ties with known persons that may turn, in time, into sources of information or valuable resources. As a conclusion, it has been highlighted that Facebook fulfills an important social function that aims at facilitating the maintenance of connections with offline friends or acquaintances, both the close and the distant ones.

Facebook offers the possibility of increased social contact by a process called "friending", by means of which users create personal profiles and accumulate friends through mutual acceptance. Creating and maintaining friends has proved particularly important for young people, but in the literature there is considerable debate on the value of the often weak relationships existing between the members of online social networks. In this respect, Jane Lewis and Anne West (2009) conducted a study in the UK during which 16 students from the second and third year were interviewed, students that owned a Facebook account ever since Facebook was launched in all UK universities, in October 2005. According to Jane

Lewis and Anne West (2009), most of the researches focused upon social networking sites are North-American and quantitative in nature. The qualitative studies of Danah Boyd (2006, 2007) and Sonia Livingstone (2008) represent exceptions from this perspective. The emphasis was mainly lied upon "the matrices of preexisting social contacts" (Licoppe, 2004) and upon the "culture of friending" (Boyd, 2006), so that the present study may be regarded as a step forward by its exploratory and qualitative nature.

As Boyd (2006) observed, it is difficult to evaluate the weight of these relations or the metrics used in accepting or rejecting a friendship request, therefore, the lists of friends may contain a wide range of relations starting from the closest and ending with the least close relations. At this level, the research focused upon the way in which social and personal networks are organized in clusters. For example, McCarty (2002) revealed the fact that individuals have an average of six types of clusters; these groups include family, neighbors, current job acquaintances, previous job acquaintances, friends from school and friends from the networks of other persons. On Facebook, all these categories have been initially leveled to a single one designated through the notion of "friend" (Boyd, 2006).

Nevertheless, Facebook is significantly different from other types of computer-mediated communication and from other social networking sites as their users have been and still are dependent upon the geographic distribution to a large extent and because they tend to know their friends before (Lewis & West, 2009). Facebook allows interrelating in a variety of ways and makes up for other means of communicating with friends – offline communication, face-to-face or on the phone, supporting connections with persons that cannot be met on a regular basis and facilitating an open contact to find out relevant information on what the others in the network are doing without necessarily starting a direct communication with these.   Adopting new communication technologies has raised, in time, serious problems related to their harmful effects upon the quality of interpersonal relationships. The occurrence of Facebook is no exception from this trend (Henry, 2007; Tilsner, 2008). Despite these reserves, empirical research has shown that Facebook communicational processes have healthy communicational results. Thus, Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe (2007, p. 1165) found that Facebook supports the building of social capital – "the online interactions do not divert individuals from their offline world unconditionally, but may become a support for relationships and for helping people stay in touch, even when the changes in their lives lead them far from one another". Other recent studies highlighted the fact that Facebook connects individuals despite establishing relationships on a local level or over a larger distance (Hargittai, 2007).

However, although there are numerous proofs according to which Facebook use causes positive relational results, this does not apply to all Facebook users. Certain motivations for resorting to online communication, such as social anxiety in offline contexts, may generate certain interpersonal online communication patterns that may cause harmful psycho-social results. According to Ledbetter et al. (2010), a neutral approach to Facebook communication should take into consideration both the positive, constructive results and the negative, pathological effects of using social networking sites.

Similarity issues

The issue of similarity occupies a privileged place in social sciences as many empirical studies have highlighted, in time, direct connections with other concepts of a major scientific interest: similarity – interpersonal attraction, similarity – social trust (credibility), similarity – group cohesion, similarity – conformity, similarity – social prestige, similarity – socio-economic status, similarity – persuasion etc. In this respect, researchers have systematically tried to test in various experimental contexts hypostases that may lead to the conceptual and multidisciplinary development of similarity. Whereas certain theorists have initiated new, daring hypotheses, others have chosen to reiterate previous methodological paths with a view to validating, respectively invalidating, the results obtained by their precursors.

From the perspective of cognitive psychology, similarity designates the psychological closeness or proximity between two representations – the smaller the mental distance between two concepts, the higher the similarity between them (Shepard, 1962, p. 126). Transferring the angle of analysis upon social psychology, similarity was and is defined as the high degree of correspondence between the personality, attitudes, values and interests of individuals. Moreover, experimental researches have shown that many forms of similarity are reified for determining the positive relationships among people: similarity of opinions, of interpersonal styles, of communication abilities, of socio-economic foundations, of physical aspect etc (Byrne, 1971).

Purpose and hypotheses of the study

Within this interpretative frame, the paper aims at outlining and investigating five complementary and interconnected elements / hypostases of similarity that have the potential to turn into investigation areas for the typology of interpersonal

relationships: similarity as a condition (referring to the physical and psycho-social attributes of the individual as premises for identifying similarity), similarity as a context (referring to the contextual data that support the identification and accentuation of previously identified similarity), similarity as a catalyzer (referring to the amplifying impact of perceived similarity upon interpersonal attractiveness), similarity as a consequence (referring to the similarity derived from group and intergroup processes – cohesion and conformity) and similarity as a connection (referring to the emergence of some new areas of similarity between individuals situated at a distance in terms of space and culture that share, nevertheless, common interests and preoccupations, brought to the fore by modern communication technologies).

The main hypothesis lying at the basis of the research was that the configuration of similarity among the members of a community is the expression of the areas of similarity prefigured and assumed in the offline environment. In other words, the online environment objectified in the form of the social network Facebook reiterates within emerging or existing communities the hypostases of similarities regulated by and through direct interaction, by direct interpersonal communication, by unmediated discovery and knowledge. In fact, the basic role of virtual communities from an interpersonal perspective is that of maintaining and augmenting interaction, respectively communication among those that also interrelate constantly in the offline environment, that is, within classic communities.

Operationalizing the central hypothesis on the five dimensions of similarity, the specific hypotheses may be formulated as follows:

H1. Similarity – condition: Within virtual communities, constant interaction and communication among the members relies on the similarity of interests, activities, preferences that are revealed and assumed by the individuals in the offline environment.

H2. Similarity – context: The interaction and communication among the members of a virtual community represent a projection in the online environment of the offline interrelating contexts.

H3. Similarity – catalyst: In the virtual environment, similarity (the perception of similarity) on a certain level triggers, through a hallo effect, the perception of several levels of similarity.

H4. Similarity – consequence: Within virtual communities, similarity (the perception of similarity) among individuals acts towards maintaining the group conformity and cohesion from the offline environment.

H5. Similarity – connection: Virtual communities act particularly towards maintaining or highlighting similarity with close but distant friends and not towards exploring similarity with unknown individuals.

Method

Participants

Fourteen students from a Romanian communication college participated to the study. The selection of students as participants to the study was determined by two main reasons: (1) to test the hypotheses by investigating the approach of the largest category of Facebook users (2) to conduct the interviews with students who initially did not have a Facebook account and were willing to make one. The participants were selected using a pre-test for indentifying student without Facebook accounts. Two main criteria of selection were followed: (1) respondents should have consented to share their account personal information and facts with the researcher during the investigation process and (2) respondents should have agreed not to talk about the investigation with their Facebook contacts. The sample comprised individuals aged between 19 and 23 (8 females and 6 males).

Procedure

The research aimed at investigating the main forms of similarity among the members the online social network Facebook and relied on the sociological interview-based inquiry. Using the interview in scientific research has several purposes. First of all, the exploratory purpose of identifying the variables and the relations among the variables – with the help of interviews, the information obtained being able to further guide the research upon psychological and sociological phenomena. Secondly, the interview may constitute the main tool for collecting data with a view to testing hypotheses. In this case, each question represents an item in the structure of the measuring tool.

The interviews took place at the communication college and were conducted during December 2013 – May 2014. Questions were posed in a relaxed informal manner so that the interview appeared more like a discussion or conversation. In order to test the formulated hypotheses, the current research was based on an intensive, thorough interview able to substantiate

a pertinent qualitative research (the main criterion being the quality of the information). Each of the fourteen subjects has been interviewed twice (the criterion for selecting the moments being the period of existence of the Facebook account – three months and six months after creating a Facebook account), and the interviews lasted between forty minute and one hour, intervals that allowed the highlighting of the deep structures.

In terms of the continuum freedom – rigidity, the design of the interview was characterized by a reduced number of questions, a large amount of information, complex answers, centering on the interviewed person with possibilities of repeating the meeting (Chelcea, 2004, p. 304). There were indicated the theme of the interview and several major coordinates of the formulated questions were predefined: the criteria for choosing friends on Facebook, the typologies of friends from the virtual communities supported by Facebook, the nature and frequency of communication with each typology of friends, the motivations that underlined the communicational attitudes and the effects on the relational and communicational level of Facebook interaction.

Starting from these considerations and following the typology proposed by Ghiglione and Matalon (cited in Chelcea, 2004, p. 306), the inquiry relied on a semi-directive, thorough interview, centered on the person but aiming only at one aspect, a phenomenon or an element, not the person as a whole. Also, the interviews conducted may be regarded as semi-structured, having a higher level of validity than the structured ones – approaching previously established themes and hypotheses, but allowing for the highlighting of the relevant elements, the structure of the situation and the action models. A rough interview guide was made, indicating the major issues to be approached in the discussion focusing upon the subjective experience of getting involved in the analyzed situation. For each theme included in the interview, factual and opinion questions were formulated regarding the activity of the subjects within the online social network Facebook (please see the Appendix).

The sociological interview-based inquiry was corroborated with the method of online social networks analysis, which was liable to provide a pertinent view of the configuration of similarity within virtual communities. The analysis of online social networks referred to the study of the online social structure and of its effects in terms of a set of actors (nodes) and a set of relationships that connect actors and the pairs of actors (D'Andrea, Ferri & Grifoni, 2010, p. 14). The analysis allowed "to determine whether an online social network is closely tied, diversified or well bound, to identify its density and intensity and to study the way in which the behavior of the network members may be affected by their positions and connections" (Scott, 2000, p. 961). The objects observed were not mainly the members themselves and their attributes but the relations among members and the relational structure. The advantage of such a representation is that it facilitates the analysis of certain social processes as a product of the connections among social actors.

The collection of data consisted of three different steps (D'Andrea, Ferri & Grifoni, 2010, p. 10). The first step consists in analyzing the connections between each actor of the virtual social network and all the other actors. The second step consists in determining certain subgroups and whether the roles that each actor plays have an impact upon the online social network. The last step resided in studying the overall characteristics of the online social network. The focus is particularly upon the size of the network, in terms of density or interconnectivity, from the perspective of the number of connections within the network as a percentage from the total of possible connections. All these steps imply that each actor from the network may answer questions about each other actor from the online social network.

Data visualization was facilitated by means of graphs with nodes and connections, and the numbers from each cell represent characteristic relations among these values, matrices, where the rows and columns designate the actors and their characteristics or hybrid approaches (that combine all the three forms mentioned) (Caschera, Ferri & Grifoni, 2008).

An important issue was to determine the groups within complex social networks, the cliques (Ortiz-Arroyo, 2010) or clusters (Drazdilova et al., 2010). Groups are separate collectivities of individuals connected to one another by a certain type of relationship or interaction. Within a group, members have different positions – some of them occupying central positions, others remaining in the periphery and the rest being somewhere between the two categories. A group may have one or several key actors (players). Given the fact that the algorithms of clustering used today are much too complex, there began to be developed specialized software that may be able to manage efficiently the entered data, marking the areas of similarity by applying a partitioning coefficient of clusters according to similarity (Gueret, 2010, p. 286).

Findings

The first interviews were meant to gather information about the initial friends who are included in a newly created online social network on Facebook. To this end, participants were interviewed three months after creating their Facebook account. As the respondents reported, the average number of friends was 112 while for 12 out of 14 participants, most of their friends were of the same gender. For example, Andrei (21 years old) had 106 friends, most of them (91) males. When asked if

gender distribution was random or if there were any clear reasons for this configuration, the answer was – "I have introduced in my Facebook list my best friends, those that I get along with very well, that I go out and have fun with and that are, obviously, boys. The girls from Facebook are friends and acquaintances that I like for various reasons, school mates, friends from high-school etc". The reiteration of the question in the second interview – that lasted for almost fifty minutes (six months after the account had been created) – highlighted a rather similar situation. Andrei had 182 friends on Facebook, 142 boys and the rest of them girls. Mentioning the topic of his friends' gender distribution followed the same lines – "It is simple to explain why most of my friends are boys – it is with them that I have the most things in common, they are my bodies, those that I go to parties with, with whom I go and have a beer, see a movie, I feel good in their company and I am interested in staying in touch with them on Facebook if there is not enough time to talk when we meet or when there are strangers around. Just a few girls from my list are truly my friends and we go out together, the others are colleagues from the faculty or from the NGOs that I have collaborated with over the course of time, girls that I flirted with online because I did not want to approach them directly, ex girlfriends ...".

The same situation was observed in Ana's (19 years old) case. At the time of the first interview, she mainly had girl friends (68 out of 117), the argument being that "girls are for friending, boys are for flirting, and too many boys would become a burden". The rapport between girl and boy friends was quite similar when the second interview occurred, although the total number of friends increased to 173. As previously mentioned only two respondents reported a different situation, but the common pattern was that both male participants in the study were activists in a non-governmental organization with predominantly female members who were included ab initio in their personal Facebook network.

To sum up, the results show that the similarity as a condition occupies a very important part in choosing friends and in including them into personal online networks. The subjects consider from the start that they have most things in common with friends of the same gender, that they may have the most interesting and genuine communication and interrelation with the correspondent gender.

Analogously, the next questions highlighted the relevance of the age and of the socio-professional status within the similarity as a condition framework. As all the respondents mentioned, most of their friends had ages between 19 and 24, and were students. If during the first three months of the Facebook account, there were few friends outside this age interval, at the time of the second interview, their number increased but in an insignificant manner. According to the subjects' statements, these new friends have been met during volunteering projects, among the university tutors or among acquaintances from other specialized online social networks. It is worth remarking, at this level, the fact that the respondents' attention was focused firstly on friends with similar ages and with the same socio-professional status, the basic premise being the fact that the persons in this category are also those that they share the most common interests with. In other words, the similarity as a condition dimension included a forth element, the similarity of interests.

Shifting the attention towards similarity as a catalyzer, the investigation proceeded with the analysis of the perceived similarity which potentiates interpersonal connections by enhancing interpersonal attraction. At this point, the following interview questions were designed to address this perspective on similarity. Thus, the fifth item from the interview guide aimed at highlighting the subject's interests and hobbies.

Focusing on Oana's example (22 years old) which is majorly indicative of the other cases, several coordinates may be traced. Within the first interview, Oana mentioned three major areas of interest – urban art, public relations and organizational culture – and two main hobbies – music and films. At the second interview (conducted three months later), the hobbies remained the same whereas the interests had been redefined – urban art, volunteering and public relations. Although the register was largely the same, the fact that organizational culture no longer constituted for Oana a primary field occasioned a novel approach within the second interview. The question was whether there was any link between shifting her interests and the communication with friends who subscribed to the previous area of interest (organizational culture). In this regard, a cogent aspect was underlined – a change in interests (namely a change at the similarity as a condition level) brought about a change in the permanence and consistency of communication with friends sharing the respective interest. Oana claimed that she had gradually stopped initiating conversations with her group of friends who were focused on the organizational culture dynamics, giving more and more time to discussions with the volunteers she was collaborating with. In other words, a directly proportional relation between the importance given to a certain interest and the communication with the associated individuals may be observed at this point.

For the sixth question – "On what criteria do you initiate a friend request on Facebook?", the subjects' answers were evocative of the similarity dimensions, to the extent in which all the five hypostases of similarity have been highlighted. Almost in every case, the initiation of friendship requests was mainly done in the first three months and was aimed at the offline friends that the subjects wanted to have as Facebook friends and communication partners. It happened similarly

with the friendship requests – these came from offline close friends, from faculty colleagues, former high-school colleagues and friends from the native towns. After the first three months, the main form of including new friends into the Facebook list was accepting friendship requests from friends met during new activities conducted in the offline environment and from persons unknown from direct interaction, but who shared the same interests and hobbies. Participants also initiated friendship requests with a view to establishing Facebook friendship with some of the friends of their friends, met or heard of during direct encounters. For example, as Alina (21 years old) mentioned. "my community especially gathers my dearest friends and then their dearest friends and so on. Of course, as I have been meeting new people during the past three months, I considered it natural to make them part of my online network. It is easier to develop our relations both virtually and physically". Also, Razvan (22 years old) added that "in the past months, I initiated and accepted friendship requests to and from some of my team mates. Since I joined a handball team two months ago, I have been interested in discovering more about the other players and the best way to do it was searching through their Facebook profiles". At his turn, Andrei voiced a common pattern among the respondents, namely the inclusion of friends from other online specialized networks into their virtual communities – "as the new faces are concerned, most of them are poker players with whom I use to play on Poker Stars platform. I am mainly interested in knowing better the winners of different tournaments, in finding out more about their lives and hobbies by searching through their Facebook profiles".

Synthesizing, the architecture of the personal online social networks relied to a great extent on that of the classic communities. The members of these networks are generally the subjects' offline friends, selected according to criteria derived from the similarity as a condition dimension (age, gender, socio-professional status, interests, activities etc). Then, similarity as a context becomes a milestone for the network reinforcement as the individuals' attendance to certain formal contexts (the faculty, a NGO etc), respectively informal (the neighborhood, volunteering, hobbies) redirects their attention to the novel acquaintances. Each thematic event or interactional frame puts similar people into contact, potentiating their interest to intensify their communication and the need to expand the interaction in the virtual world as well.

The process of conferring the quality of a Facebook friend to persons that are unknown directly but share the same passion for online poker reveals both the role of similarity as a catalyzer and that of similarity as a connection. The virtual environment facilitates the creation of certain links among persons from other cultures and of other nationalities but based on a common interest that is relevant for both parties. The common hobby involves the perception of a new dimension of similarity so that including the game partner from a specialized online network looks like a natural thing to do. Not least, the fact that the interviewed students chose to include in his Facebook list friends of friends highlighted the issue of the similarity as a consequence, a form of consolidating the links with the group of belonging with a view to reinforce the cohesion by multiplying and developing the relations among its members.

In order to relieve the features of the personal online social networks, the seventh question – "What category do most of your friends fall into?" – addressed the configuration of the respondents' communities. At this level, Andrei's example is indicative of the overall cases. If after the first three months the Facebook list of friends contained only the friends that Andrei interacted with directly and frequently, and close friends that were far away (in the native town, in other universities from Romania or from around the world), during the second interview there were also mentioned the category of new friends that the subject tried to get to know better through Facebook and the category of friends that were met only virtually. However, though two new categories of friends appeared, the previous categories prevailed in terms of the friends number, most of Andrei's Facebook friends remaining the ones with whom he interacts directly and regularly (close childhood friends that are still in Bucharest, faculty mates that the subject has closer relationships with etc). The motivation behind this configuration is expressed clearly by the subject – "I want to be surrounded on Facebook by the closest people in my life, by my most important friends. In fact, this is the role of Facebook, to give us the possibility to stay in touch when we cannot meet or when we want to announce something important without having to make a hundred phones calls. The event is announced and who is in favor answers by attending the party or any other type of activity. The signals on Facebook are 90% for those that we can meet with anytime, although I don't mind if distant friends or friends that are too busy may also find out the news".

To gain a more pertinent perspective upon the main clusters from the virtual community of Andrei, the method of online social networks analysis was used, highlighting several cogent aspects: the dimension and the nature of subgroups within the community, the direct friends (marked with 0) versus the friends of friends (marked with 1), the connections among the direct friends and the friends accepted by Andrei within his community or through direct friends (marked with red interrupted arrows), the numerical hierarchy of friends and the evolution of the network from the first to the second interview.

Analyzing the architecture of Andrei's community from the two moments we may notice, first of all, the evolution of the number of clusters from eight to eleven (there are three new clusters, respectively the cluster formed of the friends from the specialized online network Poker Stars, of the NGOs collaborators and of the university tutors). Secondly, by reorienting

the interest towards other areas of activity (volunteering and online poker), the clusters associated with previous interests have remained the same in terms of numbers (see the groups of friends met during activities dedicated to extreme sports and marketing). Thirdly, two clusters have experienced a significant evolution – the group of faculty colleagues (from 37 to 89 members) and the group of current neighbors (from 5 to 16 members). The explanation is simple since during the three months interval between the two interviews, Andrei had the necessary time to make new offline friends at the faculty and also in the area where he lived in Bucharest. These friends have been subsequently integrated in his virtual community from the Facebook network. Not least, it should be noticed the fact that the number of friends of a secondary level (friends of friends), assumed by Andrei as his own friends grew five times in three months (from 7 to 35 friends). This evolution may be explained from the perspective of the similarity as a catalyzer and of the similarity as a consequence – meeting directly some of his friends' friends has allowed Andrei to discover certain areas of similarity that have turned into the basis for new connections both in the offline and the online environment. Thus, the expansion of the social capital is the result of a process of direct knowledge and assumption of the similarity discovered within virtual interrelating (as seen in the table and figures below).

Table 1. Summarization of the number of friends by categories

Typology of friends	Interview 1 (direct friends)	Interview 1 (friends of friends)	Interview 1 (total of friends)	Interview 2 (direct friends)	Interview 2 (friends of friends)	Interview 2 (total of friends)
Faculty colleagues	37	0	37	68	21	89
High-school colleagues	26	0	26	27	0	27
Current neighbors	5	0	5	11	5	16
Native town neighbors	15	0	15	15	2	17
Sport friends	5	3	8	5	3	8
Public relations friends	5	3	8	5	3	8
Marketing Friends	4	1	5	4	1	5
Online Poker friends	-	-	-	5	0	5
University tutors	-	-	-	2	0	2
NGOs collaborators	-	-	-	3	0	3
Ex-girlfriends	2	0	2	2	0	2
Total	99	7	106	147	35	182
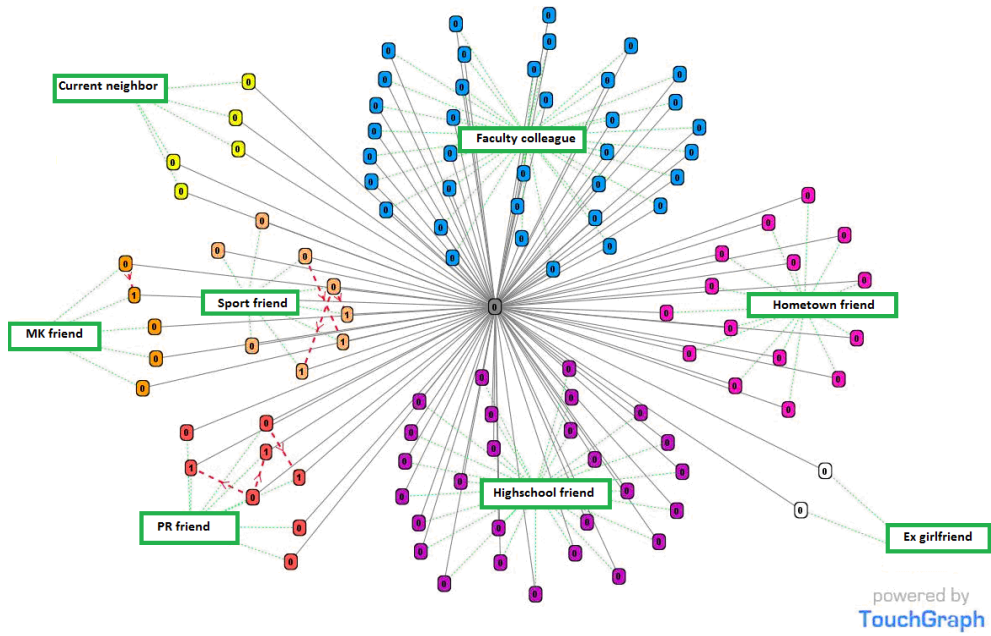
Figure 1. The architecture of the online social network at the moment of the first interview
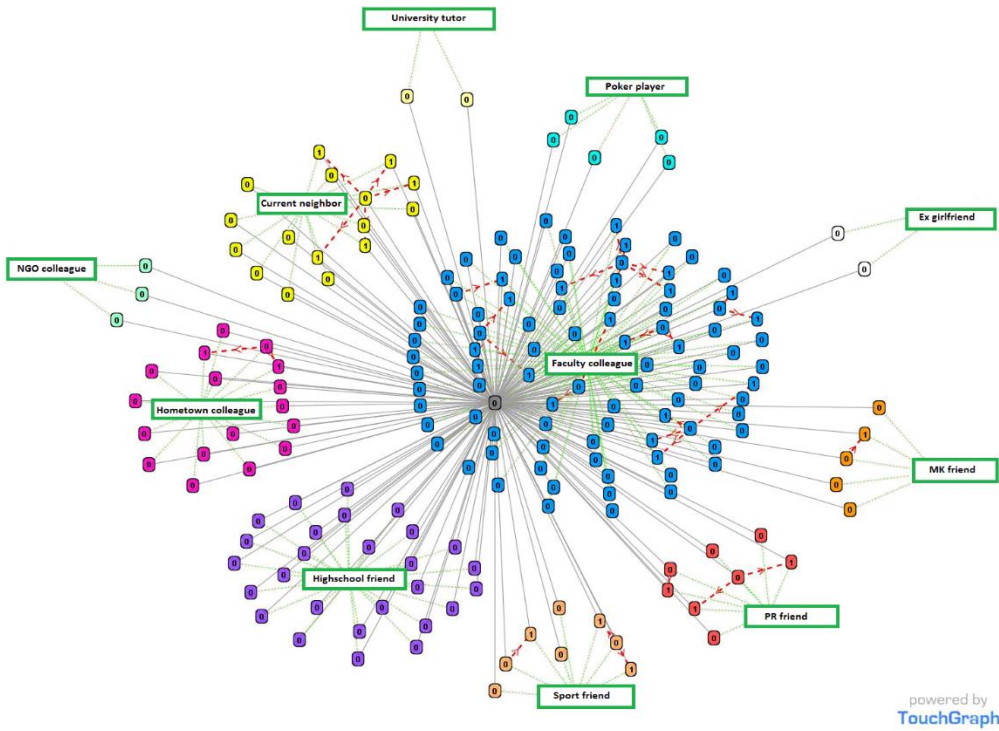
Figure 2. The architecture of the online social network at the moment of the second interview

The eighth question – "Which of your friends do you communicate with most frequently and for the longest time on Facebook?" – also highlighted the categories of friends that prevail in terms of number of individuals. In almost all cases, the participants in the study communicate most frequently with the close friends they interact with directly on a regular basis. In terms of duration, they communicate most with old friends that are away for a certain period of time. The conversation topics with the first category rely on discussing about opinions and the activities that they took part in together (meetings, parties, conferences etc), about the persons they know, about faculty related issues etc, whereas discussions with the second category of friends focus on sharing experiences, soul problems, major dilemmas. At this level, it is revealed the fact that friendships established in the distant past, based either on the similarity as a condition or on the similarity as a context are those that prevail from the communicational perspective. Such relationships have a particular essence that is extrapolated from the offline environment towards the online social networks. As Mara (19 years old) mentioned, "rarely have I talked about my deep feelings with new friends from Facebook. There are things which cannot be shared with others, except for my childhood bodies.". Consistent with this perspective, Radu (22 years old) posited that "the time spent with my Facebook friends depends on the issues to be debated. Sometimes, we have school tasks to discuss, other times, we plan spare time activities and hangouts. Still, I use to spend more time solving heart dilemmas with my best pals from highschool.".

The next question – "What are, according to you, the advantages of Facebook communication as compared to communication on other online social networks?" - took into consideration both the synchronous communication by means of the live chat and the asynchronous communication by means of the comments posted on the personal wall or on that of friends. From this perspective, Oana mentioned several aspects that place communication on Facebook in front of the communication from other online social networks: first of all, Facebook provides simultaneously the opportunity of communicating privately and publicly according to the particularities of the situation; secondly, friends may express their opinions regarding numerous aspects that may be seen by the entire community – from commenting upon photos or status updates to endless wall messages; not least, on Facebook everything communicates – the photos, the comments, the information available on the user's profile etc.

From a bird's-eye view, it should be mentioned that the answers provided by respondents to the eighth and the ninth questions within the two interviews have reflected the same perception upon reality, the interview conducted after six months reiterating the opinions presented three months earlier. Moreover, due to the similarity of answers given by the subject during the two interviews and the absence of future mutations, the presentation of the statements on succeeding items will be done in a corroborated and not comparative manner.

Most of the participants' answers to the tenth question – "Did you ever join a group because your friends were already part of the respective group?" were negative, but additional questions revealed the fact that subjects preferred to initiate certain individualized contacts with persons from their friends' groups, with the so-called friends of friends who, for various reasons, looked similar. As Andre stated, 35 from his Facebook list of friends were, in fact, acquaintances with whom he interacted directly as friends of his friends and to whom the subject sent friendship requests with a view to establishing unmediated connections. In this respect, the similarity as a consequence was a result of the similarity as a catalyzer. In other words, Andrei extended the similarity assumed in the relationship with his friends to his friends' friends also.

The eleventh question – "Do you consider that Facebook helps you in developing your relationships with a certain category of friends?" – highlighted once again the relevance of the similarity as a catalyzer. Thus, according to Mara, Facebook helps particularly in developing relationships with faculty colleagues due to the opportunity of discussing upon various subjects that are not related to the faculty, topics meant to facilitate mutual discovery and knowledge that may also highlight other similar dimensions in terms of personality, attitudes, behaviors, beliefs etc. Also, Facebook helps in developing relationships with friends met through certain specialized online networks such as poker sites (Poker Stars, Full Tilt Poker), by sharing experience or by discussing post-factum upon certain situations experienced during the games, according to Andrei's point of view. On the contrary, Facebook has no major impact upon developing relationships with childhood friends that are either far away or close. In this case, the role of Facebook is to maintain the communication channel open, the friendship connections being already closely tied.

The twelfth question – "What determines you to include in your list of friends a person that you have not yet met by direct interaction" – resumed, tangentially, certain aspects assumed by the preceding items, confirming the importance of similarity as a connection understood as similarity as a condition objectified in the virtual environment. The link between the interviewed students and persons unknown directly but that appear in their Facebook list was represented by the common passions, hobbies and interests. Hereby, a shared preference, relevant for both parties, constitutes a necessary and sufficient condition to bind a relation of friendship in the online environment, although, as Radu admits, only a small part of his Facebook friends are included in this category.

Analogously, the thirteenth question – "What determines you to communicate with this person frequently although you have not yet had the chance of meeting him directly?" – gradates the overall problem. According to Andrei, communication with these friends relies on their common interest or passion – "The communication with friends that he plays online poker with and that refers to the experience lived and acquired during the games is essential. If you know how to make use of such information, you may become better at what you like". Therefore, obtaining useful, often captivating information from more experienced persons becomes a motivating factor for the constant initiation of communication, the similarity as a connection based on sharing passions ensuring the coherence of interaction.

To a certain extent, friendships among individuals both in the offline and the online environment do not rely on a summation of the similarity areas, but on the degree of relevance attached to each area by each subject. The common interest in or passion for certain fields of activity may be only occasionally more important than the similarity of age, social gender, socio-professional status. Also, the desire to avoid conflicts and, implicitly, to preserve the groups' approbation and validation (similarity as a consequence) may act as a suppressive factor in accepting friendships with a conflicting potential.

The last question – "What would be, according to you, the profile of a friend impossible to accept on Facebook" – completes the perspectives proposed by the previous items. As a common pattern, most of the subjects described the impossible friend to accept as opposite to themselves (without being aware of this). At this level, Andrei's response is indicative of the general approach on this matter – "The friend that is impossible to accept is somebody I have nothing in common with, that attacks unconditionally and is never satisfied by anyone". In other words, an individual that he would not accept on Facebook is a person with whom he shares no characteristic from the similarity as condition and similarity as a context dimensions, a person that would elude any principle of the similarity as a consequence (social validation, cohesion, group conformity), a person that would act as an obstacle for the emergence of the similarity as a catalyzer.

Discussion and conclusions

Investigating the Facebook online social networks has revealed the configuration of the various hypostases of similarity in the virtual environment. Moreover, the answers to the interview questions validated the main hypothesis and the five secondary hypotheses of the research. According to the findings, the emerging or existing communities on Facebook reiterate the design of the existing similarity from the physical communities, maintaining and enhancing interaction, respectively the communication among those that constantly interact within the offline environment.

Focusing upon the relations established in the offline environment, through direct interaction, the main dimensions updated in the online environment are also those influencing or determining the close connections from the physical reality: similarity as a condition, similarity as a context, similarity as a catalyzer and similarity as a consequence. All these elements are also extrapolated within virtual communities, the latter projecting and amplifying the similarity among individuals through communication, social co-presence, mutual exposal, sharing.

In this respect, a new concept may be advanced in order to explain the constitutive and functional basics of the Facebook online social networks – the concept of "projected communities". The projected communities are ambivalent in nature, as they represent a projection of the offline social networks in the virtual environment, and, at the same time, they stand for a individual project, as he is fully free to include or exclude friends in and from his virtual group.

It should be noted that, on this level, the only hypostasis of similarity, organically associated with the opportunities offered by the virtual environment (similarity as a connection) does not occupy a crucial place in expanding the social capital from the online social networks. The items focused upon the testing of the similarity as a connection have revealed the fact that this does not constitute an important factor of forming connections and of interrelating in the online environment, on the contrary, in an eventual hierarchy of elements, the similarity as a connection would occupy the last position in terms of the relevance or of the degree of impact upon the crystallization of friendships. Generally, the subjects are only slightly interested in initiating contacts and establishing new relationships on Facebook, their attention being focused upon maintaining and developing the relationships that have already been established based on such criteria as: the similarity of socio-professional statuses, of the socio-economic environments, of opinions, beliefs, activities, formal and informal contexts etc.

In this light, the similarity as a connection is invested with signification, with the meaning of similarity as a condition unaffected by spatial restrictions. According to the results of the research, subjects accepted friendship requests or initiated friendship requests after having viewed the information from the profile of a certain person, after having analyzed the basic information (for example, age, social gender, address) and the information referring to interests and preferences, education and job etc. Also, including an unknown individual directly in one's online network was the result of sharing certain common

interests, highly relevant for both parties (the status of member in certain specialized online social networks) or common hobbies (the passion for interactive games, for example). At this level, the similarity as a condition is outweighed by the similarity as a catalyzer that multiplies and amplifies the initial areas of similarity.

In conclusion, as a social networking site, Facebook is particularly used for reasons related to social documentation (social searching) and maintaining preexisting close relationships (bonding social capital) that imply knowledge of new information about persons met offline, and less for social exploration (social browsing) that refers to using Facebook to initiate new contacts. Moreover, the most important contribution of this online social network is related to two central dimensions: the opportunity of developing the relationships crystallized in the offline environment in multivalent ways and of maintaining the communication channels open with friends from the offline environment that are away or that, due to limited time, do not have the possibility to interact directly constantly.

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APPENDIX

Interview guide

How many friends do you have on Facebook now?

What is the social type of most of your friends? Do you consider that this aspect is irrelevant or did you have clear reasons for such a choice?

What age interval do most of your friends fall within?

What are your interests and hobbies (give at least two of the most relevant for each category)?

On what criteria do you initiate a friendship request or do you accept a friendship request on Facebook?

What category do most of your friends fall into (former faculty colleagues, faculty colleagues, offline close friends that you frequently interact with directly, neighbors from your native town or from the hostel, persons you know only online etc)? Is there any motivation for the main percentage of this category?

Which of your friends do you communicate most frequently and for the longest time on Facebook? What do you usually discuss upon?

What are, in your opinion, the advantages of communicating on Facebook as compared to communicating on other online social networks?

Have you ever joined a group because many of your friends were already part of the respective group? Why?

Do you consider that Facebook helps in developing relationships with any of the categories of friends? If yes, with whom the most and with whom the least? What arguments can you give to support your opinion?

What determines you to include in your list of friends a person that you have not yet met by direct interaction?

What determines you to communicate with this person frequently although you have not yet had the chance of meeting him / her directly?

What would be, according to you, the profile of a friend impossible to accept on Facebook? Please mention five essential attributes.

How effective are the nutritional programs for schoolchildren in Romania?

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Abstract

The article assesses the analysis of the two European nutrition schemes in schools (milk and fruit) and how their implementation has contributed to the achievement of the specific objectives set for both programs, but also on the extent to which they can be used as support tools for children coming from poor families or for sustaining nutritional policies for schoolchildren. It provides a review of the evaluation reports of the European subsiding programs for nutrition in schools (The European schemes for milk and fruit and vegetables) in schools and uses the main findings of the last evaluation of the main Romanian nutritional programme (Role and milk). The article shows that the deficiencies identified for the European nutritional schemes are even pronounced at national level, mainly because of the lack of any strategically approach. The article ends with a proposal for an alternative for the development of a nutritional program adequate for better positioning within the scope of a strategy aiming at reducing the obesity and excessive weight.

Keywords: school food policy, nutritional policies, children obesity and excessive weight, socially disadvantaged children.

Introduction

The first measure targeting to provide a nutritional support for schoolchildren was implemented in Romania starting 2002 under the name "Role and Milk" (Corn și Lapte). The programs reach all children attending different forms of pre-university education, the European legislation including high-school education as eligible since 2008, while most Member States provide access to children in pre-school, primary or secondary (lower secondary) education, same as Romania, which excludes however from the program also some schools that offer alternative dining programs, such as extended-day program kindergartens. In 2009 a new component have been added by providing fresh fruits to pupils.

Although it has an enormous potential for supporting a nutritional policy targeting schoolchildren, the programme still lack in identity and strategically approach and is weakly consistent with the objectives of the European schemes that co-financing the programme and provides a common framework of implementation at European level.

Defining elements of the European nutritional schemes targeting schoolchildren

The European schemes for milk and fruit in schools are two European programs with voluntary participation of the Member States, and receiving funding from the EU budget. Both schemes have similar objectives, aiming a) to support specific markets and contributing to the price stabilization for milk and milk by-products, namely fruit and vegetables and b) to increase the consumption of such products among children and youth by easier access to healthy food. Other significant changes made in 2008 are related to enhancing the educational component, more obviously in case of the fruit scheme, which since its inception has focused on the healthier nutritional behavior among children. Moreover, the fruit scheme explicitly stipulates mandatory implementation of educational activities, which still are not subsidized, being optional for the milk scheme. Another difference of the fruit scheme is that the products are distributed free of charge, the necessary budget differences for the procurement being borne by the participating states. The milk scheme allows free or low-cost distribution for the products.

European School Milk Scheme

The European School Milk Scheme is an EU program initiated in 1977 and aiming to support milk producers by encouraging milk consumption among children and young people and promoting a healthy diet. At first, the program focused on its primary objective, but its subsequent successive amendments emphasized the educational component. As a matter of fact, at European level, the impact of the program judging from the objective of stimulating milk market is negligible, the amount of milk distributed by the program being in average 0.3% of the total amount of milk produced in Europe (2013). In Romania, the program has the largest share from local market among the European countries, the program ensuring the acquisition

of 5.4% of the total milk production. The budget for the 2011-2012 school year was of 90 million at European level. The subsidy is modest, covering between 10-15% from the direct cost of the milk (Germany and UK) to 25% in Poland (2013), the differences being justified by the national prices.

The total number of children taking part in the program in Europe knows significant variations generated by the changes of the eligibility conditions within the states with a large number of school children (e.g. France, Italy, and Poland). From 21 million children in 2008-2009, the number of schoolchildren in the program dropped to 17.2 million in 2010-2011, and rising to 20 million in the 2011-2012 school year (2013). There is no limit for the subsidy coming from the EU budget, the amount of funding being conditioned only by the maximum number of children eligible for taking part in the program. At European level, 23% of the milk is distributed free of charge (for all eligible schoolchildren in Romania, primary schools in Poland), 33% at low price (Germany, secondary schools in Poland), and 44% is distributed in school cafeterias such as an added supplement for the served meals (France, Italy and Sweden).

The European Court of Auditors Report (2011) states that the scheme has a very limited impact. Initially it was estimated that, on short term, the school milk scheme will increase milk consumption among young people, and in the long run it will influence consumer behaviour (including among family members of the beneficiary schoolchildren). Both forms of impact were not confirmed by subsequent assessments (1990, 1999, 20051, 2011), in 1999 (1999) the termination of the program was even proposed due to negative conclusions on the impact and the achieved results. The recommendation of the evaluation report in 1999 was based on the fact that the impact of the program on the milk market was insignificant (the program representing 0.3% of the total milk consumption in the beneficiary countries); lowering the milk price, including in relation to other types of beverages (juices, mineral water) was not associated with an increase in consumption, but rather with a decrease; the program was not accompanied by educational measures promoting the consumption of milk and a healthy nutritional style. The European Court of Auditors Report (2011) notes some improvements from the time of the evaluation in 1999, but it shows that most deficiencies persist in varying degrees. The report also shows that the results are satisfactory only in the countries where milk is distributed free of charge.

School Fruit Scheme

The School Fruit Scheme was implemented starting with the 2009-2010 school year having an annual budget of 90 million in Europe, with different national funding corresponding to the degree of development of the component regions, 75% being allocated to the convergence regions and 50% for the rest of the regions. The co-financing is provided by the Member States so that products are distributed free of charge to children. Unlike the milk scheme, the Member States are obliged to implement accompanying measures in order to ensure children and young people knowledge about healthy eating and the importance of fruit and vegetables consumption.

The impact on the fruit and vegetable market is much lower as for the milk scheme, the produced consumption rising to 0.06% (5 times lower than for the milk scheme). Within the 2010-2011 school year the scheme had 8.15 million beneficiary children, representing 25% of the total of eligible children for the program (2012). But the program is in its early stage of implementation, the absorption degree at European level of the available budget (90 million) being of 61.6% for the 2011-2012 school year. The national co-financing was approximately 40%, much lower compared to the milk scheme, although there are funds allocated for accompanying measures aiming education, which are estimated at 4.5% of the total amount spent on implementing the scheme. Romania has one of the lowest acquisition costs for the fruits distributed in schools, but the efficiency is also a result of the sporadic distribution. In countries where there is a higher frequency for the distribution of goods (3-5 times per week) the price significantly increases due to the higher share of logistics costs (transport, storage). Some of the deficiencies of the school milk scheme at European level were taken in consideration for the fruit scheme, leading to positive results in implementation, as shown by the results of an evaluation in 2012 ((2012). The main change occurred in managing the educational component, compulsory for the fruits and vegetable scheme which allow a better impact on promoting a healthy eating behaviour.

The implementation of the European schemes in Romania

The "Role and Milk" Program runs under Law 6/2012 amending and supplementing the Government Emergency Ordinance 96/2002 on providing dairy and bakery products for schoolchildren between the 1st and the 8th grade in both private and public education system, and also preschool children in private and public kindergartens with 4 hours normal program. At

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[1] The evaluation is 2005 was accomplished only in UK

first, the program reached children in primary and secondary school, and was expanded in 2009 also to early school education. The initial maximum limit was of 0.7 RON (about 0, 15 Euro) amended in 2008 up to 1.17 RON (0, 26 Euro), which should have covered both the bakery and the dairy products. While the 2002 and 2009 the law was allowing limited distribution of milk-based products (up to 33% of the maximum quantity), from 2012 the milk by-product is restricted to yogurt, distributed under the same maximum limit. This is a restriction that the European Commission does not impose, the distribution of by-products being possible under certain conditions concerning the content of milk or individualizing the product. Another restriction, but which reflects the intention to streamline the management of the program, refers to the accountability of the coordination within the county councils, respectively local councils for Bucharest's sectors. The funding of the program is also in charge of these institutions.

From the total grant covered by the EU, Romania is being allocated 12% (for the 2011-2012 school year), the received amount being of 8.29 million euros and partly covering the costs on dairy products distributed to children. The contribution of the Member States is voluntary and focuses on the quality or the quantity of products children receive. For Romania, in addition to the co-financing for dairy products, the national contribution also consists in bakery products, distributed along with the first ones. According to the dimension of the grant received from the EU budget, Romania demands one of the largest amounts (in absolute terms) together with Poland, France and Sweden, although it has a considerably smaller target group (school population covered by the program).

Romania reports the highest consumption per schoolchild, along with Sweden, Finland and Denmark. While in Romania the number of eligible school aged children for joining the program is of 1.95 million, in Poland it reaches 6.55 million and in France 13.59 million. By contrast, when speaking about the general population, Romania has, along with Bulgaria, the lowest amount of the annual milk consumption per-capita: almost 20 times less than Finland or Ireland, the countries with the highest consumption in Europe (about 140 kg per capita, annual average for the period 2000-2010). In what concerns cheese consumption reported to the same period, Romania ranks last among the EU27, with an annual consumption of about 5 kg per-capita, nearly 10 times less than in the countries with the highest consumption (Denmark, France, Italy).

Also for the fruit and vegetables scheme, Romania has about 12.7% of the beneficiary children within the participating states, after Spain with 12.9% and Italy with 16.5% (2012). For fruits, the maximum cost is lower than for the "Role and milk" program, the maximum amount reaching 0.37 RON / day for each schoolchild. Data of the evaluation report for fruit and vegetables scheme (2012) shows that Romania had in 2010, along with Cyprus and Greece, one of the highest quantities of fruit and vegetables consumed per capita. However, the daily consumption in Romania has the most significant decrease comparing to 2006 (almost 30%). Also, a particularity in Romania is the high rate of rural population ensuring their agricultural needs in their own household, so it is likely that the high share of fruits and vegetables consumption isn't the result of a modern nutritional style but that of practicing the subsistence agriculture with a high share of self-consumption in the total consumption.

Romania does not show any discordance at European level regarding the impact of the two schemes, the results being modest. A particularity should be mentioned, however. Although the trend in other European countries is for the program to position itself as one of encouraging healthy eating, in Romania it is rather perceived as the main support tool for poor children, although it has no strategic direction defined, other than the opportunity of accessing European resources, when talking about public policies. Therefore, the implementation is rather focused on logistical and administrative aspects and ignores the schoolchildren as main beneficiaries and their nutritional needs. However, one of the main source of inefficiency is in serving the products and the lack of adjustment / diversification to the requirements of the schoolchildren (Arpinte et al., 2009). However, the same evaluation showed that the "Roll and milk" program (implicitly the fruit scheme introduced after) is significant for children coming from poor families, especially for those whom their families cannot provide the nourishment need. Surprisingly, among with children from poor families, the poor children in rural areas represent a significant category for which the program means a main source of food, although is commonly known that in rural area even the poorest families are able to cover their minimal feeding needs.

Even if the program proves to be helpful for poor schoolchildren, periodically the policy makers propose different alternatives for changing the program, the main reason being the lack of interest of most schoolchildren (except the poor ones) for the distributed products. The assessment report (Arpinte et al., 2009) shows that only a small proportion of the schoolchildren consume the dairy and bakery products, mostly because of their poor quality.

Policy options for the effective implementation of the two European schemes

Despite the deficiencies analysed above, some of them being common for the most participating countries, while other are specific at national level, the schemes have some incontestable advantages:

They are supported with EU subsidies – although the received funds from EU budget are not significant (for role and milk programme the subsidies cover about 20% of the cost of programme, but the share in the cost of the milk, the subsidized product, is even higher). By stopping the participation into the programmes are lost important resources for supporting a nutritional programme in schools regardless the way of the implementation (in current formula or developed as a more complex nutritional programme).

The schemes have an important awareness component, more emphasised for fruits and vegetables scheme, which might be further used as a tool for various nutritional awareness activities in schools that are deficient in the Romanian educational system.

They are supporting the milk and fruits markets, aspects that are more important in case of Romania than for other participating countries. If at European level the average of the milk used for the school scheme is about 0.3% from total market, in Romania represents about 5.4%.

However, implementing the programme in current formula (providing the products free of charge and addressing all eligible schoolchildren allowed) should be changed at strategically approach level. As explained above, the implementation of the schemes in Romania lacks in vision that negatively impact on final beneficiaries. From addressing schoolchildren belonging to poor families, the scheme are useful but inefficient considering that they addresses all school children, most of them not consuming the products. Therefore, the opportunity of using the schemes as a tool for promoting a healthy lifestyle and reducing the obesity is lost.

Alternatives for the development of an effective nutritional policy in schools

The importance of a school food policy targeting all children, and including adequate measures for including pupils belonging to socially vulnerable groups is demonstrated by various evaluations. Such programs have both a positive impact on improving the nutritional intakes of the all participating children and reducing the inequalities in diet for children from different social backgrounds (Adamson et al., 2012, He, 2012, Hinrichs, 2010).

Considering the actual needs, a possible alternative of nutritional policy for schoolchildren should be focused on:

Addressing all schoolchildren by promoting a healthy lifestyle through improving the existing schemes subsidized by EU funds (milk in schools and fruit and vegetables)

Developing an additional system for meals in schools addressing all schoolchildren, but free of charge only for children belonging to families with low incomes.

Addressing all schoolchildren by promoting a healthy lifestyle

An important category for the two nutritional schemes might be represented by children at risk of nutritional diet imbalance (mainly because of consumption of high calorie, but nutrient poor food products), their number increasing rapidly during the last years.

Data coming from WHO Initiative of child obesity surveillance in Europe for the 2007-2008 school year show that the prevalence of overweight (including obesity) among children aged 6 to 9 years included ranges between 19 and 49% in boys and 18 and 43% in girls within the 13 European countries where data were collected, Malta having the highest share, and Netherlands the lowest (Wijnhoven et al., 2013). WHO Initiative has expanded to the subsequent school years, with Romania part of the third wave (the 2012-2013 school year), the data being not yet available.

Although the common perception of poverty is associated with the lack of food, so children's access to European schemes would supplement such poor nutritional supply, a number of studies (Branca et al., 2007, Low, 2010) show that obesity affects in a higher weight the poor, reducing their chances of social reintegration. In fact, WHO estimates that 75% of overweight or obese children will come from small and medium-income countries, where malnutrition will continue to affect a significant proportion of children (Low, 2010). The objectives of the two schemes are related to the European strategy for nutrition, overweight, obesity and health related problems[1], showing that most of the health problems are associated with a poor, unbalanced diet. At European level, in 2007 it was estimated (Branca et al., 2007) that 22 million children are overweight (20%) of whom 5.1 million are obese (data don't include Bulgaria and Romania). WHO shows that the obesity prevalence is 10 times higher than in the '70s, and the projections for 2010 were showing almost three times increase in

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[1] COM (2007) 279 final. White paper on a strategy for Europe on nutrition, overweight and obesity related health issues

the number of obese children (15 million) (Branca et al., 2007). The effects of obesity are being felt on long-term. Overweight or obese children aged 3 to 8 years already have vascular lesions and are at risk of being victims of bullying or social isolation (McBride, 2010, Low, 2010). Other authors show that there is a double risk for obese children than for the normal weight children to deal with overweight as adults (Oude Luttikhuis et al., 2009).

The concerns of the public institutions for population's nutrition and diet, especially children's, are not enough clearly outlined in order to confirm the priority of the domain and the importance of the nutritional imbalances (malnutrition or obesity) problem and related health risks. An initiative is the Plan of action on food and nutrition developed by the National Food and Nutrition Committee, a document which is actually a draft of a potential strategy. The document recognizes the importance of nutrition and child feed, focusing on early age. The "Roll and milk" program is mentioned as a measure within the course of action aiming to reduce deficiencies of calcium, vitamin A, vitamin D, vitamin B complex. The brief legislative framework is represented by four pieces of legislation that regulate hygiene rules within the institutions for the care, education and training of children and youth (Order 1955 from October 18, 1995), the establishment of the National Food and Nutrition Committee (Order 687 from March 27, 2008), the list of un-recommended food products for children and teenagers and of the principles underlying on their healthy nutrition (Order 1563 from 2008) and healthy eating in pre-university education schools (Law 123 from 2008). Thus, except for the order 1563 from 2008, which stipulates a set of rules on child nutrition and lists food types that can't be sold or distributed in pre-university education schools, the legislation proves to be poor and insufficient for the regulation of a strategy on nutrition and food for children and teenagers. A major difficulty for a detailed strategic plan, addressed in a realistic manner, is the lack of data on diet habits and the prevalence of obesity in children.

Some measures for sustaining the strategic option should be considered:

increasing the role of school in choosing dairy products or fruits to distribute schoolchildren. This way, a better response to consumer preferences of schoolchildren is provided.

Assuring a flexible integration into complementary programs implemented in school.

differentiated approach depending on children's age (e.g., increasing the attractiveness of the packaging or content for younger children and in accordance with their consumption habits).

reviewing the approach of the nutritional supplement based on the latest recommendations coming from the nutritionists

Developing an additional system for meals in schools addressing all schoolchildren, but free of charge or provided at reduced price only for poor children

The most common proposals coming from the teachers (Arpinte et al., 2009) for reviewing the program aimed at improvement by providing the nutritional supplement exclusively to poor schoolchildren. Such option is budgetary affordable in the context of scarcity of the resources for the development of new social programs, but has a series of disadvantages, the most important ones being the difficulty of implementing the test meaning system for selecting the poor children and exposing the beneficiaries to potential prejudices. In this context, the most suitable solution is to provide a meal for all children, but free of charge or at a reduced price for children belonging to vulnerable groups. The main advantage for such option is that may became the main pillar for the nutritional policy targeting the children. However, the access differentiated, free of charge or at a reduced price for vulnerable pupils, is the most common practice in the other European countries. Excepting the Sweden and Finland, where the meal is provided free of charge for all schoolchildren, in the other countries (UK, France, Spain, Italy) where a meal in provided in schools, only poor pupils are entitled to receive the meal free of charge or at a reduced price (Clare Harper et al., 2008). For instance, in Italy the meal price is reduced by 25% for the children belonging to the families with low income (10.643 euro annually) or free of charge for families with incomes lower than 3.537 euro. Such differentiated system would eliminate some disadvantages associated to the alternative designed only for the poor pupils that may expose them to the risk of discrimination and prejudices. Also, it will keep the advantages for supporting further policies aiming at reducing obesity and weight excess among schoolchildren and promoting a healthy lifestyle.

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A Research on Authority Relations in Organizations

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate employees' general attitude against the authority. It has been voiced for a few decades that management has been much more participative and employees have been more autonomous. This paper will discuss employees' reaction to authority in-between obedience and self-determination. For this aim, 46 employees from 5 different organizations were interviewed to get data and then it was analyzed. Results show that employees working in public sector obey much more to the authority. And high-skilled work force is more autonomous than low-skilled ones.

Key Words: Authority relations, organizations, authoritarianism.

Introduction

One of the main issues of organizational life is authority relations and almost all of the managerial accounts are somewhat linked to this issue. Even it is viewed and analyzed from different perspectives, we generally see a consensual simple definition for the concept of authority when we glance at management and organization text books; *"it's the right to give order"* (Hatch, 1997; Daft, 1998, 2000). Though it sounds like a very ordinary statement; its "deconstruction" helps us to see a different phenomenon. The meaning of the phrase "giving order" mainly refers to the "act of command". On the other hand, it includes a second connotation transcending the primary meaning: it is the desire to give "order" that aims to overcome chaos, complexity and disorder. The will behind implementing authority rises on this desire. It seems that the homophony and overlap on the act of "giving order" makes visible the main controversial part of authority relations in the organizational environments which correspondingly positions processes and people in between two main polar.

On the one hand, an authority structure is usually seen to be a fundamental organizational answer to systemic needs for control and coordination; on the other hand, authority-obedience relations carry with them axiomatic possibilities of subjugation, loss of freedom and loss of self-direction (Limerick, 1976: 56; Barker, 2005). This represents one of the old tensions in organizational processes. And this paper aims to interrogate this issue from the view point of employees who do not have but controlled by authority.

People of our age are called as "organizational man" that refers to the reality in which human life is surrounded by organizations (Presthus, 1962; Whyte, 1956). This reality is associated with an historical period goes at least one century back. However, the last quarter of this period is generally characterized by some differentiated conditions that have eventually changed the nature of "organizational order" in which authority relations portray a different mode of being. What makes the new mode different from the former one basically lies under qualities of work, scope of competition and structural positions hold by both superiors and subordinates. It is believed that, since the last quarter of the 20th century, strict role differentiations and close control of superiors (who holds the authority) over subordinates (who are controlled by authority) have tended to be moderate so that subordinates are encouraged to involve in processes which, in turn, raises "participation and autonomy". It can be seen as a result of fact that authority relations created by solid hierarchical structures have been incompatible with *zeitgeist*.

Thus, in terms of the tension between control and freedom it can be read in many texts that, during the last few decades, game has developed in favor of the freedom. In other words, non-authority employees of recent times have been identified as much more free and autonomous. This implies that as long as participative management get stronger, authoritarian approaches and accordingly control and conformity more likely lose land. Namely, "organizational order" now corresponds to a new reality and, in turn, it entails a different authority mode enabling subordinates to participate much and to conform less. However, it still seems a matter of debate and claims on this direction don't sound too much realistic. Because, in general, the move towards participation in the workplace has shown greater diffusion at the level of principle than of practice (Romme, 1997; Stewart and Manz, 1995; Wall, 1982). The purpose of this paper is, in a sense, taking

authority relations under consideration to develop an insight about the attitudes of employees against the authority within the organization.

Thus, this study will attempt to answer the following questions; i) how employees react to authority; ii) to what extent they feel freedom to act autonomously and to what extent they obey or resist to authority? These questions will help us to understand and analyze the behavioral reactions of employees against authority and to reach some abstraction about authority relations.

Authoritarianism and Organizational Authority

Authority is, as a phenomenon, of course undetachable part of human life; since all ordered systems are in need of authority. But its reputation, as an academic issue, has expanded in the last century. It should be because of disappointments of modernity experienced in the first half of 20th Century, such as, world wars, genocides, colonization and so on. Most of these disappointments have been interpreted as the results of destructive authoritarianism (Fromm, 1973, 1942; Milgram, 1974; Adorno, 1950) and in the following period it has kept attracting attention by many studies (Weber, 1978; Mendel, 2002, 2005; Kojeve, 2007; Sennett, 1993).

Authority penetrated to management literature especially after Max Weber. But practically hierarchical structures can not be thought without authority. Even a number of authors have pointed at certain benefits of the authoritarian system (Romme, 1997; Carley, 1992; Jaques, 1990) some studies in the past demonized the bureaucratic authoritarianism (Bauman, 1989; Fromm, 1973). As it is stated by Bakunin, founder of the anarchist movement, all exercise of authority perverts and all submissiveness to authority humiliates (quoted by Limerick, 1976: 56). And that's why bureaucratic organizations, for some authors, are the source of this kind of submissiveness and humiliation. One of them was Erich Fromm who psychologically examined the impacts of authoritarianism in destructiveness and discredit bureaucracies as one of the entities creating authoritarian personalities:

> Roughly equivalent to the sadomasochistic character, in a social rather than a political sense, is the bureaucratic character. In the bureaucratic system every person controls the one below him and is controlled by the one above. Both sadistic and masochistic impulses can be fulfilled in such a system. Those below, the bureaucratic character will hold in contempt, those above, he will admire and fear. One only has to look at the facial expression and the voice of a certain type of bureaucrat criticizing his subordinate, or frowning when he is a minute late, or insisting on behavior that at least symbolically expresses that during office hours he "belongs" to the superior (Fromm, 1973: 294-295).

However, when human being reached the last quarter of the 20th Century some authors (Drucker, 1970, 1993; Toffler, 1971) heralded the end of demonic bureaucracies. In late twentieth century, like many things and bureaucracy, authority has been an issue of inquiry stems from dramatic changes in social, economic and politic accounts. This new era is defined with different names; such as postmodernity (Kumar, 1978; Harvey, 1990), new economy (Gershuny and Miles, 1983), second industrial divide (Piore and Sabel, 1984), post-industrial society (Bell, 1973), information society (Masuda, 1981), knowledge society (Stehr, 1994) etc. Some theorists claim that "post-conditions" have changed the management paradigm and practices that makes bureaucratic administration obsolete. Particularly effects of flexibilization and shift in economy have let to some changes in the employment of managerial power.

When they were discussing the postmodernism, for example, some authors (Rosenau, 1992; Barthes, 1977) declared the death of author/authority. Of course, this is an overstatement and does not refer to the inexistence of authority. Instead, a new mode of authority that is less effective than it once was (Pfeffer, 1997). So new tendency in how work is organized involves a shift to participative and cooperative way in the workplace (Romme, 1997) which is found inevitable because the issues faced tend to be too complex and interdependent to be solved by a few people in authority (McLagan and Nel, 1995). And participation is based on self-determination, which involves the power to act autonomously (Dahl, 1989; Emery, 1980).

If we accept all those true, we normally see much less authoritarianism in the organizations. However as it is stated before this exist as a "discourse" more than a practice (Romme, 1997). Thus, this study attempts to interrogate this issue, whether new management is less suppressive and employees are more autonomous.

Methodology

Sample

Since the business environment is heterogeneous and includes several different types of organizations, I attempted to contact at least one organization from each sector. In this respect, four main fields had to be considered; public, private, service, manufacturing. In other words, to be able to see differences and make some abstractions sample was planned to include employees from public and private ownerships and also from service and manufacturing industry. For the first step, organizations were selected by the reliance on availability. And five organizations were agreed to contribute for the research: three from private and two from public sector. However, organizations just represent the first step and the basic components of the sample are real employees, especially if it is a research on authority. And then employees were selected among those working under management. To do this most correctly, the manager (human resource manager, director, group manager, coordinator or whoever else is in cooperation with us) to whom research team was in contact was requested to provide staff list from which employees working at the middle or lower level of management were selected randomly. Totally, 46 interviewees participated in the research. From each of three organizations 10 employees were interviewed; and from the each of other two ones, eight employees were involved.

Procedure

A number of organizations were personally contacted. And they were asked if they would like to participate in the research. To make sure them, first draft of the research plan was sent them via e-mail. And a meeting was arranged with those who were eager to take part in the research at an agreed date. After we visited organizations employees were selected randomly among those who were enthusiastic to participate. To conduct the interviews, organizations provided a private office which enabled a free conversation with the participants.

Instrument

Research was framed within a qualitative design. A semi-structured interview was conducted to gather the primary data. It was composed of two distinct parts, i) demographic questions, ii) interrogation related to reactions against authority. Interviews were arranged between April and June, 2014. Apart from the demographic questions, six questions were asked to interviewees and they were framed, to some extent, in reflective forms. However, when the conversation gets deepened, some new questions reproduced and they provided additional data. Most of them were stated to ask about attitudes towards the authority. Each interview averagely lasted 30-35 minutes

Results

Demographic data

Interviews provided data from totally 46 employees working in five different organizations located and operating in Ankara, the capital city of Turkey. Two organizations are from public sector; of those one is in production (food industry) and the other one is in service (finance). On the other hand, three organizations operate in private sector. One of them is in software sector, one is in health industry and the last one is in communication. Besides white-collar employees, the blue-collar workers were also interviewed to more likely make some comparisons. Blue-collar workers were from each sector, one public (food industry) and one private (communication).

Data obtained by all these interviews were analyzed and the attitudes on authority were basically categorized in seven groups. But they were reduced to four groups at the end, since three of the groups, to a large extent, had similarities with one of the others, that's why they were combined. Thus, based on the reaction against authority participants were typified, from the conformist end to the participative end, in four groups: obedient, silent, recommender, and objector.

Table 1. Frequency distribution of demographic data

	n = 46	%
Gender		
Male	33	71,7

Female	13	28,3
Age Group		
18-24	6	13
25-34	15	32,6
35-44	16	34,8
45-54	5	10,9
55-…	4	8,7
Education		
Elementary	3	6,5
Secondary	9	19,6
Tertiary	34	77,9
Job type		
Office worker	24	52,2
Technical support	7	15,2
Production labor	9	19,6
Coordinator	6	13

Obedient

The data provided by respondents reveals that some of the employees totally conform to the authority. They can be identified as "authoritarian". The term defines not only people dominating the others but also those who voluntarily accept authoritarian control by others. In psychology they are diagnosed as sadomasochistic (Fromm, 1973, 1942).

Fromm asserts that these people "*quite regularly show a marked dependence on powers outside themselves, on other people, or institutions, or nature. They tend not to assert themselves, not to do what they want, but to submit to the factual or alleged orders of these outside forces*" (Fromm, 1942: 122). A few responses enabled to conclude that there are some employees showed the signs of this kind of personalities. P4 is one of them. He is working in the food industry as a production worker. He is in late thirties and has secondary level education.

One of the questions directed was that; "If you think differently than your supervisor in doing things, do you express your ideas?". P4 responded this questions with only a few words; *"Its not necessary."*. When he was asked a more detailed explanation he continued with a common cliché, *"He is more educated than me. He knows what he has to…"*. Adorno (1950) believes that authoritarian personalities apply to stereotyping so often due to the lack of self-confidence and anti-intellectualism.

Another one, O2 working as an officer in the public bureau answered this question like the following: *"I do what I am ordered, if something goes wrong I don't want to be in trouble"*. And this is also another sign of the authoritarian tendency and we remember here again what Bauman said (1989) on the reality of bureaucracies which enforces the authoritarian personality by creating a hierarchical mechanism to "obliterate the responsibility". And also another characteristic of this group of people is not to counteract even against the oppressive behaviors. It includes even not thinking about complaining to the upper levels of management.

Silent

Second category defined within this research is the group who don't prefer to show a manifest reaction. It's concluded that those employees are not actually content with some decisions made by their supervisors. And what they have in common is that they have not been working in the current organization since a long time. One of them is O14. She is a sales representative and working for two years in this organization.

Same question about expressing personal ideas was asked and she answered this question that she "doesn't want to 'intervene' in making decisions and taking them in practice". What we literally named as "participation" turned into

"intervention" in her language. This indicates that they are prone to think that "intervention" is an unnecessarily big reaction. Instead they prefer not to react or keeping silent. But this should be indeed a kind of obedience or for an optimist interpretation it's just "inaction". Or even it can not be seen as a passive resistance.

To be able to make sure why they thought so, they were asked how they deal with the inconsistency if they do not "intervene" though they are not happy. How they answered this question put them in a position which includes some cues inspire us to separate them from the obedient ones. One of them is working as a coordinator in an office job. Basically, he is an office worker but as he is appointed at a kind of leading position responsible of seven people with whom he works together, he is titled as "coordinator". He responded this question as follow: *"Actually there is no inconsistency. It's not true that there is no reaction. To be silent is a reaction. If you don't contribute verbally what is being done, this shows that you are not in the same route. And also we don't have to forget that when we are silent our body language talks"*.

Another reason of silence was also explained with the insensitivity of the management. On of the respondents states that his words are carefully listened but no action is taken by his supervisors. That's why he prefers not to say anything but to show his dissent. It is concluded that employees in this group reluctantly perform what they are asked. But they work in a context in which silence is interpreted as disapproval or a kind of "soft opposition". And also, to a large extent, verbal reactions are substituted by body language to show discontent with the management.

Recommender

Depending on the data obtained from interviewees, it is found out that some respondents take place in a category which can be defined "recommender". This group of employees' relations to authority seems to be at a moderate level of resistance. In other words, they generally prefer "participating" the processes or show of their opposition in the form of recommendation.

They believe that it's a kind of contradiction and a refuse of "absolute authority". Since they prefer to exhibit a sensitivity not to create a conflict, they attempt to show their reactions in the form of recommendation. When they are ordered to do something they turn with an alternative solution. And they believe that this is a sort of "emasculation" of the "hard authority". If, especially, the recommended step brings the success power imposed by authority starts to soften.

One of the questions asked to the respondents was that; "Are you always in congruence with your supervisor?" A number of employees answered this question in almost same direction. It can be coded that they are of course not always in congruence… And even most of time they are in the opposite edges. But they (subordinates) manage to package their disobedience in a more acceptable and agreeable way.

Objector

Objectors take the other polar opposite the obedient one. They represent the most contradictory position against authority and they can easily stand against domination. Existence of this group is especially felt in the private organization operating in heath care industry. It might be because of the sensitivity of the service and the target customers that it seems a democratic culture can grow there easily.

One of the questions asked to interviewees was that; "Do you obey to the orders of your supervisors, even if you somewhat guess following the order creates bad results?" Interviewees, which are then coded in high level of objection group, emphasize the words "definitely not" when they are answering the question. They rationalize why they can easily stand against authority with the quality of work and also qualification of job holders. They perform a job which requires high level of expertise and participation to be able to manage to make critical decisions.

And also it seems, in private software company, that an anti-authoritarian work climate has been alive. Even there may be some conflicts, everyone interviewed both superior and subordinate believe that works should be operated in a democratic and participatory way. A fact supporting this belief was the "unbearable lightness" of the hierarchical levels. Superior and subordinate employees work in the same office together that shows no privileges for superior in terms of physical conditions. On the other hand even they formally hold different hierarchical levels, both superior and subordinate, who were interviewed sequentially, it seems this status difference exist nominally.

Conclusion

Present research is planned to investigate and develop an insight, at least at a minimal scale, if the resonating claim is true that in the recent times work force's attitude against authority is developing in favor of the freedom. In other words, employees' relations to authority are taken under consideration moving from the claim that anti-authoritarian behavior is growing in business life. This means that authority relations shifted from obedience- like it happened during the sovereignty of bureaucratic periods- to the participation and freedom. So, moving from this point, where employees stand in-between obedience and freedom in their relation to their superiors is interrogated.

It is not easy to exactly set the position of employees in this line and to generalize what has been found out with this study. Because, this research was conducted on a quite limited scale. Even though the heterogeneity of the sample is regarded to reach more reliable results, it is not enough to generalize the findings obtained from only five organizations. And also as it is emphasized by some authors that there should be of course a relation between authority structure and management subsystem (Katz and Kahn, 1966) or generally social system (Limerick, 1976). Present paper omitted this fact. Despite these limitations, it is possible to argue some points in developing an insight.

First of all, it is quite easily concluded that in public organizations, both production and service, authoritarian spirit seems stronger in comparison to the private ones. This may stem from a few reasons. First, even the public sector is being restructured for some years in recent times; it still stands on bureaucratic ruins. And it is specified by some authors (Bauman, 1989; Fromm, 1973) that bureaucracy creates a climate which is ideal for keeping alive the authoritarian nature. Second, in contrast to the private sector, public sector does not still work with performance principle. In other words, the most useful principal is to be in good relation to the management. This motivation most often prevents people to voice opposition against the authority.

Another point is about differences between white-collar and blue-collar workers. It is not a big deal to predict the role of qualification in determining the attitudes in relation to authority. Employees who have competent skills are more confident and feel of freedom to be in opposition to the superiors. And this research provided similar results about them. However, even semi-skilled or unskilled worker could be participative and free when they develop an informal relation to the superiors. One of the production worked told that he had an informal relation to foreman, that's why he could freely talk and they generally decide together.

Some unexpected results should also be specified. An office worker provided some information that his supervisor is flexible in defining the operational steps to be followed. However, he says, it is not because of manager's participative and democratic approach; it is because supervisor don't want to be blamed if something goes wrong. That's why he loosely determines the way and steps of the work to be done.

And finally, stating the main questions again is it possible to confirm the claim that since the last quarter of the 20th century participative management has been in power and that is why employees' attitudes in authority relations are generally towards self-determination and freedom? Depending on the data obtained with this research, it is not possible to exactly confirm this claim. However, findings provide some signs that yes, especially in "knowledge" businesses, where personal expertise and qualification are so high, employees do not let to be suppressed by a strong authority. And they don't like to obey totally to their superiors. However, in public sector and especially blue-collar workers exhibit, to a greater extent, obedience to the authority. Because, carrier advancement is mostly determined by the extent of congruence to the authority.

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THE ROLE OF "IT" IN "ESP" LEARNING

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Abstract

This paper aims to describe the current use and the impact of different technology equipment. in language learning . The advanced information technology of the last decade has not only changed our world but has also become a part of our everyday life. Information technology as a product and as a service that no one could have imagined its impact in the past, nowadays has become a product without which life can not be lived as it is lived now. The use of some technology tools , you tube programs, video recorders etc, enable teachers to differentiate instruction and adapt classroom activities by giving learners the change to hear pronunciation directly by the English speakers , thus enhancing language learning experiences. Regardless of where we live there is a burden of human and material resources available to us to expand our language-learning opportunities through distance learning programs and communication. IT has a great importance in assisting teachers of English language and other foreign languages as well in facilitating and mediating language learning for their students. The use of computers , mobile phones and other learning methods help learners achieve better results in schools, easier travelling and communicating. IT is saving a lot of translators time due to the google translation programs. Internet is the one that brought the world to our fingertips. Regarding internet we can share all sorts of things with the world, get authentic materials from anywhere, and interact with people in distant locations as never before. Free computer programs help learn language skills such as writing, reading, correct mistakes, translate different articles etc.

Key words; information technology, language, learners, internet, classroom etc.

Introduction

Communication is an essential part of the human experience.

The role of language in communication is to express and share ones feelings and ideas. Language allows us to express what we think and feel to another group of people. It enables us to learn, teach, express our preferences, agree on certain norms and standards within a society in order for us to co-exist. Language is instinctive even in cavemen who expressed themselves by sound, body language and even simple drawings.

English is such an important language because it is spoken by millions of people world-wide. Its prominence makes it a good choice for multinational businesses that need an international language with which to communicate. Fluency of language allows businesses to bridge an increasingly diverse workforce with a single language. This single-language model encourages much greater efficiency in communication. English is important since it is a well known language and has frequently been referred to as a world language.

English for specific purposes (ESP)

Learning a language is something we're born to do. As children, we learn to think , learn to communicate and understand grammar rules in our mother tongue, or native language. From then on, we learn all new languages in relation to the one we first knew—the one that we used to understand the world around us for the first time ever. English for specific purposes (ESP) is a needs based concept to determine which language skills should be profitably developed for professional success of students. Learning English as a foreign language (EFL) or general English indicates the use of English in a non - English speaking region. Nowadays it is widely accepted that learning to speak English in general may be the best thing one can do to improve everyday life. How can one have access to information that other people can not get, how to travel without being accompanied by a translator, and the most important of all, how to leave the others miles behind us? The answer is; simply by learning general English. But it is even more important for the learners of English to be able to learn English for all sorts of transactions, as the learners of ESP already have the basics of the English language and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job related functions. (Singh: 2005).

When teaching ESP there are certain basic questions to be taken into account such as: who the learners are, what their view towards language learning is, what particular skill will they be needing in their account, on the job situation, what their linguistic background or level of competence is, what their purpose and expectations are, and smilar .

Rosenberg (in Netiksiene: 2006) has written an article in which she has analyzed the differences between English for specific purposes and general English. In her article she considers where English for Specific Purposes, respectively Business English and General English overlap. To address these questions specifically, the author of the article has conducted a survey. She has asked a group of University teachers of the English language to brainstorm the differences and the similarities between general English and Business English. A number of ideas suggested by the participants in the brainstorming activity are listed below:

Business English	General English
Specialized vocabulary	Free time activity
Motivation related to job	More freedom in deviation from plan
Teach negotiation and presentation	More time for games
Techniques	Literature
Students very goal-oriented	Songs
More serious	More relaxed atmosphere
Business correspondence	General writing skills

According to Rosenberg, when the two lists are analyzed it may be concluded that general English and English for Specific Purposes have in common the following: Grammar and functions - grammar rules are the same everywhere; general vocabulary, and anxiety about capabilities, everyday English, small talk, travel vocabulary, survival English, and current events. ESP (English for Specific Purposes) according to Dudley - Evans (in Anthony: 1997) has been referred to as "applied ELT" (English Language Teaching) as the content and aims of any course are determined by the needs of a specific group of learners. ESP is often divided into EAP (English for Academic Purposes) preparing students for academic studies in universities around the world. Students learn skills such as writing academic papers, taking lecture notes and studying for exams, and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) teaching English in general or particular workplace training and development. Further sub-divisions of English for Occupational Purposes are sometimes made into business English, professional English (e.g. English for doctors, lawyers) and vocational English (e.g. English for tourism, nursing, aviation, and bricklaying). The characteristics of ESP summarized by Dudley – Evans are as follows:

ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of the learners, ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the specialism it serves, therefore it is centered not only on the language (grammar, lexis, register), but also the skills, discourses and genres appropriate to those activities. Nowadays ESP practitioners are also becoming increasingly involved in intercultural communication and the development of intercultural competence (Gatehouse).

Traditionally ESP courses were typically designed for intermediate or advanced adult learners. Nowadays many students can start to learn academic or vocational English at an earlier age and at a lower level of proficiency. ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. It covers subject varying from accounting or computer to tourism and business. Therefore the defining characteristic of ESP according to Dudley-Evans (Gatehouse) is that teaching and materials are based on the results of a needs analysis. Consequently the key questions are:

What do students need to do with English?

Which of the skills do they need to master and how well?

Which genres do they need to master either for comprehension or production purposes?

English for Specific Purposes has become increasingly important as there has been an increase in vocational training and learning throughout the world. With the spread of globalization has come the increasing use of English as the language of international communication. More and more people are using English in a growing number of occupational contexts. Students are starting to learn and therefore master general English at a younger age and so move on to ESP at an earlier age.

In some English speaking countries for instance Great Britain, Canada, America etc. governments are launching initiatives to help economic migrants obtain the practical English skills necessary to function in the workplace. For example, the new

English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) for Work Qualifications in the United Kingdom are designed to help employers and employees access courses which offer them the functional language skills demanded across a variety of employment sectors. Content includes topics such as customer care and health and safety (Dudley-Evans, 2001 in British Council). Kiktauskiene (2006) states that teaching language for specific purposes is determined by different professional/occupational, social and other – needs of the learner. Therefore, English for specific purposes (ESP) includes specialized programmes which are designed to develop the communicative use of English in a specialized field of science, work or technology. To be able to speak on a professional subject is not enough to know general vocabulary.

Technology and ESP learning

As humanity evolves, technology is evolving with it too, and impacting the way the communicative aspect of our lives functions. The effects of modern technology on how we communicate with one another are vast and varied, with both negative and positive impacts for our business and personal lives. Learning a second language whatever it may be especially the language that adults have as the language of their profession called language for specific purposes (ESP), both pronunciation and writing in last decades based on some studies resulted that some adult learners scored as well as native speakers. All this because of having the newest technology at home , starting from mobile Phone, iPad, computer etc. Modern technology is drastically altering the speed at which we communicate. An email is delivered in a matter of minutes. Text messaging allows us to send short messages to each other's phones in seconds. We can reach anyone by telephone almost anywhere with the continued development of network coverage. Instant messaging and video conferencing allow groups of people to speak in real time from all over the country   and   world
 The fact that learning a little every day by using one of these equipments is actually more effective than learning for hours at a time , can be proved by the fact that children have their favorite programs on their tablets, iPads, TV etc all day long even when going to sleep, while adults repeating almost same and new things everyday on mobile phone by using different language programs to express themselves, when chatting to the others or when wanting to write an academic letter or application, by having possibility of finding a sample of it on the internet just by google searching and the next time another sample . Social networking sites , such as "facebook", "skype" and " tweeter", are making information quicker, shortening forms of full words , and fully developing sentences and thought. This major social trend in the use of technology has a tremendous positive effect on education, especially for English language learners. These social networks facilitate the learner being able to meet friends who speak the language they are learning. Within this format they can tweet to new friends, make comments on their tweets and postings and also chat with them. So it is much easier to keep things in mind by seeing , reading or hearing them more often. In networks one can meet native and non native people online and have an interesting conversation with them in either groups or individuals by a call system. In this way everyone will learn the customs and traditions of the others nationalities and countries. In a short period of time they will learn new words, and different forms and structures from each other. In this way you are more comfortable with any mistakes in speech and the advantage of native speakers who are well versed in their language offering you correction. An interview transmitted on a TV channel showed that one in a five adults prefer to stay hungry rather than without a mobile phone, they are ready not to watch a TV but have a mobile phone, which means their life is totally addicted to mobile phones and internet. A large number of respondents have declared that they wake up at night just to see if there is any news on their phones, and the first thing they do in the morning is open their social networks and chat with their friend from different places. When asked of the advantages of these activities all of them have answered clearly that apart from being socialized they learn foreign languages. Most of their time is spent listening to MP3 player, reading lessons from LingQ on iPad, or iPhone, during the day. Respondents have also added that they don't necessary need to go to a classroom, or to a language lab to learn English, don't necessary need to spend a lot of money on language courses any more.

Classroom and technology

In recent years we have witnessed a significant advances in technology , which have changed our world and have also become a part of our every day life. Technology is something that can not be viewed as our optional resource or something that can be dispensed with but, it is a reality which to an increasing extend together with the science dictate our language in which we thing and speak, because we either speak that language or remain mute. English for specific purpose   (ESP) like any other aspect of our lives, has also been transformed by technology , especially by the use of computers in our classroom tasks as teachers and researchers. The role of the teacher is to coordinate the context surrounding language learning in order for students to succeed in improving their language skills (Day & Lloyd, 2007). New technologies are becoming essential to the learning of a second language in general especially language for specific purposes. Therefore, a fundamental issue that needs to be resolved is how to integrate these new technologies into the classroom setting. The resolution of this issue is largely the role of the teacher as an educator and one who guides the learning process. Multimedia

teachings enrich teaching content and make the best of class time and break the "teacher- centered" teaching pattern and fundamentally improve class efficiency towards " student-centered". Due to large classes it is difficult for the students to have speaking communication. The utilization of multi-media sound lab materializes the individualized and co-operative teaching. The traditional teaching model mainly emphasized on teachers' instruction, and the information provided is limited due to traditional classes. On the contrary, multimedia technology goes beyond time and space, creates more vivid, visual, authentic environment for English learning, it stimulates students' initiatives and economizes class time meanwhile increases class information. This way the role of computers in language instructions has become an important issue all around the world. The computer can play a useful part in the language class only if the teacher first asks: What is it that I want my students to learn today, and what is the best way for them to learn it? In most cases, the answer will probably not involve the computer, but there will be occasions when the computer is the most suitable and, for the students, most enjoyable way to get the job done. In addition, computer teaching is also flexible .It is obvious that the context can be created not only in the classroom, but after class too. Multimedia language teaching can also create a multimedia language environment for the purpose of conducting language teaching. English teaching itself must focus on the guidance of teachers and be student –centered (Holec, 1981), which is one of the principles for language teaching, because students are bound to have some problems in classroom teaching, which can be addressed under the guidance of teachers. In such circumstances , students can use the new technology to their advantage, such as manipulating the network to contact teachers, and receiving answers by email. It is rare to find a language class that does not use some form of technology/ computer. In recent years computers are used to both assist and enhance language learning . Teachers at different levels incorporate various forms of technology to support their teaching, engage students in learning process, provide authentic examples of the target culture, and connect their classrooms in a certain country in other countries where the target language is spoken.

It is helpful to think of the computer as having the following main roles in the language classroom:

teacher - the computer teaches students new language

tester - the computer tests students on language already learned

tool - the computer assists students to do certain tasks

data source - the computer provides students with the information they need to perform a particular task

communication facilitator - the computer allows students to communicate with others in different locations

Further, some technology tools enable teachers to differentiate instruction and adapt classroom activities and homework assignment, thus enhancing the language learning experience. Distance learning programs can enable language educators to expand language-learning opportunities to all students, regardless of where they live, the human and material resources available to them, or their language background and needs. In sum, technology continues to grow in importance as a tool to assit teachers of foreign languages in facilitating and mediating language learning for their students.

Computer effectiveness in classrooms

While technology can play an important role in supporting and enhancing language learning, the effectiveness of any technological tool depends on the knowledge and expertise of the qualified language teacher who manages and facilitates the language learning environment. In some cases however, school and university administrators have permitted technology to drive the language curriculum and have even used it to replace certified language teachers.

The use of computers in language learning is a well-researched field, with studies on different computer applications and their pedagogical value to language learning. In order for a learner to achieve the four skills: writing, reading, listening and speaking, during language learning it has to play an active role. In a computer based language learning environment the computer "will act as an aid to the learning process, facilitate learning to the provision of learning materials and resources and enable interactions between all learners and teachers involved in the environment." (Barr. P. 29) According to some existing literature the effectiveness of technology used in language education is very limited in four aspects: a) The number of systematic, well designed empirical evaluative studies of the effects of technology uses in language learning is very small, b) the settings of instruction where the studies were conducted were limited to higher education and adult learners, c) the languages studied were limited to common foreign languages and English as a foreign or second language, and d) the experiments were often short-term and about one or two aspects of language learning (e.g., vocabulary or grammar). However the limited number of available studies shows a pattern of positive effects. They found that technology-supported language learning is at least as effective as human teachers, if not more so. Technology is an ill-defined concept that encompasses a wide range of tools, artifacts, and practices, from multimedia computers to the Internet, from videotapes to

online chat rooms, from web pages to interactive audio conferencing. These technologies vary a great deal in their capacity, interface, and accessibility. It is thus misleading to think the effects of videotapes are the same as those of the online chat rooms just because they are all called "technology." Second, the effects of any technology on learning outcomes lie in its uses. A specific technology may hold great educational potential, but, until it is used properly, it may not have any positive impact at all on learning. Thus, assessing the effectiveness of a technology is in reality assessing the effectiveness of its uses rather than the technology itself. Since most information and communication technologies (ICT) can be used in a variety of ways, some more effective than others, it is inappropriate to over generalize the effectiveness of one way of using the technology to the technology itself. Third, to further complicate things, the effectiveness of an educational approach is highly mediated by many other variables—the learner, the task, the instructional setting, and of course the assessment tool. Thus, even the same use of a particular technology in different instructional settings may result in different learning outcomes.

The effectiveness of technology on language learning is dependent on how it is used. Certain technologies are more suitable than others for certain learning tasks for certain learners. Therefore research about appropriate ways and contexts of technology use is much needed (Salaberry, 2001).

The benefits of adding a computer component to language instruction include

(1) multimodal practice with feedback

(2) individualization in a large class

(3) pair and small group work on projects, either collaboratively or competitively

(4) the fun factor

(5) variety in the resources available and learning styles used

(6) exploratory learning with large amounts of language data

(7) real-life skill-building in computer use

Programs available for language learning

There are still a great many grammar and vocabulary drill programs available, but at least the vocabulary ones have started to be contextualized and to incorporate graphics, audio recording and playback, and video. Drills do have a place in language learning, particularly in the first stages of vocabulary acquisition where giving the same information in multiple modes, such as visual plus aural plus textual, enhances recognition and recall. More sophisticated error-checking can provide students real help in the feedback they receive, directing them to further practice or moving them to the next stage. Those who do need extra help with those aspects of language that improve with practice can use small, focused programs to give them additional time and assistance outside of regular class time.

Pronunciation work in particular has benefited from technology. Most pronunciation programs now incorporate some sort of voice recording and playback to let students compare their recording with a model. (Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. (1998)). Many of the English pronunciation programs, such as Ellis Master Pronunciation from CALI, American Accent Program from Ford Language Institute etc, have video clips and animations of the mouth making specific sounds. Some vocabulary programs, such as Practice Makes Perfect and Vocabulary Builder from The Learning Company, See It, Hear It, Say It! from Courseware Publishing International, use speech recognition technology to help students see how close they've come to the target pronunciation in several languages. A few programs, such as SpeechViewer from IBM and VideoVoice from MicroVideo, let students try to make the graphical representations of their speech overlap a teacher-recorded template. These visual cues work in conjunction with aural cues to provide sophisticated feedback.

Most drills now include games, as well, using the power of the computer and competition for or a collaboration toward a goal--the fun factor--to motivate language learning. Notable among the drill-as-game are Blackbelt Japanese from Educorp; English, French, Spanish, and German versions of Hangman (Hangman, La Guillotine, La Corrida de Toros, and Apfelschuss) from Gessler; Matchmaster from Wida; and Word Attack! from Davidson. These programs provide a varying amount of instruction along with the games, but all expect the teacher to do most of the work in introducing the concepts that students will practice.

Technology verses teacher

Although much of what is done at the computer can be done in other ways, some activities are far more productive with the resources that the computer can bring to bear. Text reconstruction is a good example. A teacher can create a sentence jumble by cutting up pieces of paper, but programs such as NewReader from Hyperbole can do it painlessly. With a paper

cloze, students who get stuck on a word have to give up completely and look at the whole text (or ask the teacher individually for a specific answer); on the computer, they can get a letter or word as a hint and go on. Both NewReader from Hyperbole and Text Tanglers from Research Design Associates can create a variety of text reconstruction activities for a plain-text word-processed document, greatly expanding any classroom reading that the teacher has prepared. Crossword and word search puzzles are examples of activities that take a great deal of time to prepare by hand, but very little time to do on the computer. The teacher types in a series of words, and the machine formats them appropriately. With a crossword puzzle, the teacher is then prompted for each clue, and the machine formats the whole crossword with clues on the page to be worked on the computer or printed out. Because the process is easy, students can create crosswords for each other. A program like Crossword Creator from Centron adds a thesaurus, making it even easier for students and teachers to formulate clues.

The writing process is another area where computers have added a great deal of value. Some programs, such as IdeaFisher from IdeaFisher Systems and Inspiration from Inspiration Software, help students in the pre-writing stage to generate and outline ideas. Most word-processors now come with spelling checkers, giving weak spellers some help in finding their errors and recognizing the correct spelling from a list of options.

Dictionaries, both translating ones have sound and video clips to help learners recognize a word when it's spoken and put it into context. The Computer Screen can't Substitute the Blackboard Some teachers use the computer screen as the blackboard, They have input exercises, questions, answers and teaching plans into the computer and display them piece by piece, without taking down anything on the blackboard or even the title of a lesson. It is known that teachers are supposed to simulate situations based on teaching and guide the students to communicate in English. Beside traditional writing on blackboard is concise and teachers can make adjustment and amendment to it if necessary. Furthermore, experienced teachers know well that a perfect courseware is an ideal project in mind, and that in practice, they need to enrich the content on the blackboard with emerging of new question raised by the students.

Some teachers may possess the improper concept that they would totally apply multimedia technology in their teaching. It is also believed that the more utilization of multimedia technology, the better class atmosphere may grow, the more actively the students get involved in class participation, the more easily the material access to the students. Apparently, the students show some interest in leaning, but actually, they feel like looking on. In practice, the more unconscious attention the students pay, the more interference of teaching information during transmission, the less the students take from the language materials. It is impossible to effectively train the students' language expression in class time. It is clear that in spite of advantages of application of technology, it assists in teaching. During practical teaching, it is part of a complete teaching procedure. In practice, if multimedia technology would be properly implemented in English teaching, the students could make full use of English speaking and listening materials and develop their overall capacities, which is the objective for us to introduce multimedia technology to modern teaching thus, this leads to systematic training on students' listening, speaking, reading and writing, makes teachers' instructions come into great play, help the student gain basic knowledge as well as language training at classes, improves their expression ability in English and lays a fundamental basis for their English communication.

Conclusion T

 Everyone learns a foreign language using a range of methods they find best. In this modern era we have a range of new technologies at our disposal that can help learners in the language learning process so why not use them to their full potential, but never forget the role of the teacher in classrooms. We believe that in future, the use of technology in English teaching and learning will be further developed, and hopefully focused more on student-centered but less time-consuming.

In conclusion it should be added that one more technology opens a new window to the world.

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CULTURAL CHANGES IMPACT IN KOSOVAR STILES OF LEADERSHIP

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Abstract

The use of the word culture in organizational analysis includes the effects of interactions between environmental organizations and the culture of the country where they are located. In Kosovo businesses styles of leadership differ from one another depending on the environment and organizational culture. Cultural differences play important roles in the organization, particularly in motivating subordinates and increasing the performance. In Kosovo businesses the impact of cultural change has not affected particularly good in terms of motivation and in adapting new cultures in our country especially since the after war period until now. Good business relationship have been developed through cultural groups and geographic boundaries, Kosovo is a in transition country with an unstable economy has not yet developed organizational culture due to the lack of various mechanisms as training, adoption and acceptance of new cultures. Is important to note that the adoption and creation of a new culture in our country depending will increase employees' performance that are influenced by democrat leadership style. The aim: Given the fact that the culture study is especially important today in terms of globalization and in Albanian culture there are few researches on cultural values and their influence in terms of management and for this reason is important to be focused on enhancing the sensitization to acceptance new cultures and adapt them in Kosovar companies. Performance evaluation aims, performance evaluation data are important information in order to judge validity of selection methods, to evaluate if such methods ensure a good selection of employee for organization. Performance evaluation can lead towards identification e needs of employees for further improvement. Performance evaluation ensures information for employees regarding their performances, information which will serve to employees as a foundation for improvement. Performance evaluation is tightly linked with motivation of employees. Coordination of knowledge and the talent of our consultants followed with experience is the most applied from human resources in the region, it allows you to implement Oracle HRMS within your organization rapidly.

Key words: Leadership, Organizational culture, business ethics, performance

Introduction

Based to the fact that leaders finish their duty in different styles, autocratic, democratic, participating laisseze faire (liberal) and often the leadership style dependsfrom the situation including organizationalcultural changes and which style do leaders use based to the culture and business label in Kosovo.

In Kosovar businesses there is a direct link between ethical leadership and moral organizational culture based to the researches main focus stands at the way of thinking that is after many changes including foreign by generations, in Kosovo dominates more aristocratic style, the period after the war time followed many changes including foreign stake holders that dominate also the transforming style of leadership, this approach of transforming leadershipstrong emphasizes pays to the paradigm of the level of the leadership lining on the charisma and personal sensitiveness of the leader. According to this approach the leader changes as all other people do, so the emotions, value, ethics, standard, are included in the group of motives of proponents so that the leader becomes part of their group in one transforming process it means the exchange is being done between the charismatic and visionary leadership.

The important matter is the combination of these two styles that in continuation of the leading of Kosovar businesses are growing the performance creating the new cultural era and ethical code applicable in all leading points

Organizational Culture and Kosovar Leadership

Organizational culture as a whole represents the values, norms, standards of behavior and common expectations, which control how individuals or groups in an organization. ????

Managers in the organization through values and norms control the results. Values are the trust and idea for the type of aims that the members of one society should follow as well as for the behavior that people should apply to reach their aims. While norms are written rules or instructions to fulfill for reaching goals.Except values and norms is important also

organizational socialization, which is a process by which new employees learn the values and norms of the organization and to gain knowledge for the necessary organizational behavior for reaching the effective results.

The organizational culture and leadership interact with one another, the leaders create and reinforce norms and behavior within the culture…An organizational culture affects its leadership as the leadership affects the culture. (Bass B.M., 1998:63) So "…to improve the organization, the culture should be improved, and to improve the culture, personal effectiveness and leadership must be improved."(Terrell&Nelson, 1998:1).

Organizational culture in Kosova conditioned by the leadership more transactional which work within their organizational culture following the existing rules, procedures and norms1, methods which do not bring effective results because of the not adapting culture which is essential for the success of the leader and organization. The Kosovar leadership should focus more at the transforming one which change their culture first understanding it and then reconstructing the culture of the organization with a new vision and reviewing of the common assumptions of values and norms Bass (1985). According to the transforming leadership that includes some assumptions as:

Articulate a vision and sense of purpose to their followers, b) serve as role models, teachers and coaches, c) work for the socialization of new members within a epitome of an organizational culture transformation, d) challenges are the opportunities and threats etc ..., methods and models of this type are effective networking leadership and cooperation with other countries nationwide because we are dealing with adaptive culture and virtues of a creative personality, .

Cultural changes in Kosovar enterprises based to the norms of behavior in group

Studies and different articles considered leadership main and integral part of social and cultural structures of the organization. Enterprising leadership as important part of the organization should reflect and present best directing qualities in achieving success through communication with people, influencing in the manner and its actions, encouraging in directing and fulfilling of the duties in group. All together helps in supporting of cultural changes of the organization and further development of the leadership. Implementation and appropriation of these qualities enables a leader to prepare, with a clear vision for the present and future.2

The same fact of the group and group behavior affect growth performance and realism of organizational objectives, involvement enables the individual to achieve the objectives set, to decrease the barriers, anxiety, feelings of helplessness, helps individuals to check opinions for work environment, the most important for career advancement.

The use of mechanisms to avoid group problems which influence in organizational performance of the culture and increasing the values at work it is more than necessary to restructure the processes of functioning in group, with better focus on heterogenic groups where the decision making is high quality, are more efficient in complex duties, not routine and which would affect in cultural changes where these changes would bring effectiveness and would create networking with foreign countries.

Behavior at work presents:

PR*A*M= Behavior at work;

PR- Perceptions of the role;

A-Abilities and Mastering.

Based on researches done in Kosovo organizations we have a combination of group behavior whether they want leadership style and personality of its own, but the largest percentage of focus group style homogeny groups, have less conflicts, are less effective in complex tasks and non-routine.

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Purposes of evaluation of the performance in leading enterprises

To identify the level of the performance conditioned by the ethics and organizational culture.

To equip managers with a tool for identifying the strong and weak points of the performance for employers.

1Gjurkaj. E "National Culture in organizational culture" , Tiranë.page 50,51, 2013

2www.mod.gov.al/publishing/html/army/2007/.../page.htm

To provide a format that gives possibility to managers to recommend a specific program projected to help an employee to improve the performance.

To offer possibilities for the employers to get rewards for the given contribution for aims of the organization.

To have information regarding further planning.

The goals of evaluations aim first to see work implementation of the employees and the successes that they achieved during the implementation of work compared with standards of the performance within the certain period.

The new methods of the evaluation with emphasize on treatment and plans for development and growth of the employees. Treatment is aimed at improving the assessment of work behavior conditioned by organizational ethics.1.

2.3. Reward of evaluated performance

The creating of the reward programs requests from all organizations to set specific goals as: retention of workers, labor compensation and budget support. The compensation should reward employees for the work being done serving as motivation for the performance of the employees on the future. The most common purposes of remuneration policy include:

To reward employees for past performance

To remain competitive in the labor market

To ensure equality of pay between employees

To motivate next performances

To attract new employees

To reduce unnecessary returns.

The main tool of reward of the achieved performance is salary for performance and that depends also from the politics and the budget of the enterprise, this we will show on the following drawing.

The process of the reward for performance 2
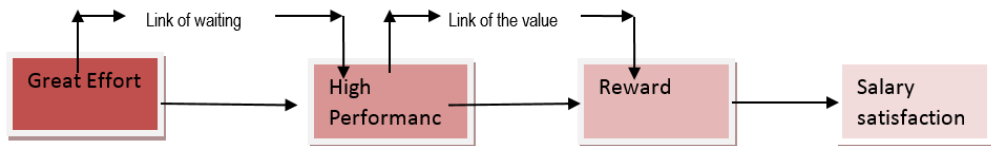
LEVEL OF ANALYSING OF TREATMENT

Registered enterprises in Kosovo based to the number of the employees -20103

Clasification by size	Number of employees	Number of enterprises	Percentage in total
Micro	1-9	102, 070	98.37
Small	10-49	1, 406	1.35
Medium	50-249	221	0.22
Big	More then 250	58	0.06
Total		103, 755	100.00

Source ARBK

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[1] Sherman, Bohlaner, Snell, "Human Resources Management", 1997,page. 176

[2] Sherman, Bohlander& Snell "Human Resources Management", 1997, page.201

[3] Strategy of development of NVMin Kosova 2012-2020, fq.17

From total 103.755 enterprises: 102.070 (or 98.37%) are micro enterprises; 1.406 (1.35%) are small; 221 (0.22%) are medium and only 58 (0.06%) are classified as big.Prevalence of micro-enterprises has implications for the SME Strategy.

The analysis of labor will focus in macro enterprises and the importance of the labor stands at the ethics and culture of the leadership in Kosovar enterprises where is necessary to have a bigger number of the employees in order to be measurable results achieved by the Kosovo leadership influence.

Crucial variables of the work are: ethics and organizational culture, based on these variables we will present a comprehensive survey that confirms the importance of cultural change and adaptation of cultures needed for a high performance based on transactional leadership.

Presenting of the results:

Number of managers in all enterprises in Kosova is 58and the sum of these will draw results presented in table in %

Is ethical code recognized at your company?	No	Percentage
Yes	45	77.5%
No	13	22.4%
Maybe	0	0%
Is it being applicable the ethical code?	No	Percentage
More	40	69%
Less	18	31%
None	7	43%
Does the ethic of work have influence in performance of the enterprise?	No	Percentage
More	50	86.2%
Less	5	8.62%
None	3	5.17%
In your enterprise is it being used transforming or transactional model of leadership?	No	Percentage
Transforming	25	43.1%
Transactional	32	55.17%
None	1	1.72%
How much impact has the leader on enhancing group?	No	Percentage
More	38	65.51%
Less	18	31%
None	2	3.44%
What problems / obstacles foresee the leader in your company?	No	Percentage
Personal	4	6.89%
Neighborhood	18	31%
External	36	62%
What characterizes the culture of the organization?	No	Percentage
National culture	33	67%

	No	Percentage
Cooperating leadership	10	40%
Ethics	7	43%
Which culture is being developed in mentioned enterprises regarding effective decision making ?	No	Percentage
Adaptive culture	20	34.48%
Not adaptive culture	30	51.72%
None	8	13.79%
What kind of impact has cultural changes in your enterprise?	No	Percentage
Effective influence	30	51.72%
Not effective influence	22	37.93%
None	6	10.34%

Recommendations:

Based to these extensive questions in macro enterprises in Kosovo we come to the conclusion that:

Kosovar leadership should focus more in developing of the new culture as for example to use mechanisms which help in cooperation and exchange between Kosovar personnel and the international ones.

Enterprises to be adaptable to new cultures, to have more experiences about ethics and its implementation.

To request assistance from experts from abroad to this matter, since that the knowledge and experiences of developed countries can help build a better system of organizational culture which results process will create opportunities for better results in this enterprise.

Creating a positive and reliable atmosphere for employees and inform employees of the importance of performance evaluation process, in enhancing the quality of services, the fulfilling of the objectives of the enterprise.

Informing staff aboutconducted performance oriented more in the formal way and the informing about performance, to be provided in group meetings and since that the application of this form can be affected as a motivator in achieving high performance of work of the personel.

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Work-Family Balance of Knowledge Workers In Poland

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Abstract

The subject of managing both work and family spheres has drawn a lot of academic attention in the last few decades. Various models of work-family balance have been created. Yet, the most widely used, and perhaps the most feasible are models that measure balance by its absence. In the study, we use the work to family conflict model to investigate how work interrupts the family life. We focus on knowledge workers, as among this group the boundary between work and family spheres continue to be more and more blurry, especially with the presence of new information and communication technologies. In the research, we show how different working patterns and work attitudes influence family life. Additionally, we analyze the impact of usage of ICTs at home for professional reasons on familial harmony. In order to conduct the analysis we use the secondary data from the Social Diagnosis 2013 Project. The analysis is conducted on the group of knowledge workers (nkw=1, 457) and the rest of the workers (now=5, 955). The knowledge workers who used the Internet and e-mail at home for professional reasons were found to be more likely to face family problems than ones who did not use the new technologies in this manner. The relation between working hours and struggling with family problems has turned out to be non-linear and changing depending on the work environment perception. The results suggest that in general knowledge workers, who report work problems, have higher probability of struggling with problems in family than individuals who do not. The workers, who do not perceive their work as problematic, are more likely to have problems in family long very long hours. The individuals who work long hours are less likely to be subject to family problems, if they do not struggle with work-related problems..

Keywords: Work-family balance, knowledge workers, Poland

Introduction

Work family balance (WFB) has drawn a lot of attention in the last few decades and has been widely empirically analysed. Our society is viewed as increasingly rushed and work-centred. The view that the work and family spheres are separate realms is outdated and deeply flawed (Currie & Eveline, 2010). These two spheres interact and intertwine between each other.

Various aggregated measures show that Poland falls behind the rest of Europe in terms of work-family balance. The average number of working hours in Poland is higher than in the European Union. Some groups of the workers in Poland, such as self-employed, work on average more than the persons from this group in most European countries (Eurofund, 2012). Also, Poles spend on average the least amount of hours in the week for personal care and leisure among all the European countries (OECD, 2014). Thus, it is noteworthy to establish a causal relationship between extended work-dimension and diminishing and harmed family dimension in Polish families.

A group especially seen as exposed to obstructions in reaching a balance between the work and family life are the knowledge workers, the persons who "think for living" (Davenport, 2005). Among this group the boundary between work and family spheres continue to be even more and more blurry, especially with the presence of new information and communication technologies. As the new technologies emerged, companies started to give professionals greater time flexibility, making them responsible for managing their life schedule. Quantitative studies showed that these new arrangements, together with employer high expectations and workers' job insecurity resulted in increased time and effort invested in work (Moen, Lam, Ammons, & Kelly, 2013; Perrons, 2003). The blurred boundaries are imposed by the working conditions of the knowledge workers, such as schedule and workplace flexibility, autonomy and accountability, teamwork, management by objectives and strict deadlines (Frenkel, Bendit, & Kaplan, 2012).

The aim of the research is to show how different working patterns and work attitudes influence family life of knowledge workers. Extended working hours may affect persons who have a positive image of work differently than persons who have negative attitude towards work. Additionally, the impact of usage of ICTs at home for professional reasons on familial harmony is analyzed.

Literature Review

Work-Family Balance: Definition and Models

An intuitive definition of the term "work-life balance" is a point where a perfect harmony between work and private life is reached. However, this generic and vague definition does not suffice in a process of conceptualising work life balance for the means of empirical analysis. In fact, this raises more questions, for example what is the mentioned cut-off point of balance and how can it be captured? Another controversy associated with the subject of work/life balance is the specification of term "life" or "private life". Whereas "work" is, in most cases, a clearly defined dimension, "private life" is a conglomerate of different aspects of life such as family, leisure, health, etc. Even though the multidimensionality of the "life" part of the work-life balance concept is acknowledged, the research studies usually focus only its limited part, namely on the family aspect of life, e.g. Dyer, Mcdowell, & Batnitzky (2011). Indeed family aspect seems to be the most prominent of all the dimensions and probably the easiest one to capture. However, for the sake of accuracy, the relation between work and family life should be denoted as work-family balance (WFB).

There are various models of WFB. The approaches most often taken by researchers measure either spill-over of work to family life or vice versa, or conflict between the two spheres (Guest, 2002). According to the spill-over model one world can influence the other in either positive or negative way. It can also combine both: work-to family life influence and family life-to work influence, to establish the WFB (Pichler, 2008). The even more widely used approach is the conflict model, which assumes that extended activity in one sphere occurs at the cost of the other. The widely used definition of work-family balance complies with this model. It defines the term as a "satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum role of conflict" (Clark, 2000).

An interesting question associated with this issue is whether working long hours by choice is the situation of balance. Maybe it is worthwhile separating this category from the workers who work long hours as they feel obliged to do so. Peiperl & Jones (2001) divide workers who work long hours into two categories: "workaholics" – ones who feel they get appropriate benefits (both tangible and intangible) from working more than average and "overworkers" – ones who do not feel the reward from their work is adequate.

Yet, work-family balance does not solely focus on the individual. It should also capture a family perspective. For instance "workaholics" may be satisfied with the time and attention they devote to both family and work spheres, yet it may affect how other family members share the time between these spheres. For this reason it is important to capture the other working family members' view on the work-family balance of the analysed individual.

Another potential doubt associated with this approach is the question whether measuring work family balance by conflict is appropriate. The literature sources suggest that individuals are more aware of work-family balance in the case of its absence (Guest, 2002). It can serve as a rationale for using this negative rather than positive indicator of work-family balance.

Another issue stressed in the literature is the fact that the dichotomy assumption in relation to the subject of work-life or even work-family balance is deeply flawed (Currie & Eveline, 2010). The boundaries between work and private zone are being constantly blurred, and with the ubiquitous information and communication technologies this process is progressing even faster.

In general, the measures of work-family balance can be divided into objective and subjective ones. Among objective measures we can distinguish: normal weekly working hours, evening and weekend work, working overtime on short notice, free time, family roles and others. The subjective indicators usually measure self-reported balance, conflict or interference between the two spheres. Often the objective and subjective measures do not converge. Although a considerable correlation between working hours and self-reported work life (or family) balance is usually reported, it is not sufficiently high to use these two measures interchangeably. It brings a question about how well objective criteria can serve as indicators of subjective experience and whether we can rely on subjective accounts as valid indicators of balance without some evidence of others (Guest, 2002). A plausible solution to these issues would be to combine objective and subjective measures. This would allow the extraction of the group of "workaholics" who objectively work more than an average person, yet do not feel overwhelmed by this situation. Another technique to make the measure of work-family balance more robust is to use the reports not only from the individuals in question, but also accounts of persons from their closest environment. The ideal situation would be to have opinions of persons from both realms: a family member and a co-worker or a superior.

Work-Family Balance in Poland

The international accounts of work-life and work-family balance show that Poland falls behind in this area comparing to other European countries. Polish workers work on average 40.7 hours per week, 3.5 hours more than the European average (European Comission, 2013). Polish self-employed have the second longest working hours in Europe – 53h/week (Eurofund, 2012).

On the other hand, Polish workers spend significantly less time per day on leisure and personal care (i.e. eating, sleeping, socialising with friends and family, hobbies, games, etc.) than individuals in other European countries. Among OECD countries, Poland scores as the third lowest in this measure, after Turkey and Mexico (OECD, 2014). Also, a study on country clusters shows that individuals from Central and Eastern European countries (CEEs) spend on average the least time on domestic activities, including care activities (Eurofund, 2012).

These individual time-use measures suggest that Poland is a country, where the "work" component is prominent in work-life or work-family mix. There can be various reasons for this proportion, including individuals' preferences. However, when we compare these outcomes with some accounts from area of work organization, we can conclude that the work-life or work-family balance is hardly a priority among Polish labor market policies. For instance, the percentage of part-time jobs in Poland is considerably low – it constitutes 7.1% of total employment, whereas the EU average equals to 19.5%. The part-time work can be viewed negatively, as it can be associated with exclusion from benefits and access to promotion. Nevertheless the possibility of working part-time is often a solution to manage work and family life. It is especially valuable for young parents, in particular mothers who often spend much more time on care activities than fathers (Eurofund, 2013). The recent results from European Working Conditions Survey show that there is a negative relation between average working time of women and female employment rate (Eurofund, 2012). It is worrying, as women who have exited the labour market upon entering the parenthood phase, tend to have lower well-being than the ones that remained in the job market. Also, these unfavorable conditions may hinder already low population growth.

Another issue is employers' induced job flexibility. Among all Polish workers, 31.6% work shifts. This percentage is among the highest in Europe. The EU average of shift workers as a percentage of all employment equals only to 18% (European Comission, 2013). These atypical working patterns may have an adverse impact on employees' satisfaction from work-life balance (Eurofund, 2012). Additionally, Poland is characterized by highest in Europe percentage of temporary contracts (26.8% compared to EU average of 13.8%) (European Comission, 2013) and high job and employment insecurity (Dixon, Fullerton, & Robertson, 2013). Although the unemployment rate (10.5%) is not exceptionally high in comparison to other European countries, the unemployment among youth (15-24) is substantially higher than the OECD average (26.5% and 16.2% in 2012, respectively) (OECD, 2012). These factors may force, especially young people, to focus on professional life and neglect personal life.

Knowledge Workers and ICT Usage

In majority of the European countries, the amount of time spent at work increases together with earnings (Guest, 2002; OECD, 2011). Also, the probability of facing work-life balance problems grows together with the educational status (OECD, 2011; Pichler, 2008). One of the occupational groups that reports the most problems with WLB are managers and some groups of professionals (Ford & Collinson, 2011; Guest, 2002; Shanafelt et al., 2012). This suggests that a cluster, which is exposed the most to the work-family conflict are highly educated workers, on well-paid top occupations. These characteristics are specific for knowledge workers. For them, the boundary between the two spheres are even more blurry, also because of the solutions brought by ICTs, that allow the workers to work from any place and communicate for work matters at any time, in other words be constantly bounded to the work milieu. The growing body of research shows that use of ICTs, even though may enhance the work performance, has significant adverse impact on the time devoted to family and the quality of this time (Boswell & Olson-Buchanan, 2007; Currie & Eveline, 2010). This study aims to shed a light on patterns of work-family balance among Polish knowledge workers and the factors impacting it, including the use of ICTs at home for work.

To analyze the work-family balance in the context of knowledge economy, it is crucial to establish a definition of a knowledge worker. However, a unique or straightforward definition of a knowledge worker does not exist. An occupational approach defines knowledge workers as "professional, managerial and technical people" (Drucker, 1993). Another way to define knowledge workers is to specify the content of their job, i.e. describe them as individuals whose work requires high levels of creativity, intellective skills and theoretical rather than purely contextual knowledge (Warhurst & Thompson, 2006). However, this type of conceptualization is difficult to operationalize due to scarcity of the data about the actual character of the activities individuals carry out at work. For that reason the occupation-based approach, closer to Drucker's definition of

knowledge workers, is often used to operationalize this concept. According to this classification knowledge workers are persons who work in the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) top three occupational classifications (managers, professionals, associate professionals) (International Labour Organization, 2010), have high level skills indicated by higher education or equivalent qualifications and perform tasks that require expert thinking and complex communication skills with the assistance of computers (Brinkley, 2006). The categories are not exclusive and may overlap. This occupation-based classification, as well as education-based classification is vulnerable to mistakes, as many of the workers that would be included in these categories usually would not be regarded as knowledge workers (i.e. managers of small firms, higher education graduates not working in the knowledge sector etc.). The way to minimise the error margin is to classify persons as knowledge workers if and only if they fulfil all three of the above-mentioned classification conditions.

The advantage of this way of using the occupation-based approach together with education-based approach is that it is a standard, used in most of the studies, as well as in the macro-level accounts. Thus, applying the three above-mentioned conditions in the study will allow its results to be comparable with outcomes of other studies of similar interest. This is why we have decided to use this standard for defining knowledge workers group.

Methodology

To analyze the work-family balance of knowledge workers, data from the Social Diagnosis 2013 (Rada Monitoringu Społecznego, 2013) are used. The dataset comprises a large number of cases and many relevant variables. However, the variables measuring work-family balance per se are not present in the dataset (also the time use variables measuring "family time" and variables measuring work-family interaction are missing). Yet, other widely available surveys that include the question about the work-family conflict, e.g. European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), include a relatively small number of cases from Polish individuals with marginally small number of knowledge workers among them. For this reason another approach has been taken. Namely, a causal relationship between problems in family sphere and work sphere, time devoted to work and working from home with use of ICTs has been modeled.

The main objective of the research is to investigate if an extended work dimension may harm quality of family life. Particularly, the aim of the study is to test the following hypotheses:

H1   Family problems are more probable among workers who work long hours.

H2   The adverse impact of working long hours can be mitigated by the work perception (workaholics report less family problems than overworkers)

H3   Family problems are negatively influenced by the extensive use of ICTs at home for professional reasons.

As mentioned before, the work-family balance has been widely empirically analyzed. However, this study is run on a specific group, namely knowledge workers from Poland. So far the majority of the empirical research dealing with the work-family balance, especially in the context of knowledge economy, focused on the western countries. However, the knowledge sector in the CEEs, including Poland, is growing faster than in the western Europe (European Commission, 2012), thus the insight about the quality of life of this groups is also needed. The results for this group may be significantly different from the results obtained in the previous studies.

The usually taken approach is either to investigate the subjective perception of the hegemony of the work dimension, or to focus on objective measures, normally expressed by the number of hours spent on work. In this analysis the two approaches are combined to investigate the joint impact of subjective perception of the work sphere (i.e. self-reported work problems) and the time spent at work. The hypothesis H2 (H2: The adverse impact of working long hours can be moderated by the work perception) suggests that relation of long working hours on family life is ambiguous and changes depending on the work perception.

Data Description

Social Diagnosis Project - Description of the Sample

The analysis employs secondary data from the project Social Diagnosis 2013. (Rada Monitoringu Społecznego, 2013). The Social Diagnosis project, initiated in the year 2000, is a diagnosis of the conditions and quality of life of the Poles. The dataset from year 2013 is the latest wave of the panel comprising seven waves.

The Social Diagnosis dataset contains vast amounts of data, coming from a large and representative sample. The data have been collected by Polish Central Statistical Office. The two-stage stratified sampling has been applied to find households that took part in the survey. Firstly, households have been stratified by voivodeships and then within

voivodeships, by the size of agglomeration. The first stage sampling units were statistical regions (covering at least 250 apartments), and rural strata statistic circuits. In the second stage two flats were drawn systematically from a randomly ordered list of apartments, independently within each of the layers formed in the first stage of sampling. The appropriate weights, calculated with the use of set of variables (household size, voiveodeship, rural or urban area of living, gender and age group) are provided for the sample to make the it representative on the national level (Czapiński & Panek, 2013). The weights are used throughout the presented analysis.

The research is focused on the specific subgroup of the population – knowledge workers. The group of the rest of the workers (excluding farmers) is used for comparison. The subgroup of interest has been separated from the whole sample in two steps. First, all the individuals that have a job were selected with help of four variables: Any paid work (or a helper without pay in the family business) performed during the last 7 days; An employee, a self-employed person or a helper without pay in the family business, but has temporarily not performed his/her work during last 7 days; Main source of income; Secondary source of income.

The first two variables determine if an individual performs any job (paid or unpaid). The latter two help restraining the dataset to the observations from respondents who gain any profit from their work activities. In the second stage knowledge workers are retrieved from the dataset. Knowledge workers are found by their educational level, ISCO occupational classification and by the usage of ICTs for work or educational purposes.

According to the used operationalization of the concept of knowledge worker and given the mentioned variable-setting criteria, the persons who belong to the group of interest are individuals with higher education (Bachelor's degree or higher), working in the top three occupational classifications (according to the ISCO classification) – Managers, Professionals or Associate Professionals and use information and communication technologies for work. With the described criteria 2, 160 (22.7% of the all workers) knowledge workers were selected from the whole sample. The remaining 81.3% (7355) are the other workers.

Another condition set on the analyzed group is having a family. The family is understood as at least having a spouse or a partner. Consequently, the sample has been further reduced by excluding all the single workers. There are 1, 503 cases of knowledge workers comprising given criteria. After reducing the incomplete cases, 1, 457 observations have been used. There were 5, 955 of other workers remaining in the analysis

Family Problems Index

The family problem index is the dependent variable used in the causal model. The measure has been constructed using nine variables denoting self-reported issues associated with marriage, children and elderly relatives and one item related with the problems in marriage, reported by the partner. Namely, there are three variables denoting issues within marriage:

•   Expectations of spouse so high, impossible to meet them;

•   Spouse spends shared money in a careless manner;

•   Problems of spouse worries and makes life harder.

The record of the latter has been also taken from the spouse of the individual. Another group of familial variables are ones associated with issues with children:

•   Having to hear complaints about one's children from others;

•   Financial costs due to action of children;

•   Children ignore and reject one's help and advice;

•   Feeling one loses control over/ influence on children.

The last group of family-related variables deals with the worries over elderly family members:

•   Feeling responsible for care and well-being of parents or elderly relatives;

•   Feeling worried about physical and mental health of parents or elderly relatives

All of these indicators could take one of four levels:

1   Often;

2   Once or twice;

3   Never;

4   Not applicable.

The two latter levels have been equalized. Another solution would be to exclude from the analysis the individuals who do not have children. However, the family problems proxy is to measure a spectrum of family issues an individual is faced with. A person without children will not report any children-related problems, which means she or he is not struggling with as many problems as a person with children. For this reason a control measure – number of dependent children has been included in the model instead of restricting the sample to the couples with children.

The results for each individual within the family-related indicators have been summed up. Subsequently, a dichotomous variable "family problems" has been constructed, using mean of the mentioned sum as a cut-off point. As presented in Table 2, according to the binary indicator, 49.3% (nkw=744) of the knowledge workers and 41.1% (now=2472) of the other workers is struggling with family problems

Work-Related Measures

The study is focused on finding relation between the working dimension of an individual and the imbalance in familial life. Three different work-related measures have been used in the article: work-related problems, working time and the Internet use at home for professional reasons. To construct work-related problems variable, three indicators were used:

•   Feeling that the job is tiresome, dirty and dangerous;

•   Overload of duties hard to cope with;

•   Being treated unjustly by other at work.

Similarly as in the family-related variables, measures could take one of four values: "Often"; "Once or twice"; "Never"; "Not applicable". Also in this case, level "Not applicable" has been aggregated together with "Never", as it is assumed that there are kinds of workers to whom the situations described by the variables do not apply. Also, in the case of the work problems indicators, the scores have been summed up. Afterwards, a binary measure has been constructed on the basis of the mean of the resulting sum. In the analyzed sample, 37.8% (now=2237) of the other workers and 32.0% (nkw=460) of the knowledge workers report work problems (Table 2).

To capture the joint impact of the long working hours and feelings about the work, a new variable has been derived. The variable "worker type" has four levels "Carefree workers" – workers who do not report problems at work and work o average 45 hours a week or less, "Frustrated workers" – workers who report problems at work and work on average 45 hours a week or less, "Workaholic" – workers who do not report problems at work and work on average more than 45 hours a week, and "Overworkers" – workers who report problems at work and work on average more than 45 hours a week, presented in Table 1. As this variable is used in the model, the variable work-related problems has been removed due to partial colinearity. The 15.5% of analyzed other workers are workaholics (now=942), 25.3% are frustrated workers (now=1500) and 12.5% are overworkers (now=737). Among the group of the knowledge worker, there are 11.2% workaholics (nkw=159), 8.4% overworkers (nkw=116) and 23.7% frustrated workers (nkw=344).

The measure denoting time spent on work is a continuous variable measuring how many hours on average a person works during a week. On average knowledge workers work slightly less than other workers ((Xkw=40, SDkw=10 and Xow=42, SDow=11, respectively). Apart from that, a variable denoting managerial position has been included in the model as a control variable. It has been empirically proven that the persons especially exposed to work-related stress, burnout and work-family conflict are individuals with managerial position (Ford & Collinson, 2011).

The last of the work-related variables is the use of the Internet and electronic mail at home for professional reasons. It is an ordered variable with three levels: "Never", "Ever" and "In the last week". Knowledge workers use new technologies to work at home out of their normal working hours much more often than the other workers. Almost 48% (nkw=687) of the respondents from the knowledge workers group stated they had used ICTs for professional reasons no longer than a week before the survey, whereas only 15% (now=772) of the other workers admitted to use these technologies as frequently.

Apart from the work-related variables, the control variables: sex, age and number of dependent children have been included in the model. Females in general suffer from higher work-to family conflict, as they usually are responsible for majority of the duties at home (Eurofund, 2013). The family problems variable includes problems with children, therefore the suspicion that having children would increase the risk of having family problems. Also, the age squared has been added to the model. There is some indication in the literature showing there is a u-shaped relation between age and well-being (Blanchflower

& Oswald, 2008) and directly between age and satisfaction from work-life balance (Allen et al., 2012). The distribution of persons with family problems across the age groups (Figure 1) in the used sample, suggest there is a bell-shaped relation between family problems and age.

Model & Results

To test the hypotheses H1-H3, the two logistic models, separate for the groups of knowledge workers and other workers have been estimated. Both of them are statistically significant, according to the Omnibus test ($\chi 2$ ow(12)=680.128, p<0.001, $\chi 2$kw(11)=278.803, p<0.00). The models results, together with the odds ratios (OR) are presented in the Table 3.

The coefficients of the control variables have in general been consistent with the expectations. The female other workers turned out to be more exposed to the family problems than males (ORow=1.459, p<0.001). In the case of knowledge workers, sex has turned out to be an insignificant factor in the model of familial problems. In the both groups, it has been shown that there is a bell-shaped relationship between family problems and age. In the both groups, having children increased the odds of having problems in family, by one fifth with every child in the case of other workers and by half in the case of knowledge workers (ORow=1.222, p<0.001; ORkw=1.508, p<0.001). The managerial position turned out to be an insignificant factor in both groups.

As suspected, using ICTs at home for professional reasons increases risk of family problems. In the case of knowledge workers, the higher the frequency, the greater were the odds of having family problems (ORkw=1.552, p<0.001, if individual ever used the Internet or e-mail at home for work reasons and ORkw=1.791, p<0.001, if he did so not earlier than one week prior to the survey). Also in the case of the other workers, using ICTs at home for work increases the risk of having problems in family, yet it does not grow linearly. The odds increase by half for other workers who have done so at least once (ORow=1.509, p<0.001). Yet, it grows by slightly less –0.369 (ORow=1.369, p<0.001) for persons who assumingly do it more frequently, comparing to the individuals who never use ICT at home for work. In the case of other workers, the model has shown that not using Internet slightly decreases the odds of having family problems, yet the result is not significant at the confidence level of 95% (ORow=0.881, p=0.076).

As hypothesized, not only working hours and having working problems, but also interaction between these two variables influences the family life. In the case of other workers, being "workaholic" is not significantly different from being the "carefree worker". In other words, the long working hours do not have an adverse impact on individuals from this group provided he or she does not has work problems. On the other hand, other workers who reported the work-related problems are at a significantly higher risk of facing family problems. Also, in this case, the difference between "frustrated workers" and "overworkers" is much bigger (ORow=2.797, p<0.001 and ORow=4.061, p<0.001, respectively). It shows that in the situation when the work is problematic for an individual, the long working hours strengthen the adverse impact on the family life.

In the case of knowledge workers, "workaholics" are at more risk of having family problems than "carefree workers" (OWkw=2.871, p<0.001). It means that for this group, unlike for other workers, the prolonged working time has an adverse impact on the family life even when an individual does not report work problems. Also in this case, the impact decreases with the working time.

The "frustrated workers" and the "overworkers" have even higher odds of having problems in family life (ORkw=3.689, p<0.001 and ORow=3.785, p<0.001, respectively). In comparison with the group of the other workers, the difference in odds between the "carefree workers" and the "frustrated workers" is much higher. On the other hand, unlike in the case of the other workers, among knowledge workers there is a small difference in the strength of the impact between the "frustrated" and the "overworkers". In fact, taking into account that the difference diminishes together with the working time (ORkw=0.976, p<0.001), in most situations, the group of frustrated knowledge workers is more likely to struggle with family problems.

Conclusions

The hypothesis H1 (H1: Family problems are more probable among workers who work long hours) has not been confirmed. Especially in the case of the knowledge workers the influence of working time is ambiguous. Whereas the "workaholics" are more likely to struggle with familial problems than the "carefree workers", the "overworkers" are in most cases less likely to have family problems than "frustrated workers".

The second hypothesis (H2: The adverse impact of working long hours can be moderated by the work perception) has been confirmed. In both cases, persons with no work problems, who work the same number of hours, have less family problems. In the case of other workers, when the individuals do not report work problems, the long working hours do not

increase the probability of having the work problems. In fact, the risk slightly decreases with each additional hour worked. In this group, "workaholics" – persons who work long hours, but assumely do so from their own choice, are much less likely to experience family problems than the "overworkers" – assumely the group, on whom the long working hours are imposed. In fact, in terms of family problems, there is no statistically significant difference between the "workaholics" and the "carefree workers". Thus, one can conclude, that working long by choice is a form of balancing between work and home. However, to draw a definite conclusion, the analysis should be complemented by the model focused solely on the reports of the significant others who are often affected by the working schedule of the "workaholics". Also in the case of the knowledge workers, the "workaholics" are much less likely to have family problems than the "overworkers".

In the both groups the third hypothesis (H3: Family problems are negatively influenced by the extensive use of ICTs at home for professional reasons.) has been confirmed. The result replicates outcomes of previous studies which show the possibility of working from any place, including home, brought by emergence of ICTs, may be advantageous for the job performance, but it also is likely to be harmful for the family life of an individual.

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Figures

Fig 1 The Percentage of the Persons with Family Problems Among Six Age Groups (Separately For Knowledge Workers and Other Workers)

	24yrs or less	25-34yrs	35-44yrs	45-59yrs	60-64yrs	65+ yrs
OW	27,5%	30,6%	44,8%	45,1%	30,5%	22,7%
KW	0%	36,3%	55,7%	56,7%	41,2%	27,3%
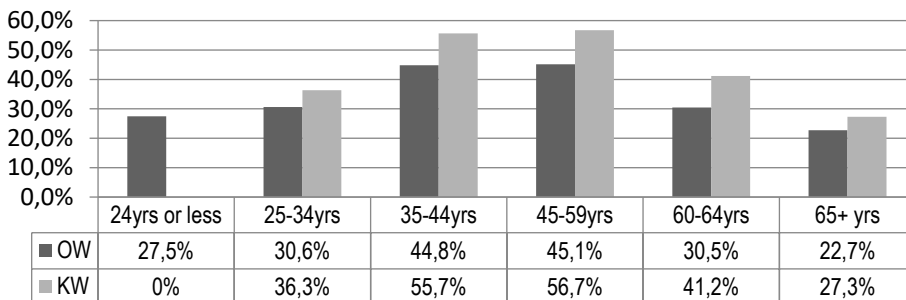
Tables

Table 1. Presentation of the Variable "Worker Type"

	Working Time	
	45h or less	More than 45h

No Work Problems	"Carefree" workers	Workaholics
Work Problems	"Frustrated" workers	Overworkers

Table 2. Characteristics of the Sample Separately For Knowledge Workers and Other Workers.

		Other worker				Knowledge worker			
		X	SD	N	Col %	X	SD	N	Col %
AGE		44	10			40	9		
CHILDREN		1.20	1.11			1.15	.91		
W_HOURS		42	11			40	10		
SEX	MALE			3412	59.8%			559	41.3%
	FEMALE			2543	40.2%			898	58.7%
MANAGER				488	9.2%			384	25.9%
W_PROBLEMS				2237	37.8%			460	32.0%
F_PROBLEMS				2472	41.1%			744	49.3%
F_PROBLEMS (SPOUSE)				2728	46.2%			688	45.6%
WORKER_TYPE	CAREFREE			2776	46.7%			838	56.8%
	WORKAHOLIC			942	15.5%			159	11.2%
	FRUSTRATED			1500	25.3%			344	23.7%
	OVERWORKER			737	12.5%			116	8.4%
ICT_HOME	NEVER			2205	38.2%			241	13.8%
	EVER			907	18.4%			529	38.5%
	LAST WEEK			772	15.0%			687	47.7%
	NO INTERNET			2071	28.4%			0	0.0%

X – mean; SD – standard deviation;

N – unweighted count; Col %, - column percentage (weighted).

Table 3. Results of The Logit Models For The Predictors of Self-Reported and Spouse-Reported Family Problems (Results for Knowledge Workers and Other Workers)

	Other Worker			Knowledge Worker		
	Est.	SE	OR	Est.	SE	OR
FEMALE	0.378***	0.058	1.459	0.135	0.106	1.145
AGE	0.222***	0.026	1.261	0.204***	0.047	1.226
AGE2	−0.002***	0.000	0.998	−0.002***	0.001	0.998
CHILDREN	0.201***	0.028	1.222	0.411***	0.062	1.508
W_HOURS	−0.011***	0.004	0.989	−0.015***	0.118	0.976
MANAGER	0.024	0.097	1.025	−0.024	0.118	0.980

ICT EVER	0.411***	0.079	1.509	0.439***	0.159	1.552
ICT LAST WEEK	0.314***	0.084	1.369	0.583***	0.157	1.791
NO INERNET	-0.126*	0.071	0.881			
WORKAHOLIC	0.143	0.103	1.154	1.055***	0.194	2.871
FRUSTRATED	1.028***	0.067	2.797	1.305***	0.124	3.689
OVEROWORKER	1.402***	0.108	4.061	1.331***	0.216	3.785
Constant	−6.307***	0.560	0.002	−5.780***	1.001	0.003
N	5, 955			1, 457		
Log Likelihood	7, 715.265			2, .372.472		
Akaike Inf. Crit.	4588.506			2, 252.500		

*p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01

n.s. – non-significant; Est. - estimate; SE – standard error; OR – odds ratio

Utilization Of Solar Energy For An Ecological Tourism In The Region Of Durrës In Albania

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Abstract

This study involves the use of vacuum tubes collector with solar power for heating water for sanitary needs of hotels in the region of Durrës in Albania. Renewable energy resources exist over wide geographical areas, in contrast to other energy sources, which are concentrated in a limited number of countries. Solar energy is a renewable source of energy in our country because Albania belongs to a sub-tropical zone, so it has relatively high levels of solar radiation during the year. The lowlands in the western part of the country have the highest values or irradiation and can produce 139 kwh/m2 electricity monthly. Durrës region is characterized by a Mediterranean climate where the average air annual temperature is 16°C and enters in the area with a high solar radiation with an average 2026 h/y. Solar energy is clean, reliable and renewable source of electricity and it does not pollute the air by releasing harmful gases like carbon dioxide, nitrogen oxide and sulphur oxide. For this study are obtained tourism hotels in the coastal area of Durrës with a high level of solar intensity, by calculating the cost for heating water using an electric boiler (traditional method) and a solar panel. In the study is selected the collector with vacuum tubes for heating water, which constitutes a new technology with an efficiency 40% higher than other types. Results show a significant reduction of annual expenses up 3 times, compared with the use of electricity. The results obtained will serve to sensitize residents of the area of Durrës, for the necessity of using solar energy for hot water in residential buildings, where there is sun and the possibility of placing the solar panel. Use of solar panels can also be done in many apartments, which have balcony oriented from the south.

Keywords: Renewable energy, solar panel, solar radiation, efficiency.

Introduction

Albania has favorable conditions for development of solar energy. Albania's solar radiation is calculated at more than 1, 500 kWh/m2/yr. The average daily solar radiation is about 4.1kWh/m2, reaching more than 4.6kWh/m2 in the south-western part of the country. The country has an average about 2, 400 hours of sunshine per year, 2, 500 hours in the western part and a record of about 2, 850 hours in certain locations. Albania is considered as a country with a better mode of solar energy with high potential of solar radiation. As a country with over 245 day solar radiation intensity, Albania guarantees efficient use of renewable solar energy by significantly reducing the cost of electricity consumption in homes, hotels, service facilities etc. The using solar panels for hot water has years that is started, mainly in villas and tourist hotels in coastal and low areas.

Durrës district is one of 36 districts of Albania with 242.801 inhabitants, an area of 433 km² and an average height of 2-6 m above sea level. The city occupies the western part with coordinates 41°18'40' north latitude to 19°26' and 21' east longitude with 1, 626 ha. The table 1 shows the daily average solar radiation in (kJ/m2) and the table 2 shows sunshine hours according to measuring stations in Durres area.

Studies and applications of recent years[1] show that using renewable energy sources of solar, wind and hydro and geothermal, the reliance on fossil fuels can be minimized, leading directly reducing CO2 emissions. So on average for every kWh of energy produced from a coal power plant, is produced 1 kg CO2. Combustion of natural gas for electricity production or water heating produces about 450 G CO2 for every kwh energy produced. By installing solar panels for water heating can provide 50-70% of energy needs for hot water and it can reduce CO2 emissions more than 20%. The use of solar panels provides electricity saving, environmental protection and results with economic benefit in the housing sector

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[1] http://www.meidasolar.com/service.asp?keyno=113

and services. For this purpose, it is taken in study the coastal area of Durrës, as the tourist area filled with hotels and private experiences are more numerous than in other areas of Albania.

Below are analyzed the solar panels used today, in terms of effectiveness, to choose the most effective type. The effectiveness of the use of solar panels in an average hotel resort is relatively treated with electricity for water heating. This study takes into account only tourist hotels in Durrës.

Methods and Materials

The study includes 50 hotels1 with a capacity of about 1600 rooms equipped with shower baths, and a total 60 coffee bars and 60 restaurants. In fact hotels range from the largest with 70 rooms equipped with bathrooms and other fixtures as 2 coffee bars, a restaurant, a night club and a sauna (Hotel "Adriatic"), to the little ones with 12 rooms (Hotel "Ani ") with a coffee bar and a restaurant. The existing hotels are with 3 to 6 floors, with 1 or 2 coffee bar and 1 or 2 restaurants, but there is too with 7 floors and a ground floor area up to 1000 m 2 (Hotel "Dolce Vita"). The average number of rooms results to be 32 for a hotel and 1.2 coffee bar and restaurants. It is taken to an average hotel, with all double rooms equipped with showers with hot water, while at the ground floor there is a coffee bar, a restaurant and the reception.

In this study is used the traditional system, the establishment of an electrical boiler in each bathroom. For all the hotel are planned: 32 boilers and 4 boiler for coffee bar, restaurant etc. So should be 36 electrical bolier with capacity of 80 liters and 2 kwh electricity power each. At the under hand is taken into consideration the use of the solar panel with vacuum tubes, as the model with higher effectiveness. The size of the collector is determined by absorber surface formed by vacuum tubes.The absorber surface for vacuum tubes is given by size of the tubes as follows [8]: For tubes with dimensions 58mmx1800mm have S = 0.08m2 per tube. Collectors are standardized with 12, 18, 24, 30, 36, 48 and 60 tubes, which correspond to the respective boilers with hot water capacity 100L, 150L, 200L, 250L, 300L, 400L and 500L. Capacity over 300 L used for hotels.

Procedure

Energy for water heating in Durrës hotels

The effectiveness of providing hot water is calculated by analyzing two methods: 1.heating water using electricity with electric boilers and 2.heating water using solar panels with vacuum tubes. Average annual costs for heating water are calculated for each variant considering that all the hotel rooms are in operation. Also are estimated reductions of carbon dioxide emissions as result of solar panels for water heating and annual operating costs for electric heating and solar panels.

Heating water with an electric boiler

The need for a person must be 58 liters of warm water with 420C - 450C in the day. By assuming that all the hotel rooms are doubles, and consumption of hot water at the bar and restaurant is the same with room boilers, in total with losses of water for all the hotel have to be about 3600 liters per day. Assuming that the people in the hotel shower for the day is done, we can assume that the energy values for a boiler with all anticipated losses, amounts to 120 kwh/month. Consumed electricity for the entire hotel is 4320 kwh/month and for all hotels in the area of Durrës, 21600 kwh/month.

Heating water using solar panels

Having received an average difference of water temperatures at the entrance and exit about 30 0 C, the number of vacuum tubes, required for water heating is determined:

$$N= k \, AED \, (BF)/S$$

where: k is the coefficient, that gives the amount of solar energy, which have to heat one liter of water, which depends on the level of solar technology and hydraulic losses in the Network. Thus the total number of pipes for heating 3, 600 liters of water, calculated in months, given in figure 2.

The average number of pipes to realize water heating, results 472 tubes. With reserve (for January and December is used and an electric heater, if the hotel rooms are all in place), are choosen collectors with 60 tubes with boiler 500 liters.

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[1] Albania online travel Agency; www.edialtour.com

In this case the thermo-hydraulic scheme requires, that in the roof of average hotel it is placed 8 sets of collector with 480 tubes with a total area of 38.4 m2..The total capacity of hot water boilers is 4000 liters. The time of depreciation of equipment and solar panels is greater than 15 years.

The energy amount produced by solar panels for water heating in kWh is calculated: W =K EDS

where: K- is the average coefficient that determines the amount of energy equivalent to heating the water with one m2 area solar panel, which depends on the level of solar technology and hydraulic losses in network. For hotel taken as example, the amount of daily and monthly energy generated from solar panels by months of the year, is given in figure 3. The average amount of daily energy saving for this hotel would be 120 kWh/day or 3600 kWh/month. For all tourist hotels in the Durrës area it will assure an electrical energy saving in the about 6000 kWh/day, or 30, 000 kWh/month.

Reducing carbon dioxide emissions

For hotel takes into consideration, the reduction of CO_2 gas is calculated by the given method[1], by months of the year (figure 4).The graph shows that the maximum amount of reducing gas CO_2 occurs during the summer months, when it is the tourism season, providing a significant reduction of environmental pollution from gas CO_2 to an average 48 kg/month and during the summer months to 55 kg. The average value of the amount of CO_2 gas will be 576 kg/year, only for this hotel.

Average annual cost analysis

Average annual expenditures are made by calculating for 10 years, for each option the costs for:

Initial investment of installing,

Expenses incurred during the annual usage,

Maintenance of installation

For heating systems with an electric boiler, investments for a bath go to 200 Euro, and the total for all hotel 7200 Euro (figure 5). The period of amortization for the hydraulic system and boiler goes up to 8 years. In expenses incurred during the annual usage, it is included the cost of electricity for 10 years. Electricity costs will be 432 Euro/month, acknowledging the current price of energy about 0.1 Euro/Wh. In maintaining of installation it is included changes of electric boilers and repairs of the tubes.

For systems with solar panels, all investments with fixing[2] will be: 8 x 5100 = 40, 800 Euro, spending the use is free (solar energy). In maintaining of the installation it is included the change of broken pipe, and any faulty electrical equipment, which are too small.

Results

Results (figure 5) show that initial investment for electric heating is small, while for solar heating is 3 times larger. For electric heating annual operating costs are higher, while for solar panels are very small.

In conclusion we see that the annual average cost for 10 years to water heating with electric side is 3 times larger than it received through the use of solar panels. This coincides with the data of special literature, that the energy consumed for heating of 100 liters of water through solar panels with vacuum tubes, is 3.5 times smaller compared to electric heating. While it is noted that initial investiment of solar panels can be deleted after 3 years. For all tourist hotels in Durrës area, we have a reduction of gas CO_2, to 240 kg/month, or 2880 kg CO_2/year, providing a major contribution in reducing global warming and in climate regulation.

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[1] http://www.meidasolar.com/service.asp?keyno=113

[2] Multi Force shpk; multiforce_tirana@yahoo.com

Acknowledgments

The first parameter that must be defined to perform this study, is the demand for energy providing hot water for a typical day and it is calculated by formula 1:

$$\text{E daily demand} = \text{N people} \times \text{Vwarm water} \times \text{Cthermal capacity} \times (\text{T0 output} - \text{T0 input}) \quad (1)$$

Monthly demand for energy for providing hot water is calculated from the formula 2:

$$\text{E monthly demand} = \text{N days} \times \text{Edaily demand} \quad (2)$$

Annual demand for energy for providing hot water is calculated from the formula 3:

$$\text{E annual demand} = \sum \text{E monthly demand} \quad (3)$$

Power supply for the provision of hot water per month is calculated according to the formula 4:

$$\text{E monthly supply} = \text{N days} \times \text{I solar radiation} \times \text{A solar panel} \times \text{E effic. of system} \quad (4)$$

where:

N days = The number of days under each respective month

I solar radiation = Average daily solar radiation [kJ/m2, day]

A solar panel = Surface solar water heating

E effic. of system = System efficiency solar water heating

Power supply for the provision of hot water per year is calculated according to the formula 5:

$$\text{E annual supply} = \sum \text{E monthly supply} \quad (5)$$

According to a study by ERE[1], water heating in albanian households is with electricity. The average value of consumed energy for a family is 58 kwh/ month or 19% of all electricity consumed.

The burning of fossil fuels like coal to produce electricity and gas or diesel for water heating release large amounts of CO_2 in the atmosphere, but the use of solar panels for water heating also contributes to reducing environmental pollution.

On rainy days or overcast dense, the energy production will be reduced greatly. In determining the size of solar collectors needed to provide hot water should be given this information [7]:

A - daily needs for hot water

B - water temperature at the outlet

C - area of the installation of solar panel

D - maximum monthly solar level

E - average efficiency of solar collector in the maximum radiation

F - water temperature at the entrance

G - specific heat in kal/kg oC

Level of solar radiation is given available from the site of the sun. Maximum and minimum levels should be taken into account throughout the year, as well as the annual average value. Specifically in the area of Durres, the level of solar radiation measured [5] in kwh/m2, is presented in figure 1.

Temperature of hot water should usually be around 42oC to 45°C. Cold water temperature is usually in the soft regions varies from 10oC in winter to 20oC in summer. Besides the above used factors it should also be taken into account the optimum installation angle, which must be: 20-70° Vertical, -5 to +5° horizontal, the installation required site of the collector in the roof and part of days without sun, which makes that for the month to be taken 28 days and for year 336 days. Average loss coefficient taken 0.8W/m2 0C, while the average efficiency of the absorber solar energy is taken 0.8-0.92. Recognizing the latitude for the area of Durrës, referring collector tilt versus horizontal [6] it is fixed degrees of tilt of collectors.

Discussion

Solar panels with vacuum tubes, have an absorption efficiency of solar energy 40% greater than panels with mirrors and it does not depend on incline of the radius sun.

The using of solar panels systems with vacuum tubes to provide hot water in tourist hotels in Durrës area, lead to a saving of electricity and the total expenditure up to 3 times.

Using the vacuum collector tubes can also be used in apartments which have a balcony from the face of the sun and is very efficient for providing of sanitary hot water, saving energy and costs up to 3 times.

Central and local government in our country, should set rules to force the introduction of new technologies of using solar energy in the design phase of villas, hotels and buildings in coastal and low areas.

The use of solar energy by businesses or consumers reduces household electricity bills that is spent on heating water to the extent of 30%.

By replacing an electric water heater with a solar water heater, can reduced greenhouse gas emissions up to 3 tonnes a year, contributing to environmental protection.

These systems are usually located on rooftops and provide higher security by eliminating the risk of accidents due to electric water heating equipment.

The high potential of solar radiation and favorable geographical position is a possibility that nature provides for the use of solar energy to produce hot water for sanitary needs and electrical energy.

Measures for the use of solar energy, are investments in the right direction, and contribute directly to long-term sustainable development and the reduction of energy consumption costs.

This study will serve as an incentive for increased use of solar thermal panels for hot water because their use is currently in the very low range.

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Appendices

Table 1 Daily average solar radiation in (kJ/m2)[1]

Month	Jan	Feb	March	April	May	June	July	August	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec
Durrës	13205	13523	14347	17604	18637	20228	22277	23199	20305	17750	5347	14677

Table 2 Sunshine hours according to measuring stations

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[1] http://aea-al.org/wp-content/.../04/RENEWABLE-ENERGY-ALBANIA

Hours with sun (h/year)

Year	1951-1960	1961-1970	1971-1980	1981-1990	Average, 1951-2005
Durrës	2666	2684	2717	2310	2595
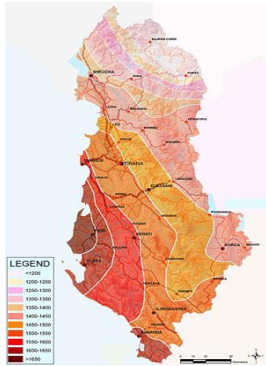
Legend: The average annual radiation kWh/m2 sunshine

Source: Institute of Hydro Meteorology
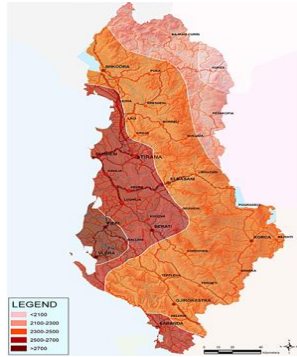
Legend: Territorial distribution of hours of

Source: Institute of Hydro Meteorology

Figure 1. The level of solar radiation in the Durres area
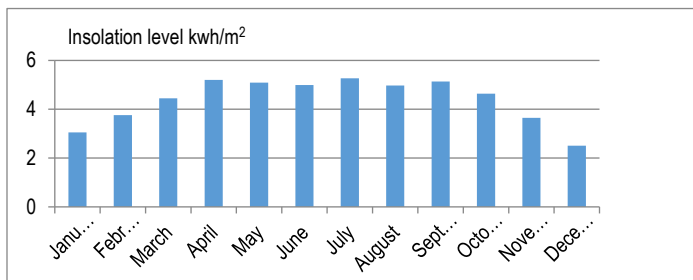
Figure 2. The number of vacuum tubes by months of the year
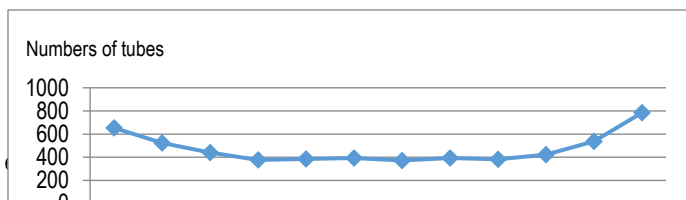
Figure 3. The amount of
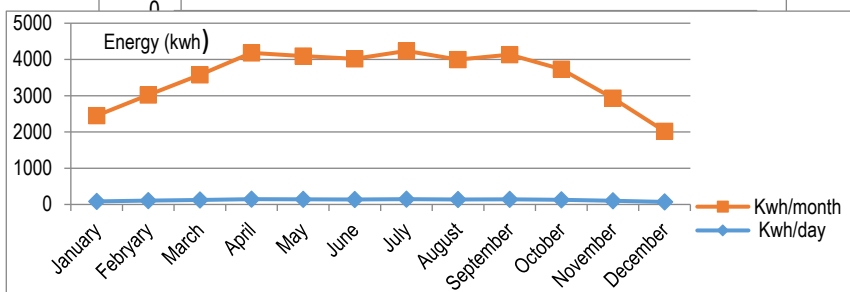
Figure 4. Reduction of CO2 gas during the year
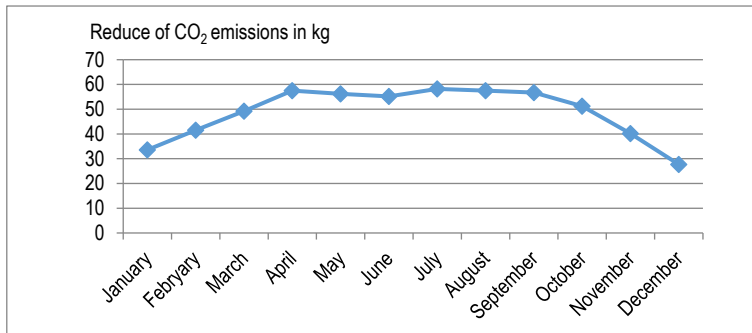
Figure 5. Expenditures for hot water with electric boiler and solar panels
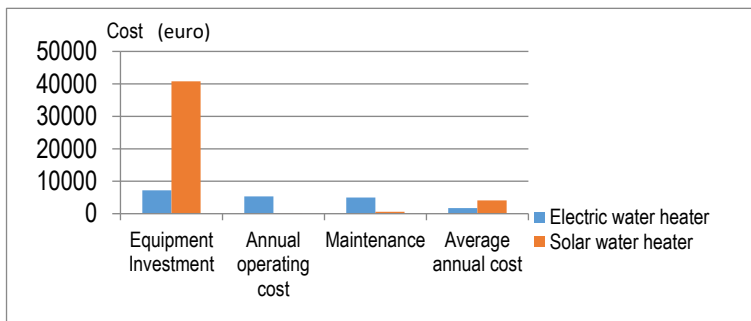
Reflection of XI-XII century Turkic ehtnographism in the dialects of the modern Turk and Azerbaijani languages

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Abstract

Language is the historical memory of a nation. The information that various historical-lexical layers of the language involve, indicates the past and the present, living style, the society and its layers which it shapes. One of these lexical layers is dialects. The fact of keeping features and characteristics of words in the process of turning to dialects while transferring from active dictionary to the passive one, make dialects the main source of both historical and modern literal language. Each dialect inculcates its conservatism and specific language features to new words. This tendency leads to the existence of the properties which are standardized or gradually lost, and also the properties that existed historically.The main role of dialects in historical development of the language emerges in the process of exploring ethnographic words. We can get precise information relating to XI-XII centuries' Turkic ethnographisms using dialects in contemporary languages. Besides saving historical meaning of words, in dialects, it is also observed creation of additional meanings.The word "ayak" used in the meaning of pot by XI-XII centuries' Turks, is noted using a°ya°k phonetic composition as bowl, glass in Uzbek language, in khami accent of Uygur language it is used as "wooden cup". In modern accents of Turkic language we can come across this word in both its meaning used in XI century, and also semantic version of Uzbek language. While using as "pan or basin" in the suburbs of Konya, Afyon provinces, it is also used as "bowl" in Istanbul-Yeniköy, in some villages of Tokat and Sivas "ayak" means "tea cup". In these accents "ayak" does not earn only ambiguity, but also homonymic. In the Compilation Dictionary of Turkic language 7 homonyms of "ayak" is accentuated. At the same time, the word of "ayakçu" which are used in meanings of copper basin in Gumushane region, is also derived from "ayak". According to V. Aslanov, "ayak" were massively used in Azerbaijani language until the end of XVII century, then was oppressed by Iranian synonyms and entered to the passive glossary of the language. Not all the XI-XII centuries' ethnographisms were survived in contemporary dialects. Some words continue existence approximate similarity of their meanings as a part of other words or phrases. For example, "agı" which is mentioned by Kashgari as "decorated silk cloth" is currently not used in its initial meaning. Based on the facts that in some villages of Afyon, Eskisehir and Ankara provinces the word of "ağı çalık" defines the name of the trousers that women wear, or "agılı" means one of the cotton sorts in Afyon, we can come to this conclusion that all these words were formed on the semantic area of "agı". Consequently, in spite of the fact that ethnographism reflect so much ancient language layers, they continue their existence in dialects and they turn to the proof the historicity of the language and its dialects.

Keywords: Dialects, Turkic languages, Etnographism, Words, semantic development

Introduction

Dialect is a limited territorial form of language.In other word, dialect is a form of communication, standing against literary language . Dialect is linguistic difference, characterized by a single language system. Historical-linguistic, socio-cultural and ethnic factors are the main factors for the formation of dialects.

Words can describe different historical-lexical periods of a language. The words reflect the way of life, the society in which they are used. It is surely that all these factors can't be reflected only in the literary level of a language. Because a literary language is a language which is formed according to a lot of norms and reflects the words used only by a part of a nation. As the literary language gradually renews itself a part of the literary language becomes archaically in the process of the development. While investigating the history of the literary language we face some obstacles which prevent the process of studying. The insufficient written sources, the limited usage of the meaning of the words in these sources are these kinds of difficulties. And dialects are the first sources which are referred to in such cases. "It's interesting that some simple or derivative words that have become archaic in the literary language are met in the dialects. While passing into the passive vocabulary of a language words keep similar features and characteristic signs. This fact makes dialects the main source of both historical and modern literary languages. As E.Azizov noted:

«İn relation to the development of the society and the language some words enter the lexicology of the dialects, later on some of which keep efficiency while some are forgotten and aren't used at all. But lexicology of the dialects are more

conservative when comparing it with the literary one. Words belonged to the ancient times of the language are kept in the dialects much more." (E.Azizov, 1995)

Some words showing the existence of the dialects and the period of the dialects' development form the idea of belonging these words to the same dialects. R. Gasimova also considering these ideas right notes:

"That is why we think the idea of belonging the words which were used in the ancient Turk monuments and which exist in the dialects to the very dialects but are in the passive vocabulary of the language right." (R.Gasimova, 2010)

But this idea has only unilateral character. Because while words pass from the dialects into a literary language the opposite process happens as a lot of words pass from a literary language into dialects.

Taking into consideration all these features of the dialects A.Damirchizadeh noted:

"As it is known, dialects preserve the traces, features of the tribes before the national language had been formed or after a national language was formed it became a branch of a national language. It keeps the features of a language which was defeated in the crossing and this language is kept as a language trace during some historical periods."

That is why it is important to compare written materials with materials of the dialects while investigating the history of any language, especially when some features found in the written sources of some periods are studied. Besides it, while some words, grammatical features, sounds, phonetic events which are not found in the modern national language while they or their traces can be met in the dialects.

Etnographisms in modern dialects

The main role of the dialects appears during investigating of the ethnographic words. It is connected with the reflection of ethnographic lexicology in the dialects. Detailed information of the ethnography of the XI-XII centuries can be achieved while referring to the dialects of the modern languages. Because not only the historical meaning of the words are kept in the dialects, but also the deriving of the additional meaning from them(from the dialects) are observed. For example, "ayran" given as a kind of soft drink in Mahmood Kashgarly's dictionary " Divan- luğat-it-türk", a XI century monument, preserves its historical meaning. However in Sivas, Tokat, Balikesir, Mugla, Aydin, Denizli dialects it means a painting substance or a liquid used in agriculture.

A word "ayaq" which means "qab-qacaq/ dishes" in the language of the XI-XII centuries Turks was noted as "piyalə/qədəh" in the Uzbek language in the "ayak" phonetical structure, "taxta fincan/a wooden cup" in Khamy dialect of the Uygur language. In the dialects of the modern Turkic languages this word can be met in the both meanings – in the meaning which was used in the XI century and in the meaning which was used in the Uzbek language. "ayak" used in the meaning tas/ around Afyon, Konya means "qədəh" in Istanbul. Yenikoy "çaystəkanı" in some villages of Tokat and Sivas. "ayak" gained not only polisemantical but also omonymy in these languages. In the Dictionary of the Turk language "Derleme sözlüyü" 7 omonyms of word "ayak" were given. At the some time, "ayakci" in the meaning of "mis ləyən" used in Gumushhane district is a derivative form of "ayak". According to V.Aslanov's opinion this word was used till the end of the XVII century in the wide aspect in the Azerbaijan language but later was sıxışdırılmaq by the synonyms of Iranian origin and included into the passive vocabulary of the language.(Aslanov V., 2003)

"Etük" which means "shoes, boots" in M.Kashgarli's dictionary exists in the dialects of the modern Turk languages but with the different meaning. "etüklük sağrı/leather which is used to make shoe" and "etükçi" (K.B.) are used in the dialectics and related to this word (etük). In the dialects of the Uzbek language the word preserved its initial variant in the phonetical structure of "əğük-əgikç etiq-ətüv-ötik-ötük".

In the form of phonetic variants "edik papuç, edik, etik" this word is used in the Turkic dialects and means "kəndli çəkməsi, uşaq ayaqqabısı, məst, yundan toxunan qısa corab, başmaq/a peasant's shoe, a child's shoe, slippers, woolen socks". The omonym of this word in Mugla district means "arıların ayğında toplanan sarı rəngli mum-a yellow substance which is gathered in the legs of the bees ". Etnographism "etükçi" having the meaning of a profession and used in "Kutadğu Bilik" as "edikci"exists in Izmir Odemish district in the meaning of a profession "pineci-a shoemaker". According to some specialists the usage of edük-etik-edik in Turk languages can be explained as the influence of the bulgar group.

The other entographism which was used by the Turks in the XI century and still exists in the modern Turkic dialects is "al". M.Kashgarli explained this word as "silk cloth with ornaments in an orange colour". This word is used in Tukic dialects in a more different meaning. In Isparta this word is used as "toylarda bəyin boynuna salınan qırmızı dəsmal /red cloth which is tied to the bride's arm" while in Burdur and Zonguldak dialects "al" means "gəlinlərin başına örtülən uzun qırmızı örtük, duvaq/ a long red covering for bride grooms".

In "Kutadgu Bilig" "belgü" and its devivatives "belgülük, belgü, belgür, belgürt" can be met. This word is used as "nişan, əlamət /a sign" in this work and can be studied as an etnographism. Because in Turkic dialects "belgi" is used in the meaning of "nişan, hədəf/ aim" but it is used as "bəlgə" in the Azerbaijani dialects in different meaning. In Megri dialect two meanings of this word can be come across; 1) adaxlı qızın evinə aparılan xonça / a special present taken / sent to the fiancée; 2) boyaq üçün istifadə olunan xüsusi ağac növü/ a special kind of wood used for painting. Surely the first one of these meanings was formed by the derivative of the initial meaning and gaining of the new semantical sphere.

"Aguz" used as first milk of cow after birth in XI- XII centuries. In some of Azerbaijan dialects as Zaqatala, Qakh, Nukha, Agdash, Zerdab the word used as the same mean, and nation created a new mean of the word-«meal made from colostrum»

Not all the entograhisms of the XI-XII centuries exist in the dialects. There are some words that exist in the tərkib of some expressions or in a similar meaning. For ex., M. Kashgarli agi in the meaning of "bəzəkli ipək parça /silk ornaments cloth" and that was used in M. Kashgarli's work isn't used in the initial meaning in Azerbaijan and Turk dialects. But in some villages of Ayfon, Eskisehir, Ankara districts agicalik is used as a kind of clothes which women wear while working. In Shamkir dialect the ethnographism "ağ" means "wedge between the legs of trousers".-" Gədənin şalvarının ağı cırılıf, mərəkədə biyavır oluf"

"Agili" means a kind of cotton in Ayfon. As both the meanings are related to a dress we come into conclusion that these words were formed in the sphere of age word.

Result

As it has shown in this article, ethnographisms express the ancient period of the language they exist in the dialects and they become the evidence which shows the age of languages and dialects

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FRANCHISE CONTRACT AND GOOD FAITH

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Abstract

Franchise is a widespread business model in countries with developed economies. Although that in Albania there are few franchising relations, the Albanian Civil Code provides franchising as a contract. The franchise contract is a binding agreement where the franchiser grants the franchisee the right to use the trademark and the operating system of the franchiser, mutually fulfilling rights and duties derived by this contract. The most important duty of the franchiser is to make available to the franchisee a standardized set of immaterial rights, models, charts, profit, organization and trade ideas, and other appropriate knowledge for the development of trade. During the negotiations, the parties have to show each other the commercial affairs conditions dealing with the franchise agreement and the franchise obligations particular program. The information during the negotiations must be confidential and such must remain, even if the contract is not concluded. The Albanian Civil Code provides that in general during the contract negotiations, the parties must act in good faith towards each other. In case of franchise contract the good faith is specifically required by law, due to the fact that the parties normally provide each other with important and economical valuable information. The aim of this paper is to realize an overview of a new contract, as franchising and its importance in economic relations. This paper will clarify the Albanian legal provisions on franchise contract, the rights and duties of each party. It will be highlighted the role of good faith in negotiations, how the parties must act and the possibility to compensate potential damages. It is about one principle, the Good Faith Principle, that Civil Law jurisdiction and Common Law jurisdictions have generally two different approaches. The paper will show the changes in legal provisions of some European countries regarding good faith in franchise contracts.

Keywords: franchise contract, good faith, Civil Law, Common Law, negotiations

Introduction

Franchise is a widespread business model in countries with developed economies. It is considered as a business opportunity, a successful one. It had became popular from the mid of 20th century in North America. But the origin of franchise goes back to middle ages.

The word "franchise" derives from old French and means "privilege" or "freedom". In the middle ages a franchise was a privilege or a right and the local sovereign or lord would grant the right to hold markets of fairs, to operate the local ferry or to hunt in his land. (Rogerson, 2008) In essence, the sovereign gave an individual or group of individuals the monopoly rights over a particular activity in a particular location for a certain period of time. In most cases, the grantee was required to make a payment to the sovereign power for this right or privilege, usually in the form of a share of the product or profit. (Blair & Lafontaine, 2005)

The Singer Company, which produced sewing machines, created the concept of franchise business in 1850's. The Sewing Machine Combination became the first patent pool in the United States, dividing the distribution rights among the manufactures. The franchisees were granted worldwide right, territories, and exclusive rights to sell and service their machines. (Duening, Hisrich & Lechter, 2010)

Legislations all over the world have provisions to regulate franchise as a contract, as an economic relationship. Franchising, compared with other contracts, can be considered a new contract, but these last decades have shown an increasing use of it.

The current Albanian Civil Code, which entered in force in 1994, has specific provisions on realizing the franchise contract, although in Albania there are few cases of franchise. It is about regulating a binding agreement which is negotiated confidentially and in good faith.

The aim of this paper is to clarify this "new", atypical contract, its economic value, the manners and the behaviors of the parties. It is important to pay attention to franchise contract, according to the global trend of using it more often.

The paper will be realized divided into two main parts. In the first part of the paper it will be shown an overview of what the Albanian Civil Code provides on franchise contract. This part will be completed with brief descriptions about the legal

regulations of the franchise contract by some European countries legislation and USA legislation, in order to show up the differences and to analyze them.

In the second part of the paper the attention will be focused on good faith, specifically required by law, during the negotiations of the franchise contract. The "duty" of good faith will be analyzed by taking in consideration the different approaches to this principle by Civil Law jurisdiction and Common Law jurisdictions. It will be put face to face some European countries legislations for understanding the value of Good Faith Principle in this kind of contract.

Franchise Contract

As an agreement that promises success, franchise is an economic relationship with mutual benefits, both for the franchisor and the franchisee. In the last decades the franchise relationship has become important as a business tool.

The principal ingredient in most franchise contracts is the franchisee's right to use a national brand name in exchange for a share of profits to the franchisor. (Mathewson & Winter, 1985)

The franchisee's advantage is quite clear: the use of a well known trademark and operating system of the franchisor. The franchisee benefits the support, the information, the experience and appropriate knowledge from the franchisor. The franchisee foresees that the business to be successful, as it has resulted to be such for the franchisor. So, there is less work to do, just to withstand and perform daily duties regarding the business. The customers are almost certain. The business is launched advantaged because of the national or international marketing, which this new business normally cannot afford.

The main benefits of the franchisor are the entry fee, as a fix amount of money related to the economic value and to the potential development of the system, which is paid by the franchisee and the royalty payment, set as a percentage of profits of the franchisee. There are moments of business development, when the franchisor may not be able to invest. So he uses his well known trademark and operating system, in order to expand nationally or internationally quickly and with less cost. The franchisor has the right to choose the franchisee, taking into consideration his qualification, but certainly the location where the franchise right will be used, which should constitute a geographical intention of the franchisor for further expansion.

The Albanian legislation provides the franchise relationship as a contract which contains a continuous obligation relationship to which independent enterprises are obliged to each other to jointly promote and develop trade and service delivery, implementing specific obligations. (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1056)

The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising" recognizes franchising as a contract that can "be adopted in any economic field" (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 1) and gives a detailed definition about it.

There is no legal definition of a franchise in French law. The French Franchise Federation refers to the definition of the European Code of Ethics for Franchising, which may be taken into consideration by French courts. (Schulte, 2014)

"Franchising is a system of marketing goods and/or services and/or technology, which is based upon a close and ongoing collaboration between legally and financially separate and independent undertakings, the Franchisor and its individual Franchisees, whereby the Franchisor grants its individual Franchisee the right, and imposes the obligation, to conduct a business in accordance with the Franchisor's concept.

The right entitles and compels the individual Franchisee, in exchange for a direct or indirect financial consideration, to use the Franchisor's trade name, and/or trade mark and /or service mark, know-how, business and technical methods, procedural system, and other industrial and /or intellectual property rights, supported by continuing provision of commercial and technical assistance, within the framework and for the term of a written franchise agreement, concluded between parties for this purpose."(The European Code of Ethics for Franchising, 1)

There is no legal definition or specific law governing franchising in the UK. Like the French Franchise Federation, even the British Franchise Association has adopted the definition of the European Franchise Federation. Common law would regard a franchise agreement as a complex, hybrid contract including various elements from other commercial contractual arrangements. (Wormald & Bond, 2014)

In USA, many states have franchise 'registration/disclosure' or franchise 'relationship' laws (or both) that define franchises. There are no federal franchise relationship laws of general application. However, certain industries are regulated by industry specific legislation. (Brennan & Zeidman, 2014)

Parties rights and obligations

The franchise contract is an agreement that includes mutual obligations and responsibilities for the parties. The franchisor has the obligation to make available to the franchisee's standardized set of immaterial rights, models, charts, profit, organization and trade ideas, and other appropriate knowledge for the development of trade. Meanwhile, he is obliged to protect all the obligations program from infringement by third parties, constantly develop it and support its implementation by the franchisee with instructions, information and perfection. (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1057)

By interpreting the above mentioned provision, arise the obligations of the franchisor. The provision listed and mentioned them generally. The franchisor has normally years of experience and considerable knowledge for the development of the trade. He has to help and assist continuously the franchisee and to consult him. The assistance, the help and the consultation may be given by the franchisor himself, or by other persons who work for him, who are trained and qualified enough. These are undoubtedly obligations, but can also be evaluated as forms that increase cooperation and communication between the parties.

The franchisor has the duty to fulfill the obligations program. "… In case that the rights would not exist or if the franchisor would violate other contractual obligations by fault, the franchisee has the right to reduce compensation. The reduced amount should be decided with competence through an impartial expert. The franchisee may require compensation of damages caused by the absence of the obligations program elements or by breach by fault of the contract by the franchisor." (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1062) The duty to support the program implementation is expressed clearly, but it is important to understand "the continuity development" of the program. In an evolving economy, there is strong competition. The franchisor has to help the franchisee to face the competition and to minimize the losses, by developing the obligations program, adapting it to new economic situations. The franchisor also has to protect the obligations program from infringement by third parties.

The franchise contract is a contract which provides also obligations for the franchisee. "The franchisor is responsible for the existence of rights and knowledge of the obligations franchise program." (The Albanian Civil Code, article 1062) The franchisee has the duty to communicate with the franchisor, in order to get all the necessary consult and instructions to understand the way the business should be run. It certainly increases the chances to start a successful business. In order to achieve this goal, the franchisee and even his staff may need to be trained. "The franchisor may seek compensation for damage caused by breach of contract by fault, in particular by insufficient implementation of the obligations franchise program by the franchisee." (The Albanian Civil Code, article 1063)

The franchisee has the duty not to compete. According to the Albanian Civil Code: "to the franchisee can be imposed a ban of local competition for a time up to a year. If from the prohibition of competition results a reduction of his professional activity, an equal financial compensation is given to the franchisee, regardless the termination of contract." (The Albanian Civil Code, article 1061)

The franchise contract parties have also common obligations. "Even after the termination of the contract the parties have mutually obligation for a fair competition." (The Albanian Civil Code, article 1061)

In fact, each franchise contract must contain specific provisions according to the type of franchise, but even to what the parties have agreed.

The Italian law provides two articles referring to the obligations of the franchisor and the franchisee. There are some criteria to be fulfilled from the franchisor business to set a franchising network. The obligations of the franchisor are listed and expressed related to the content of the franchise contract. (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 4) One of the franchisee obligations is "…to respect and have respected by his own personnel and collaborators, even after the contract termination, the strict confidentiality on the content of the activity operated in the franchise." (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 4) As compared to the Albanian legislation, the Italian legislation provides an important element as a "must" in the content of the franchise contract. It is about the territory where the franchisee will operate or the territorial rights. (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 1 & 3)

There are no legal requirements by United Kingdom legislation for the franchisor before he may offer franchises, but the Code of Ethics imposes some, which are less comparing to the Italian legal requirements. Post-termination non-compete covenants are prohibited after the termination of an agreement, unless a franchisor's 'know-how' is dependent on them. However, this know-how is required to be classed as 'secret', which under its new definition in the block exemption is difficult for franchisors to prove. (Wormald & Bond, 2014)

Comparing to the Italian legislation, there is no such legal or regulatory requirement that must be met before a franchisor may offer franchises, under French law. But, since a franchise is described by case law as the 'reiteration of a commercial success', the franchisor must be in a position to prove, prior to offering a franchise, that it has operated at least one similar commercial business in a manner and, for the time necessary to consider such business, as a success. (Schulte, 2014)

In US a franchisor must be in compliance with any applicable state registration and disclosure requirements before that franchisor may offer franchises.

The franchise contract form

"Franchise contract must be in writing specifying among other things a unanimous definition of mutual obligations of the parties, the duration of the contract and other essential elements of it. The text of the contract must contain a full description of the program and franchise obligations." (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1059)

This shows that the law recognizes the obligation that the will of the parties, in the case of the franchise contract, to be expressed in a letter. Besides the essential elements, such as the determination of the parties, its object, the content of the contract requires more than setting out the rights and obligations of the parties. The legal provision requires that the text of the franchise contract to have detailed and complete description of the obligations and the franchise program. According to the type of franchise, the obligations program may not be part of the text of the contract, but placed as an annex to it, of course obligatory for implementation.

The Italian Law provides that the franchise contract "… must be stipulated in writing, otherwise it is null and void" (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 3) Even "franchise agreements anterior to the entering into force of the present law… shall be formalized in writing…" (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 9)

According to the United Kingdom legislation and French legislation all contracts and all contractual agreements related to the franchise relationship should be written. It is meant because the legislations provide even the appropriate language in which the contract will be drafted.

A franchise contract contains a lot of rights and obligations for the parties, referring to financial, advertising, payment, communication and control issues. The program also contains the procedures, the forms and the ways all the obligations should be fulfilled by the parties. That is why the franchise contract must be in writing.

Good Faith in Franchise Contract

Good Faith is usually required by people as to set a standard for good relationships. As a principle, good faith is recognized by the contract law and is required at pre – contractual phase. It is justified by the importance of this phase and by the uncertainty which accompanies it.

Generally, the Albanian legislation provides that: "Parties during the course of negotiations for the drafting of the contract must act in good faith towards each other". (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 674) The behavior of the parties must be in good faith, in order to avoid possible damages.

According to The Albanian Civil Code, article 675 "In case that a contracting party possesses professional knowledge and evokes the other side of her full confidence, it has an obligation to provide information and guidance in good faith." In specific contracts like franchising, the obligation of confidentiality is expressed clearly and is worth even if the contract is not concluded.

"At the completion of contract negotiations the parties should show each other the state of commercial affairs dealing with the franchise contract and particularly the franchise obligations program, and inform each other according to the principles of good faith. They are required to maintain the secrecy of confidential information, even if the contract is not concluded. (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1058)

The pre-contractual phase carries the possibility of liability for the party which acts in lack of good faith. In the case of franchise contract the principle of good faith is expressly required during the negotiations. It is justified even by the important information that the parties give each other. Being combined with the request to maintain secrecy of confidential information, the provision makes clear the way the parties should behave. The conclusion or not of the franchise contract "has no importance". The confidential information is given during the negotiations. As this phase is uncertain for the final result,

each party that does not act in good faith or does not maintains confidentiality "… is liable to compensate the damage. This right shall prescribe after three years from the date of the conclusion of negotiations." (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1058)

The party that has participated in the negotiations may require payment of costs incurred by legal confidence in the conclusion of the contract, which was not concluded due to a deliberate behavior of the other party." (The Albanian Civil Code, art. 1058)

In Italy the Supreme Court (Corte Suprema di Cassazione) has expressed in September 2009 (Decision No. 20106, 18.09.2009 of the Italian Supreme Court) that the principle of objective good faith, as the mutual loyalty of conduct, should govern the formation, execution and interpretation of the contract and accompanies it at every stage. (Picierno, 2009)

The Italian Law provides the requirements of loyalty, fairness and good faith as a standard to the parties' behavior: "The franchisor must behave towards the prospective franchisee according to the standards of loyalty, fairness and good faith…" (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 6, paragraph I), "The prospective franchisee must behave towards the franchisor in compliance with the standards of loyalty, fairness and good faith…" (The Italian Law 129 06.05.2004 "Rules on the regulation of franchising", art. 6, paragraph III)

The disclosure of information of the parties towards each other is substantial and inevitable for the realization of negotiations and the conclusion of the contract. Although the franchisor must justify to the prospective franchisee any possible failure in disclosing the information and data that had been requested by the franchisee, especially in case of objectively confidential information or if a disclosure would violate third parties rights.

Though the French Civil Code and the French courts have not given generally to good faith the same extension and the same importance, according to the franchise contract, the principle of good faith is present. Franchise agreements must comply with general principles of contracts and the franchisor is under a general obligation to contract in good faith which requires that the franchisor delivers any necessary piece of information during the course of the contractual relationships. The franchisor must act dutifully and in cooperation with the prospective franchisee. This implies disclosing clear and accurate information that would be of significance to the future franchisor, even if such information is not covered by the pre-contractual disclosure obligation. (Schulte, 2014)

The French Civil Code recognizes good faith as "a must" in performing a contract. "Agreements lawfully entered into take the place of the law for those who have made them.

   They may be revoked only by mutual consent, or for causes authorized by law.

   They must be performed in good faith." (The French Civil Code art. 1134) So, it should be accepted that the principle of good faith undoubtedly applies to franchise contracts.

The English contract law does not provide the duty to negotiate, interpret and perform a contract in good faith. The English law is based on liberal autonomy of the parties, to which an extreme approach is referred to a Latin maxim neminem laedit qui suo iure utitur (if you are exercising your right you are not harming anybody). As the parties design their contract they expect the legal system to give them tools in order to enforce what they have agreed, and not to be protected by the legal system. (Mitchell & Powell, 2011) Referring to the franchise contract, there is no general obligation for parties to act in good faith towards each other. (Wormald & Bond, 2014)

Although belonging to the common law system, the USA has adopted the good faith principle. In USA, courts in most states have consistently held that an implied covenant of good faith and fair dealing exists in commercial contracts, including franchise agreements. It varies from state to state how the principle of good faith is applied and in addition to several franchise-specific statutes, state law typically imposes a common law duty of good faith and fair dealing. The covenant generally provides that the parties to a contract must exercise their discretion as to the performance of their contractual obligations in a manner that is not inconsistent with the other party's reasonable business expectations and does not deprive the other party of the benefit of the contract. (Brennan & Zeidman, 2014)

Although the Albanian legislation and other European legislations provide explicitly the duty to behave in good faith during the negotiations phase of franchise contract, in fact it is clear that there is presence of good faith throughout the period that the franchise relationship continues and after that. Behaving in good faith should be understood to the continuous support of the franchisor towards the franchisee, to the interactively fulfillment of the obligations program, to the possibility of renewal of the franchise contract and the obligation of not compete.

Conclusions

In Albania franchise is almost unknown as an economic activity, regulated by law. The new Albanian Civil Code contains some provisions over franchise relationship, recognizing it as a contract.

Referring to those provisions, comparing to those of other European legislations, it should be said that the obligations of the parties in a franchise relationship are expressed generally, without listing a series of obligations of the franchisor or the franchisee. The same problem is also on the content of the contract. The European legislations which regulate franchise contract by specific law or by the Commercial Code express clearly the elements that the contract must mention e. g. the territory or the location where the franchisee has the rights accorded by the franchisor.

This paper claimed to give an overview of the way the franchise relationship is recognized and regulated as a contract and as such, to clarify the presence of the principle of good faith.

As Albania belongs to the Civil Law system, the good faith principle is considered as a general rule to be applied in each contract, as a set standard for the parties' behavior during each phase of the contract. Other countries, belonging to this system of law, like Italy and France through their legal provisions or by courts opinions and decisions, recognize the duty of good faith in contracts, especially in franchise contract.

The trend of recognizing good faith even by states which belong to the Common Law system is now clear. The USA recognizes good faith through the Uniform Commercial Code. Despite the fact that the application of this principle varies from state to state, generally the courts in most states have held that an implied covenant of good faith and fair dealing exists in franchise contracts. But, United Kingdom legislation expresses another approach to the application of good faith principle in contracts. The contract law does not provide the duty to negotiate, interpret and perform a contract in good faith, as is based on liberal autonomy of the parties. So even for the franchise contract there is no legal provision to obligate the parties to act in good faith.

Good faith is required in everyday life. But, as it is imposed by law, as a contract principle it becomes more important. The franchise contract, comparing to other types of contracts is considered new. It is complicated because this contract provides many obligations for the parties and it is specific because at every phase of contract there is a lot of information that the parties have to give to each other. The franchise contract actually means an agreement between two parties, who have not absolutely the same experience, knowledge and success. In that case the franchisee is "inferior" and can be easily misled. So, the presence of good faith, as a legal requirement means security and defines a behaviour standard, which avoids intentional damages.

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NATURAL DEATH VS CIVIL DEATH

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Abstract

Death is an inevitable phenomenon, which implies the termination of the life of persons. All over the world, in a day, a large number of children are born, but unfortunately also a large number of people die because of illness, age, homicide, suicide or poverty. Death is not only a biological process, as at the same time it affects directly the legal capacity of a person. Therefore the natural death of the person is seen as a cause that brings legal consequences at its verification. Being considered as a natural phenomenon as well as legal, death is considered as a legal fact with which legislations bind the beginnings, changes or terminations of legal. Legal capacity of a person, as a condition to undertake rights and obligations, is the determining element to gain the quality of a natural person. This quality is gained with the birth and terminated with the death. There are special cases, under which it is difficult to verify the natural death of a person for reasons such as: absence of the cadaver or the uncertainty of the circumstances in which the person has been lost or absented. In order to guarantee the legal security and also the conservation of personal and property rights of the person, legislations have provided the declaration of the person dead, which may come as a result of natural disasters, accidents, military actions or as a consequence of declaring before the person missing. This paper aims to make a comparative analysis between the procedure of declaration of a natural death of the person and the procedure of declaring a person dead according to the Albanian legislation. For this reason it will be analyzed the persons who are entitled to make the request for the declaration of the person dead, the legal force of the decision of the court through which the person is declared dead and the necessary time limits for declaring a person dead.

Keywords: natural death, civil death, procedure, legitimated persons, declaration of death

Introduction

Death is the phenomenon of the termination of physiological functions of creatures, including humans. Death as a philosophical concept is "the termination of life on earth, the separation of the soul from the body. The death of the person is the body's death, passing into the afterlife, in that spiritual..." (Dalya, 1881).

Death as a biological concept is the termination of life (Ozhegov, 1953).

Death is a legal fact, categorized as a natural event which occupies a special position among other legal facts. This is not only linked with the psychological influence of relatives but, at the same time it directly affects on the legal capacity of a person. Natural death of the person brings the termination of some legal consequences and the beginning of some others.

The dead person ends his biologically life, but he continues to remain part of some juridical consequences, because from the juridical point of view it is considered as a legal fact which entails the beginning, the changes or the termination of legal relations.

Death is a fact that brings the acquisition of rights and obligations for a group of people. Some legal relationships begin with the verification of death as; property rights and obligations which exceed by the inheritance to the heirs. Instead, some other relationships terminate as the dissolution of the marriage (Art. 123 Family Code of Albania)

Beside the natural death of the person, which is due to the termination of all its physiological functions, legislations provide even the civil death, which presumes a possible natural death.

As in the case of natural death, even the civil death must be registered in the state civil authorities.

There are two ways by which a person can be declared dead

natural death, which is certified on a medical report;

Civil death which is verified by the court decision which recognizes the person dead (Art. 379 Procedural Code of Albania):

a. if for over six years there have been no news from the date of receiving the latest news from the person

b. if the person has been lost during military actions and this missing is verified by military authorities, when there is no notice for two years issuing certified by the competent military authorities, when there is no notice for two years from the peace establishing agreement has entered into force or three years from the end of military actions

The person missing during a natural disaster or in circumstances which appear to show he is deceased, may be declared deceased by decision of the court, when there have been no notices from him for two years after the disaster has occurred, without necessarily being previously declared missing (Art. 19 Civil Code of Albania);

This paper aims to analyze the relevant procedures for each of the ways of declaring a person dead and the legal relations that begin, change or terminate as a result of this declaration .

NATURAL DEATH AND THE REGISTRATION IN THE CIVIL REGISTRY

The Civil registry the set of personal data of Albanian citizens, foreign citizens and stateless persons who are temporarily or permanently resident in the Republic of Albania and which are registered and kept in the National Civil Registry and which help to certify the birth, the existence, the individuality and the relationships between them (Art. 2/1Law "Civil State").

The Civil registry the set of personal data, that verify the birth, existence, individuality of the citizens and their relations. These facts are to a particular importance because they serve to identify the person and determine relationships between them.

These facts are of a particular importance because they serve to identify a physical person and to determine the relationship between him and the others.

The registration in civil registry is also important for acquisition of the rights and obligations of the person. Registration of legal facts in the civil registry determines the juridical status of the person in a certain moment, beginning from his legal capacity, the capacity to act and his rights and obligations.

The components of the civil registry are: name and surname, identity number, date of birth, place of birth, sex, nationality, motherhood, fatherhood, marital status, death, declaration of missing, residence, domicile and other facts provided by law (Art. 6 "Civil State").

 One of the main components of the civil registry is death. The act of registration of death brings the termination of legal capacity of a person and the beginning of legal consequences for relatives and other persons who have been in a legal relationship with the deceased.

The procedure of the declaration the natural death

The Albanian Law no. 10129, dated 11.05.2009 "On the Civil Registry" provides the declaration of a natural death. Respectively article 52 of this law provides that the declaration of death can be made by any adult family member or a relative of the family and, in their absence, from the compliance officer of the municipality/ commune, in the Civil Registry Office , where the citizen had the domicile/ residence or where the body was found.

The citizen is determined as dead, when his death is verified by a medical report, through which is identified the person and determined the time, place and cause of death.

When the body can not be identified, or when suspected signs of a violent death are observed the report issued by the forensic expert should be signed by the prosecutor.

In the medical report the causes of death are classified due to health, accidental or criminal reasons. The declaration of death should be made within 10 days of the incident, or the finding of the body of the dead person, and within 60 days, when death has occurred abroad (Art.52 Law "Civil State").. For those who die in hospitals, military bases, in prisons, in rehabilitation wards and other institutions are obliged to inform in written form the nearest office of civil registry within 5 days, for deaths occurring in their institutions. With the declaration of death, the civil registry office gives the funeral permission.

In the communes who are under the jurisdiction of municipalities where there are not registry office the funeral permission is given by the mayor of the commune. In this case, the mayor of the commune, after the administration of the documents that verify the death, is obligated within five days, to notify the civil state office where the citizen was registered, for the registration of the death certificate.

When the civil state office takes the notification of death, from the above institutions and in cases when there are no relatives to make the declaration, it requires the verification from the representatives of the local government. If the death is confirmed, then he compiles the act of death, which must be signed, as appropriate, from the representatives of the local

government, the mayor of the commune, the district administrator, or from the representatives of the funeral service, or the representative.

The death certificate will be absolutely void when the person, in fact, is not dead, which is confirmed by his physical appearance or his existence after the date of the act of death, in cases of the absence of the body or when the body results of another person (Art. 55 Law "Civil State").

THE PROCEDURE OF DEATH RECOGNITION BY A COURT DECISION

The recognition of death can be made only by a court decision as it is based not on the fact of the physical death, but on its presumption due to the absence of the person from his last residence and the absents of news for a certain period. Differently from the natural death of the person, in the cases of recognition of death, is impossible to find the body, so the court follows a certain procedure for recognition of death of the person. The court before giving the final decision must respect the time limits provided by the legislation.

The Procedure of recognition of death

The Albanian legislation based on various circumstances defines three cases of recognition of death. These cases are under the same procedure but they distinguish on the time limits.

The first case, is the recognition of death of the person after he was declared missing, " The person who has disappeared from his residence or his last residing place and from whom there are no news for more than two years, then by the request of any interested person he can be declared missing by the decision of the court." According to this definition the court declared missing the person, after receiving the request made by interested persons. During the trial, the court makes the verification of all the circumstances which make credible the declaration a person missing.

Article 17 of the Civil Code of the Republic of Albania provides, " A person declared missing, upon the request of each concerned person may be declared deceased by a court decision if for four years there have been no news from the date the person is declared missing"

The interested persons who are legitimized to apply upon a request for recognizing a person dead are the same persons who are legitimized for declaring a person missing. After receiving the request, the court within 10 days from her presentation sends a copy to the commune or municipality where the person required to be recognized dead had his last residence.

The commune or municipality is obliged to publish the request in visible places. This request should be also published in local or national newspapers, as well as in the Official Journal.

The judicial process can't be made without passing 6 months from the publication of the request in the Official Journal. This time limit is established with the aim of getting informed the interested persons starting from the own person who is required to be declared missing, his relatives and other persons with whom the person may have entered into legal relations.

During the process, the court should interrogates the relatives of the person, should takes data from the municipality or commune where he had his last residence or his last domicile. The court must conduct a full and universally judicial investigation, in accordance with the law. After the end of the juridical investigation the court takes the decision for the recognition of a person dead.

The court should order the publication of the decision in the Official Journal or at least in one local newspaper assigned by her, or in another way of publication that would be useful (Art. 380 Procedural Civil Code of Albania). The decision of the court should be sent for registration to the respective civil registry in order to register him in the Register of Deaths.

In the two other cases of the civil death, the court can declare the person deceased without declaring him missing. In cases where it considers the specific circumstances of the disappearance of the person provided by law as they can be the disappearance during a natural disaster or in other circumstances or in circumstances which appear to show he is deceased, or in cases of lost during military actions (Art. 19 Civil Code of Albania) and such last is certified by the militaries authorities, without having previously declared missing according to the legal time limits (Art. 18 C.C of Albania). The time limits are shorter this time as the possibility that the person is be dead is more convincing.

In both these cases, it is necessary the verification of the facts which can prove the death of the person. In the interpretation of two dispositions the circumstances that lead to the creation of the court conviction for the death of the person are not exhaustive and should be estimated case by case.

The Law of "Civil Emergency" No. 8756, dated 26.3.2001 provides as natural disasters "earthquakes, floods, prolonged atmospheric droughts, architectural mudslides, avalanches, strong winds, forest fires and in residential environments, massive diseases infectious, the consequences of which affect people, livestock, property, environment, and other events caused by natural phenomena. " (Art. 2/3 Law "Civil Emergency").

 Circumstances which make to believe that the person has died and that can be considered by the court are also situation provided by the same law as "other disasters" like "accidents, rail, sea, air, and fire, explosions, falls and dams, nuclear accidents, industrial and ecological or any other accident caused by human action, from war or emergency situations, as well as other forms of mass violence "that are more possible and more common to happen.

Military actions are provided also as one of the circumstances which can bring to the conviction that the person has dead. According to the Law "For the powers and authorities of command and strategic direction of the armed forces of the Republic of Albania" No.8671, dated 26.10.2000 the concept of military actions or operations of the armed forces is provided in art 2 as "undertake a military mission, strategic, operational, tactical, preparation, support, service, administrative and human ". Referring to this provision, the concept of "person" is not limited only on the military forces but also it include civil persons in support functions, as also the civilian person who may be lost during these operations.

 The time limit for declaring a person dead as a result of lost during a natural disaster or during the military actions is 2 years. But this time limit may be extended up to three years from the end of military actions. It is no deed any procedure for the publication of the request in these cases, and this because of the conviction of the facts (Art. 18 C.C of Albania). The court's decision, which recognizes the person dead be should registered in the National Registry of Civil Status / basic register (archive), without making the declaration of death.

The act of death will be absolutely void when the person, in fact, is not dead, which is confirmed by his physical presence or the existence after the date of the act of death.

LEGAL EFFECTS OF THE DECLARATION OF THE PERSON DEAD AND OF THE RECOGNITION OF DEATH

Legal effects that come from the recognition of death are equivalent to the effects that come from the declaration of the person dead. The effects that come from the declaration and recognition of a person dead are non-property, personal effects and property effects. Personal non-property rights and property rights which belong to the person declared missing must be preserved and protected by the administrator appointed by the court up to the recognition of death.

These rights must be preserved, not only to protect the heirs interests but also to conserve the legal relations in which the person recognized dead, may have been a party. By recognizing a person dead all the legal relationships in which he has been a party terminates for him. Heirs at the time of opening of the inheritance profit not only rights, but also the obligations. His property rights, as long as they are not closely personal, passed to the heirs of the dead person.

One of these cases is the undertaking contract which is not dissolved by the death of the contractor, except when the contractor was considered indispensable for the performance of the work (Art. 873 C.C of Albania).

A specific form of passing the property rights is the term transfer of these rights as in the case of property rights as part of author rights, which generally retained for a period of 70 years from the date of the recognizing the person dead (Art. 21 Law "The authors rights and the other rights linked to him")

Another property obligation that terminates with the death of the person is the obligation for alimony, which does not pass to the heirs because of his personal character. Other cases where property rights that do not pass to the heirs are that of the testamentary executor and the guardian or administrator due to the personal character of these obligations.

Differently from the property rights which generally pass to heirs, most of the personal rights terminates with the death of a the person.

Among personal non-property rights it can be mentioned the conservation of authors rights. These are closely relates with the author when he was alive, but even after his death. Only a part of them can pass with inheritance to the heirs of the author, such as the right to challenge the co authorship, the right to challenge the distortion of the name, etc..

Marriage is the typical example of a personal legal relationship which ends with the death of one of the spouses. Death and the recognition of death are provided by the Family Code as a form of marriage termination. Parental responsibility also terminates with the death of the person as when it was created as a result of a natural connection or adoption. Adoption institute provides an exceptional case, when the death of the adoptive candidate does not affect the successful completion of the procedure and the acquisition of the rights from the adopted child (Art. 242 Family Code of Albania).

This happens when adoptive candidate dies before the court decision but after having given his consent for the adoption. This exceptional case seems to be applied only to the natural death and not in cases of civil death.

The registration of the act of death and the person's registration in the register of death bring as a consequence the removing of the person from some public registers like the register of voters or that of tax authorities. Unlike natural death, civil death is accompanied with uncertainty. Although they have same consequences, the legislation provides the possibility of reappearance of the person recognized dead.

When the person declared dead results alive, he or any other concerned person, can bring a request for the annulment of the recognition of death to the court who issued it. When the person declared dead results alive, he is entitled to reclaim his property and all his rights which he enjoys before the recognition of death, which the exception of marriage which he reacquires it again only if the husband/ wife has not signed a new marriage.

CONCLUSIONS

Death in both cases is a legal fact, which brings the acquisition of rights and obligations for a certain group of people (who may be heirs or other persons who have been in legal relationship with the deceased). Among them, it can be mentioned: the opening of inheritance (heirs acquire not only rights but also obligations), termination of marriage, the right to exercise the guardianship, the succession of procedural right.

Civil death and natural death have same consequences but this does not mean that they are equal institutes. The first is based on the presumption of death therefore in a precarious situation which can be recovered in the future, the second is based the end of all physiological functions of the person, therefore, the situation is sure. Except of the element of stability the two institutes differ in procedural terms.

As an uncertain situation civil death should be declared by the decision of a public body, which according to our legislation is the court. The court decision gives the possibility to open the inheritance, to change the data components of civil registry and for those legal relationship which can be passed by death, it gives the possibility to the persons who have participated in them to require their implementation by the heirs. So the decision of the court is that it equates the consequences of natural and civil death.

However, the uncertain situation continues. This because the person declared dead can reappear. Of course, in such a possibility the legislation provides the restitution of his rights. This opportunity is given to the person that is declared dead as it guarantees the restitution of rights, but on the other hand it makes uncertain the rights acquired by the heirs, given that the latest lose this quality if the person reappears.

Like all other rights end with the termination of legal capacity of the person, even marriage as a closely personal institute terminates with the civil or natural death of the person. In the case of civil death, as a consequence of uncertainty of this situation, the legislation provides the restitution of marriage in case of reappearance of the person when the surviving spouse has not signed a new marriage.

Considering the time limits with which is linked the declaration of death, the absence of the spouse for such a long time can cause the loss of affinity between spouses, thus making marriage to lose its purpose. The Albanian legislation does not provide for any clause of a prior approval from spouses to continue the marriage, so it shall be considered as uninterrupted. Maybe the consent would be favorable for spouses. Such a provision is made by the Russian legislation which requires an application for restoration of the marriage by the spouses (Art. 26 C. C. of Russian Federation).

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Research on Chosen Macroeconomic Indicators of Romania

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the long-run and short-run relationships between economic growth, exports, imports, exchange rate, and interest rate in the case of Romania using the bounds F testing approach developed within autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) framework by the quarterly time series data for the period 2000q1-2013q4. A time dummy variable was specified to measure the effect of Romania's participation to European Union. Unit root tests were performed to examine variables' level of integration. Relatively new ARDL bounds F testing cointegration method employed has good small sample properties and provides more robust and reliable results. Long-run, short-run and the stronger form of the Granger causalities from the each of the four explanatory variables namely exports, imports, exchange rates and interest rates to gross domestic product were investigated by using Granger non-causality tests. CUSUM and CUSUMSQ stability tests were also implemented. The empirical results of this paper are enlightening with regard to trade policies for the policy makers of Romania.

Keywords: ARDL bounds testing approach, Error correction model, GDP, Granger causality, Romania

Introduction

Disagreements proceed in the empirical literature concerning the causal direction of the effects of trade openness on economic growth. Some researchers claim that causality flows from exports to economic growth and indicates this as the export-led growth (ELG) hypothesis (Awokuse, 2007; Edwards, 1998). Export expansion is viewed as an important determinant of economic growth because of the positive externalities it provides. Moreover, exports can supply foreign exchange allowing for more imports of intermediate goods which in turn increases capital formation and thus encourage output growth. There are also several studies found that it is possible to have growth-led exports (GLE). In the GLE case, export expansion is stimulated by productivity gains caused by increases in domestic levels of skilled-labor and technology (Awokuse, 2007). There may be no causal relationship between exports and economic growth when the time paths of the two series are determined by some other unrelated variables such as investment in the economic system (Guru Gharana, 2012).

Some other empirical studies claim that another alternative is import-led growth (ILG) which suggests economic development is contributed primarily by growth in imports. Imports can be a component for long-run economic growth by providing access to needed intermediate factors and foreign technology to domestic firms (Coe & Helpman, 1995; Lawrence & Weinstein, 1999).

The growth theory superimposes remarkable importance to the effect of exports expansion on economic development. Economic development is promoted by exports which improves the efficiency of the allocation of productive resources and increases the volume of productive resources that cause capital accumulation growth (Hatemi & Irandoust, 2002; Dritsakis, 2004)

Dumitriu, Stefanescu and Nistor (2010) explored the dynamic relation between the exports and the gross domestic product for Romania by employing the Johansen cointegration procedure and the Granger causality test. They found no cointegration between GDP and exports in Romania.

Pop Silaghi (2009) investigated export-led growth and growth-led exports hypotheses by using finite-order vector autoregressive (VAR) models in levels, in first-differences and error correction models for the countries Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia. She found that export-led growth hypothesis is valid for the Czech Republic and Lithuania, and growth-led exports hypothesis is valid in Hungary, Romania and Slovenia, according to trivariate systems (GDP, exports and imports).

Dritsakis (2004) in his study analyzed the relationship between exports, investments and economic development in two countries, Bulgaria and Romania. It is found that there is a 'strong Granger causal' relation between economic growth and exports as well as between investments and exports by using a multivariate autoregressive VAR model for the two countries.

Ramos (2001) researched the Granger-causality between exports, imports, and economic growth in Portugal and showed that there is no causality between the variables considered in Portugal.

Ahmed, Butt and Alam (2000) rejected the ELG hypothesis for seven of eight countries they studied using trivariate causality framework. They found support for export-led growth hypothesis only in only one (Bangladesh) of eight countries.

Awokuse (2008) examined the relationship between trade and economic growth in Argentina, Colombia, and Peru for both the role of exports and imports by using cointegrated vector autoregression (VAR) model and Granger causality tests. He found empirical evidence supporting for both export-led and import-led growth hypotheses where the latter is relatively stronger.

Tan et al. (2007) investigated the dynamic relationships between economic growth and macroeconomic variables, namely financial deepening, exports and investment by employing vector error correction model for the cases of Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan and Thailand. Their findings demonstrated that export-led growth hypothesis is valid for all four Asian economies.

Mahadevan and Suardi (2008) showed that Japan's GDP growth is import-led while Hong Kong's GDP growth is both export and import led by using the cointegration test of Johansen and Juselius (1990).

Hye and Boubaker (2011) investigated the export-led growth, import-led growth and foreign debt sustainability hypotheses in the case of Tunisia by using autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) approach and determined unidirectional causality from exports to economic growth and bidirectional relationship between imports and economic growth. Their findings validate both export-led growth and import-led growth for Tunisia.

Sato and Fukushige (2011) explored causal relationships by constructing a vector autoregression model of economic growth, exports, and imports for North Korea by splitting the sample into two parts and found evidence of import-led growth for the first subperiod, but not for the second subperiod. They showed export-led growth is not valid for North Korea.

Awokuse (2007) used a growth modeling framework and multivariate cointegrated VAR methods to investigate the contribution of both exports and imports to economic growth in Bulgaria, Czech Republic, and Poland. He determined that empirical evidence exists for both ELG and GLE hypotheses for Bulgaria, for both ELG and ILG hypotheses for the Czech Republic, for only the ILG hypothesis in the case of Poland.

Uğur (2008) analyzed the relationship between imports and economic growth in Turkey by decomposing imports into categories. Results of multivariate VAR analysis conducted show bidirectional relationship between GDP and investment goods import and raw materials import, and a unidirectional relationship between GDP and consumption goods import and other goods import.

Mishra, Sharma and Smyth (2010) investigated the export-led growth and import-led growth hypotheses for the countries Fiji, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Tonga and Vanuatu by using a panel unit root, panel co-integration and panel Granger causality approach. They found there are bi-directional Granger causality between exports and economic growth, imports and economic growth, and exports and imports.

As briefly summarized, results of the empirical studies have inconsistent findings that could be due to discrepancy among the sample periods and the different econometric methodologies applied such as single equation ordinary least squares model, vector autoregression (VAR) model, cointegration methods and Granger causality frameworks. These methods have some limitations. While ordinary least squares is not adequate, the other three methods require research time series variables to be the same order of integration in a research studying cointegration and/or causality relationships (Keong, Yusop & Sen, 2005). Empirical studies using latter three methods have the assumption that all variables in the model are integrated of the same order. The found cointegration or causality results by using these methods may have spurious relationships and conclusions may be unreliable when included variables are not integrated of the same order (Guru Gharana, 2012). Autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing method is appropriate regardless of research variables are I(0), I(1) or mixture of both.

In this empirical study, in addition to using variables gross domestic product, imports and exports that are employed in many empirical studies, the variables exchange rates and interest rates are also included in the analysis. Instead of studying bivariate relationships, multivariate relationship by using four explanatory variables where gross domestic product is the

dependent variable is used because it is known that multivariate relationships in general may be quite different than bivariate situation (Love & Chandra, 2005; Guru Gharana, 2012). Thus, in case of Romania, export-led growth and import-led growth hypotheses are revisited.

Recently developed and robust autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing method proposed by Pesaran and Shin (1995 and 1998), and Pesaran et al. (2001) is employed to study the long and the short run relationships among these five time series variables. This method has good small sample properties and ensures more robust and asymptotically reliable results under different situations concerning the cointegration relationships among the variables. (Guru Gharana, 2012).

Method

Framework

Hypothesized functional relationship for this empirical research is given below between five macroeconomic variables plus one time dummy for Romania as

$$GDP_t = e^{\beta_0 + \eta DUM} EXP_t^{\beta_1} IMP_t^{\beta_2} EXR_t^{\beta_3} INR_t^{\beta_4} e^{v_t} \quad (1)$$

and by taking natural logarithm on both sides, it is obtained the usual log-linear equation for estimation as

$$LNGDP_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \beta_1 LNEXP_t + \beta_2 LNIMP_t + \beta_3 LNEXR_t + \beta_4 LNINR_t + v_t \quad (2)$$

Recently developed more robust autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing method (summarized under procedure section) is developed and multivariate framework by including LNGDP, LNEXP, LNIMP, LNEXR and LNINR variables is applied in this study. Time series variables are defined in the next section.

Data and Approach

Raw data used in the analysis are obtained from the Eurostat's web page (www.eurostat.com) and defined in Table 1 below. Research variables are the real gross domestic product (GDP), real exports, real imports, exchange rates and interest rates. GDP is gross domestic product at market prices. Exports (EXP) and imports (IMP) variables show exports of goods and services and imports of goods and services. These three variables are measured in millions of national currency (Leu) and they are not seasonally adjusted. Exchange rates (EXR) which are average exchange rates against the Euro and interest rates (INR) showing average day to day money market interest rates are obtained as monthly data and converted to quarterly data (using mean values) by the authors. Unit of the exchange rates is Lei/Euro.

GDP, exports and imports series were deflated by the price indices (2005=100) prepared for gross domestic products at market prices, exports of goods and services and imports of goods and services, respectively and transformed into their natural logarithm form.

Eurostat table codes for the data extracted are namq_gdp_c (for GDP, EXP and IMP), ei_mfrt_m (for EXR) and ei_mfir_m (for INR) for the defined time series and namq_gdp_p for the corresponding price indices.

All of the time series used in the analysis are quarterly data between the first quarter of 2000 and the fourth quarter of 2013 (2000Q1-2013Q4) that covers the date of European Union membership of Romania (01.01.2007). Dummy variable named DUM in the equation (2) is inserted to the model to measure the impact of European Union membership of Romania and coded as 0 and 1 showing nonmembership and membership situation (0 for the term 2000Q1-2006Q4 and 1 for the term 2007Q1-2013Q4).

Results of the analysis in this study are obtained from the Eviews software version 7.1.

Table 1. Short Names of the Research Variables, Their Definitions and Units

Name	Definition	Unit	Term	Name	Definition	Unit	Term
LNGDP	Log of real gross domestic products	Log of million Lei	2000Q1-2013Q4	LNEXR	Log of exchange rates	Log(Lei/Euro)	2000Q1-2013Q4

LNEXP	Log of real exports	Log of million Lei	2000Q1-2013Q4	LNINR	Log of interest rates	Log of rates	2000Q1-2013Q4
LNIMP	Log of real imports	Log of million Lei	2000Q1-2013Q4	DUM	Time dummy variable	0 / 1	2000Q1-2013Q4

Procedure

In this section, autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing method (Pesaran and Shin, 1995 and 1998; Pesaran et al., 2001) which is adopted to determine the cointegration relationship is briefly summarized.

Methods based on ordinary least squares (OLS) techniques including ARDL and Johansen-Juselius maximum likelihood techniques to study long-run relationships and error correction models to explore Granger causality, suffer from unsuitability for small samples, pre-testing biases, the low power of unit root tests and the need for the rank conditions for valid results. These methods also need variables' to be integrated of the same order whereas in many studies same order integration is not obvious (Guru Gharana, 2012).

After the convenient study that Pesaran et al. (2001) offered, ARDL bounds F testing method has become popular for studying both long-run and short-run relationships and for examining Granger causality. The method modifies the ARDL framework. Endogeneity problem is solved and the long run and the short run parameters of the model are estimated simultaneously by using ARDL bounds F testing method. Small sample properties of this method are superior to multivariate cointegration (Narayan, 2005; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). One other flexibility of the ARDL bounds F testing is its usability when variables in the analysis may be I(0), I(1) or combination of both but not more than I(1) (Pesaran et al., 2001). The ARDL bounds testing method allows the variables' having different optimal lags, while it is impossible with conventional cointegration procedures. Unit root tests such as Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) or Phillips-Perron (PP) are performed to determine the order of integration of the series (Dickey & Fuller, 1981; Phillips & Perron, 1988).

In order to perform ARDL bounds F (or Wald) test for examining evidence for long run relationship, a system of unrestricted (or conditional) error correction model (UECM) is estimated (Pesaran et al., 2001). System contains an equation for each variable (as dependent) such as the equation written below for LNGDP when it is thought as dependent:

$$\Delta LNGDP_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \theta_0 LNGDP_{t-1} + \theta_1 LNEXP_{t-1} + \theta_2 LNIMP_{t-1} + \theta_3 LNEXR_{t-1} + \theta_4 LNINR_{t-1}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{p} \beta_i \Delta LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \gamma_i \Delta LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \delta_i \Delta LNIMP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + v_t$$

$$(3)$$

where vt is white noise error term independently and identically distributed (iid) with zero mean, homoscedasticity and no autocorrelation and Δ is the first difference operator. θi's are the long run multipliers, the coefficients of the first differences of the lagged variables are short term dynamic coefficients and β_0 is the intercept. This model is estimated by using ordinary least squares (OLS) method. (p+1)(q1+1)(q2+1)(q3+1)(q4+1) number of regressions are estimated to acquire the optimal lag-lengths in the equation and the choice between different lag lengths is made by using information criteria such as Akaike (AIC) or Schwarz (SC). Schwarz information criterion (SC) preferred to AIC because it tends to define more parsimonious specifications (Pesaran & Shin, 1995; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012).

Alternatively, unrestricted error correction model (UECM) can be derived from underlying VAR(p) model, instead of specifying an ARDL model (Pesaran et al., 2001; Fosu & Magnus, 2006; Keong et al., 2005). Then number of regressions to specify the unrestricted error correction model becomes (p+1)(k+1) where (k+1) is the number of all variables and p is the desired maximum lag length. Unrestricted error correction model (UECM) derived from underlying VAR(p) can be represented as below (equation 4 is written for each variable again). The difference between equation (3) and (4) is that lag lengths of the first differenced right side variables are the same in equation (4) whereas they may be different in equation (3).

$$\Delta LNGDP_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \theta_0 LNGDP_{t-1} + \theta_1 LNEXP_{t-1} + \theta_2 LNIMP_{t-1} + \theta_3 LNEXR_{t-1} + \theta_4 LNINR_{t-1}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{p} \beta_i \Delta LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{p} \gamma_i \Delta LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{p} \delta_i \Delta LNIMP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{p} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=0}^{p} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + v_t$$

$$(4)$$

ARDL bounds F test statistic is employed to determine whether a long run relationship exists between the variables by imposing equality to zero restriction on all coefficients of lagged level variables. The long run relationship test is equivalent to the cointegration test. Null hypothesis of no cointegration against the alternative hypothesis of existence of cointegration becomes (Keong et al., 2005; Guru Gharana, 2012)

$$H_0 : \theta_0 = \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = \theta_4 = 0$$

$$H_1 : \theta_0 \neq 0; \quad \theta_1 \neq 0; \quad \theta_2 \neq 0; \quad \theta_3 \neq 0; \quad \theta_4 \neq 0; \quad \theta_5 \neq 0$$

$$(5)$$

The asymptotic distribution for the ARDL bounds F test statistic is non-standard under the null hypothesis that there exists no level relationship, irrespective of whether the regressors are I(0) or I(1). Exact critical values for the ARDL bounds F test are not available for several mix of I(0) and I(1) variables but Pesaran et al. (2001) calculated the bounds on the critical values for the asymptotic distribution of the F statistic under different situations by changing the number of explanatory variables (k) in the model and sample size, for different model specifications (like no constant + no trend, restricted constant + no trend etc.) and for each conventional levels of significance 1%, 5% and 10%. In each case, the lower bound is based on the assumption that all of the variables are I(0), and the upper bound is based on the assumption that all of the variables are I(1).

It is concluded that the variables are I(0), when the computed bounds F test statistic falls below the lower bound, so no cointegration is possible by definition. When the bounds F test statistic exceeds the upper bound, it is concluded that there is cointegration. The test is inconclusive when the bounds F test statistic lies between the bounds. Critical table values (bounds) are calculated for small samples (between 30 and 80) by Narayan (2005). Critical bounds are used from Narayan (2005) and from Pesaran et al. (2001) with respect to sample size; the former is for sample size at most 80 and the latter one for more than 80.

The next step is estimating the conditional ARDL (p, q1, q2, q3, q4) long-run model when cointegration is determined. Pesaran and Shin (1998) demonstrated that the Schwarz criterion is superior over Akaike in the context of ARDL model (Guru Gharana, 2012). The long-run levels model showing the long-run equilibrating relationship and short-run error correction model to measure short-run dynamic effects can be identified by using the ARDL restricted error correction model (RECM) when cointegration is found so that the long-run and the short-run elasticity coefficients are determined.

The long-run relationship model is

$$LNGDP_t = \alpha_0 + \lambda DUM_t + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{gdp,i} LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \alpha_{exp,i} LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \alpha_{imp,i} LNIMP_{t-i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \alpha_{exr,i} LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \alpha_{inr,i} LNINR_{t-i} + v_t$$

$$(6)$$

where all variables are previously defined, α0 is the constant term and vt is the white noise error term. The short-run relationship model (RECM) is

$$\Delta LNGDP_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \omega E\hat{C}T_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \beta_i \Delta LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \gamma_i \Delta LNEXP_{t-i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \delta_i \Delta LNIMP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + e_t$$

$$(7)$$

where ω is the coefficient of the error (or equilibrium) correction term ECT. It shows variables' speed to converge to equilibrium and it is expected that ω has a significant negative value. Equation (7) can also be used for testing short-run and long-run Granger causality.

The variable ECTt-1 (error or equilibrium correction term) in the equation (7) is one lagged values of the estimated ordinary least squares (OLS) residuals (vt) of the long-run model given in equation (6). Long-run coefficients can also be calculated by using estimated θI coefficients of the unrestricted error correction model (UECM, equation 3 or 4). The long-run estimated relationship for any Xi is obtained by $-(\theta I / \theta 0)$. For example in equation (3 and 4), the long-run export and import elasticities are $-\theta 1/\theta 0$ and $-\theta 2/\theta 0$, respectively. The short-run effects are captured by the coefficients of the first-differenced variables in (3 and 4) (Keong et al., 2005). Both functional form misspecification and assumptions about the residuals in the restricted error correction model (equation 7) such as no serial correlation, normality and homoscedasticity should be checked by performing diagnostic tests.

A joint hypothesis testing for the coefficients of lagged differences of variables can be used for short-run Granger causality test for each regressor in the equation (7). The significance of the coefficient of the error correction term (ECTt-1) can be used for testing long-run Granger causality. A combined hypothesis test for the coefficients of lagged differences of variables and coefficient of the error correction term (ECTt-1) can be used for strong form of Granger causality test (Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012; Guru Gharana, 2012). Stability of the model can be tested through recursive regression residuals using the Brown et al. (1975) method, also known as the cumulative sum (CUSUM) and cumulative sum of squares (CUSUMSQ) tests. The coefficients of the model are stable when the plots of calculated statistics lie between the critical bounds of 5% significance (Guru Gharana, 2012).

Toda and Yamamoto (1995) proposed another causality (named non-causality) testing approach. Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test corresponds to the vector autoregressive (VAR) model (Toda & Yamamoto, 1995):

$$
LNGDP_t = \alpha_0 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{1i} LNGDP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \alpha_{2i} LNGDP_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_{1i} LNEXP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \beta_{2i} LNEXP_{t-i} \right)
$$

$$
+ \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_{1i} LNIMP_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \gamma_{2i} LNIMP_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_{1i} LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \delta_{2i} LNEXR_{t-i} \right)
$$

$$
+ \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \varphi_{1i} LNINR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \varphi_{2i} LNINR_{t-i} \right) + \varepsilon_t
\tag{8}
$$

Equation (8) is written for each of the five variables as a system first to determine optimum VAR lag-length k by using information criteria such as Akaike or Schwarz. The greatest order of integration, which is obtained from the unit root tests, of all five variables is defined as dmax and then above (equation 8) VAR system is estimated. Null hypothesis of no Granger causality against the alternative hypothesis of existence of Granger causality is defined for each equation (left side variable) in the VAR system. Hence the Granger causality for instance from LNEXP to LNGDP (LNEXP→LNGDP) implies $\beta 1i \neq 0$ ($\forall$ i) in the first equation written for LNGDP (equation 8).

Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test can be performed irrespective of whether the variables are I(0), I(1) or I(2), cointegrated or not cointegrated, but inverse roots of autoregressive (AR) characteristic polynomial should be inside of the unit circle to estimate robust causality result.

Results

While in the stationary time series shocks are temporary and series revert to their long run mean values in a short term, nonstationary series have a long memory and shocks affect them in a permanent way. Spurious regressions occur when time series are analyzed as stationary although one or more are nonstationary. In this study, Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) unit root tests are performed. ADF and PP unit root (that means nonstationarity) test results for the logs of the real gross domestic product (LNGDP), real exports (LNEXP), real imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) during the period 2000Q1-2013Q4 in Romania are given in Table 2.

Results of the PP unit root test denote that all of the time series are stationary at most in their first differences. The LNGDP series appears to be trend stationary (and stationary with a drift) while log of exchange rates (LNEXR) and log of imports (LNIMP) series seem to be stationary with a drift and log of interest rates (LNINR) seem to be stationary without a drift and

trend in both levels and first difference. Results of the both ADF and PP unit root tests clearly indicate that log of exports (LNEXP) series is nonstationary when the variable is defined at levels with or without constant and trend.

It is concluded that the maximum order of integration of the series is I(1). All series in the analysis should be integrated of the same order for using the conventional cointegration analysis such as Engle and Granger or Johansen methods. This provides a good rationale for using the bounds test approach. Usability of the ARDL bounds F testing (cointegration analysis) method with a mixture of I(0) and I(1) data is the one of the superiorities of this method.

Table 2. Results of the Unit Root Tests

Variable	Test Statistic	Log Levels				First Difference			
		ADF	Lag	PP	Lag	ADF	Lag	PP	Lag
LNGDP	τ	1.8371	(5)	2.2818	(11)	-2.0510**	(4)	-15.9840***	(11)
	τ_μ	-1.8702	(5)	-5.0624***	(16)	-2.8147*	(4)	-20.3196***	(11)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-1.3141	(5)	-6.4817***	(25)	-3.1703	(4)	-20.4638***	(11)
LNEXP	τ	2.4256	(4)	4.2520	(16)	-2.3951**	(3)	-8.3444***	(10)
	τ_μ	-0.9942	(4)	-2.0898	(16)	-3.5287**	(3)	-12.2584***	(21)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-2.4400	(4)	-3.9643	(9)	-3.4796*	(3)	-15.0300***	(18)
LNIMP	τ	1.0053	(4)	2.2071	(19)	-2.3852**	(4)	-8.4032***	(20)
	τ_μ	-1.4209	(4)	-2.6572*	(19)	-2.8266*	(4)	-9.7659***	(27)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-1.7048	(4)	-2.5437	(14)	-3.0959	(4)	-14.3959***	(19)
LNEXR	τ	1	(1)	1.3172	(5)	-4.4269***	(0)	-4.3650***	(3)
	τ_μ	-3.7459***	(1)	-3.8443***	(3)	-4.8451***	(0)	-4.8439***	(3)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-3.3283*	(1)	-2.8906	(3)	-5.3471***	(0)	-5.3809***	(3)
LNINR	τ	-2.0012**	(0)	-2.0152**	(1)	-7.1682***	(0)	-7.1899***	(3)
	τ_μ	-1.0767	(0)	-1.0694	(1)	-7.4284***	(0)	-7.4286***	(2)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-2.6033	(0)	-2.8393	(2)	-7.3499***	(0)	-7.3510***	(2)

Notes: $\tau_{\mu+T}$ represents the most general model with a drift and trend; τ_μ is the model with a drift and without trend; τ is the most restricted model without a drift and trend. (2) Numbers in brackets are lag lengths used in the ADF test (as determined by AIC) to remove serial correlation in the residuals. When using the PP test, numbers in brackets represent Newey–West bandwith (as determined by Bartlett–Kernel). (3) Superscripts ***, ** and * denote rejection of the null hypothesis at the 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively. (4) Unit root test results are obtained from E-VIEWS 7.1.

The optimal lag lengths for the first-differenced variables are determined using Schwarz information criterion (SC) allowing maximum lag length of 6 and then equation (3) denoting the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) is derived from

underlying ARDL model. Instead of estimating 75=16807 equations, a hierarchical approach is used to evaluate the optimum lag lengths for the first differenced variables in the UECM following the method proposed by Kamas and Joyce (1993) (Yüce Akıncı & Akıncı, 2014).

Table 3. Results of the AIC and SC for the Unrestricted Error Correction Model (UECM)

Lag Length	ΔLNGDP		ΔLNEXP		ΔLNIMP		ΔLNEXR		ΔLNINR	
	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC
0	NA	NA	-5.1043	-4.6072	-5.3033	-4.7679	-5.2919	-4.7183	-5.3481	-4.7363
1	-2.2548	-1.9602	-5.0647	-4.5294	-5.2679	-4.6943	-5.2660	-4.6541	-5.3966	-4.7465
2	-2.2557	-1.9212	-5.1653	-4.5917	-5.2279	-4.6160	-5.3526	-4.7025	-5.3618	-4.6734
3	-4.3629	-3.9877	-5.1519	-4.5401	-5.2106	-4.5605	-5.4002	-4.7119	-5.4357	-4.7091
4	-4.9684	-4.5517	-5.1120	-4.4619	-5.1768	-4.4885	-5.3856	-4.6590	-5.3970	-4.6322
5	-5.0291	-4.5702	-5.0885	-4.4001	-5.1485	-4.4219	-5.3794	-4.6146	-5.3997	-4.5967
6	-4.9772	-4.4752	-5.0562	-4.3226	-5.1505	-4.3783	-5.3924	-4.5816	-5.4546	-4.6052

Lag length p for the ΔLNGDP variable in equation (3) is determined firstly by using minimum SC value. After the lag length p is determined, ΔLNGDPt-p is fixed and the same process is run for the first differenced explanatory variables ΔLNEXP, ΔLNIMP, ΔLNEXR and ΔLNINR respectively. The results of the Schwarz information criterion (and Akaike's information criterion, AIC) are shown in Table 3. Estimated coefficients of the UECM (equation 3) are shown in Table 4, where optimum lag lengths are chosen as p=5, q1=0, q2=0, q3=0 and q4=1.

Table 4. Unrestricted Error Correction Model (UECM)

Regressor	Coefficient	t statistics	p value
Intercept	3.2616	3.6463	0.0009
DUM	-0.0340	-2.5794	0.0145
LNGDPt-1	-0.5785	-5.2395	0.0000
LNEXPt-1	0.1007	1.7612	0.0875
LNIMPt-1	0.2168	4.0459	0.0003
LNEXRt-1	-0.0736	-1.9729	0.0569
LNINRt-1	0.0282	2.8090	0.0083
ΔLNGDPt-1	-0.0718	-0.5852	0.5624
ΔLNGDPt-2	-0.2909	-3.5611	0.0011
ΔLNGDPt-3	-0.4667	-5.5922	0.0000
ΔLNGDPt-4	0.3718	3.5338	0.0012
ΔLNGDPt-5	-0.1175	-0.9889	0.3299
ΔLNEXPt	0.0887	1.6304	0.1125
ΔLNIMPt	0.1160	2.9276	0.0061
ΔLNEXRt	-0.1157	-1.5334	0.1347

ΔLNINRt	0.0178	1.9077	0.0652
ΔLNINRt-1	-0.0158	-1.7469	0.0900

Using lag orders of p=5, q1=0, q2=0, q3=0 and q4=1 for the first differenced variables and the results of the estimated unrestricted (unconstrained) error correction model (UECM), Wald (F) test is performed for the hypothesis given in the equation (5) for the sample period of 2000q1-2013q4. The results of the bounds F test are summarized in the Table 5.

Table 5. Results of the Bounds F Cointegration Test

F statistic	Sample sizes of critical table values	α = 0.01		α = 0.05		α = 0.10	
		I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)
6.9890	n = 55	4.244	5.726	3.068	4.334	2.578	3.710
(n = 56, k = 4)	n = 60	4.176	5.676	3.062	4.314	2.568	3.712

Notes: Critical values I(0) and I(1) are obtained from Narayan (2005), "Critical values for the bounds test: caseIII: unrestricted intercept and no trend", p.1988; k=4. F statistic is significant at the 5% significance level.

The result of the bounds test confirms the presence of a long run relationship when the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) is dependent variable of the model for the period 2000Q1-2013Q4 in Romania. Calculated F statistic is 6.9890. Upper bound critical values are I(1)=5.726 (n=55) and I(1)=5.676 (n=60) for k+1=5 variables (k=4) and 1% significance level. Null hypothesis of no cointegration is rejected at the 1% significance level because F test statistic is greater than the critical upper bounds value I(1). It is concluded from the ARDL bounds F testing methodology that there is strong evidence of long-run equilibrating relationship between LNGDP as the dependent variable and LNEXP, LNIMP, LNEXR and LNINR as the regressors for the period of 2000q1-2013q4 in Romania.

It is confirmed that there exists a long run relationship between the logs of gross domestic product (LNGDP), exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) but it is important the unrestricted error correction model (UECM)'s being met the necessary assumptions which are checked by the diagnostic tests. Results are reported in the Table 6.

Table 6. Diagnostic Tests for the Unrestricted (unconstrained) Error Correction Model (UECM)

Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p value	Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p value
No Serial Correlation	$\chi_1^2 = 0.5981$	1	0.4393	Homoscedasticity	$\chi_{16}^2 = 6.2449$	16	0.9852
No Serial Correlation	$\chi_4^2 = 5.3920$	4	0.2494				
Normality	$\chi_2^2 = 1.0196$	2	0.6006	No ARCH effect	$\chi_1^2 = 0.5018$	1	0.4787

Lagrange multiplier test of residual serial correlation is performed to check if residuals have serial correlation for the lag lengths 1 and 4; Jarque-Bera normality test based on the skewness and kurtosis measures of the residuals is used to control if the distribution of the residuals is normal; Breusch-Godfrey heteroscedasticity test based on the regression of squared residuals on the original regressors of the model is performed to test the null hypothesis of homoscedasticity and the null hypothesis of no ARCH effects in the residuals is tested by regressing the squared residuals on the one period lagged squared residuals and a constant term. Obtained hypothesis testing results do not reject the null hypotheses. It is concluded that the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) satisfies the given assumptions.

After determining the long-run cointegration relationship, the short-run and the long-run elasticity coefficients are estimated by using the ARDL procedure. For both of the long-run and the short-run ARDL models (equations 6 and 7), equations are estimated and Schwarz information criterion is used to determine the optimum lag lengths following again the method

proposed by Kamas and Joyce (1993) (Yüce Akıncı & Akıncı, 2014). Estimated long-run levels model is shown in the Table7. Lagged values of the estimated residuals of the long-run levels model are used as error (equilibrium) correction term (ECT) in the short-run model.

Table 7. Estimated Long-run Coefficients

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	t statistic	p value
Intercept	2.4430	0.7003	3.4883	0.0012
DUM	-0.0238	0.0116	-2.0446	0.0475
LNEXP	0.0924	0.0451	2.0476	0.0472
LNIMP	0.1388	0.0341	4.0749	0.0002
LNEXR	-0.0526	0.0320	-1.6436	0.1081
LNINR	0.0146	0.0072	2.0215	0.0500
LNGDPt-1	0.4462	0.0817	5.4611	0.0000
LNGDPt-2	-0.0978	0.0278	-3.5149	0.0011
LNGDPt-3	-0.1394	0.0280	-4.9877	0.0000
LNGDPt-4	0.8848	0.0310	28.5477	0.0000
LNGDPt-5	-0.5197	0.0815	-6.3799	0.0000

Note: Dependent Variable is LNGDP, the chosen model is ARDL(5, 0, 0, 0, 0)

In the long run, elasticity coefficient of log of the imports (LNIMP) is 0.14% and it is significant at the 1% level. Elasticity coefficients of the logs of exports (LNEXP) and interest rates (LNINR) are estimated as 0.09% and 0.01% respectively and they are significant at the 5% level. Estimated long-run elasticity of the log of the exchange rates (LNEXR) is -0.05% and the p-value obtained is 10.8%. The long-run estimates show that exports, imports and interest rates are positively correlated but exchange rates are negatively correlated to economic growth. The negative relationship between the exchange rate and GDP shows that the depreciation of the exchange rate will slow down economic growth in Romania. Dummy variable (DUM) with the estimated coefficient of -0.02 is found statistically significant at the 5% level. It is concluded that after the European Union membership, the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) of Romania is 0.02 points on average less than before the membership. Also, it is found but not reported here that when DUM is not in the model, coefficients of the model are not stable. The lagged values of the dependent variable (LNGDP) from 1 to 5 are found significant at the 1% level as shown in Table 7.

The results of the long-run equation are used to calculate the error correction term (ECT) which is used in the estimation of equation (7) for the short-run dynamics. Schwarz criterion values that are used to establish the optimal lag orders for the equation (7) with the lagged error correction term (ECTt-1) are reported in Table 8.

Table 8. Values of the AIC and SC for the Restricted Error Correction Model (RECM)

Lag Length	ΔLNGDP		ΔLNEXP		ΔLNIMP		ΔLNEXR		ΔLNINR	
	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC
0	NA	NA	-5.2019	-4.8577	-5.3234	-4.9410	-5.3031	-4.8824	-5.3918	-4.9329
1	-0.0667	0.0863	-5.1642	-4.7818	-5.2881	-4.8675	-5.2749	-4.8161	-5.3859	-4.8888
2	-1.2484	-1.0572	-5.2367	-4.8161	-5.2645	-4.8056	-5.2868	-4.7897	-5.3771	-4.8418
3	-3.6175	-3.3880	-5.2273	-4.7684	-5.2769	-4.7798	-5.2542	-4.7188	-5.3913	-4.8177

4	-4.6018	-4.3341	-5.1873	-4.6902	-5.2369	-4.7015	-5.3255	-4.7519	-5.3647	-4.7528
5	-5.0707	-4.7648	-5.1602	-4.6248	-5.1972	-4.6236	-5.2879	-4.6760	-5.5219	-4.8718
6	-5.0233	-4.6758	-5.1056	-4.5264	-5.1939	-4.5762	-5.2992	-4.6428	-5.5758	-4.8808

Optimum lag lengths for the restricted error correction model (RECM, equation 7) are determined as p = 5 and q1 = q2 = q3 = q4 = 0 but after performing diagnostic tests, it is found that both null hypotheses of no serial correlation (at lag length 4) and no specification error are rejected at the 5% level ($\chi_4^2 = 11.6403$ p = 0.0202 and $\chi_1^2 = 6.0165$ p = 0.0142 respectively). Lag 6 of the ΔLNGDP is added to the RECM and it is determined that the results of the all diagnostic tests entail using the short-run RECM with the lag lengths p = 6 and q1 = q2 = q3 = q4 = 0. Results of the estimated RECM are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Restricted Error Correction Model (RECM)

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	t statistic	p value
Intercept	0.0045	0.0057	0.7885	0.4355
DUMt	-0.0034	0.0052	-0.6546	0.5169
ECTt-1	-0.9890	0.2329	-4.2463	0.0001
ΔLNGDPt-1	0.4601	0.1594	2.8865	0.0065
ΔLNGDPt-2	-0.1247	0.1077	-1.1582	0.2544
ΔLNGDPt-3	-0.1941	0.0685	-2.8335	0.0075
ΔLNGDPt-4	0.8452	0.0713	11.8551	0.0000
ΔLNGDPt-5	-0.5993	0.1410	-4.2500	0.0001
ΔLNGDPt-6	-0.0172	0.1175	-0.1462	0.8846
ΔLNEXPt	0.0974	0.0495	1.9683	0.0568
ΔLNIMPt	0.1145	0.0383	2.9939	0.0050
ΔLNEXRt	-0.1092	0.0635	-1.7188	0.0942
ΔLNINRt	0.0201	0.0080	2.5046	0.0169

$\overline{R}^2 = 0.9956$ $\hat{\sigma} = 0.0145$ $AIC = -5.4062$ $SC = -4.9043$

Notes: $\overline{R}^2$ is the adjusted squared multiple correlation coefficient, $\hat{\sigma}$ is standard error of the regression, AIC and SC are Akaike's and Schwarz's information criteria. Dependent variable of the model is ΔLNGDP.

Significance of the error (equilibrium) correction term (ECTt-1) clearly shows long-term Granger causality. The sign of the error correction term (ECT) is correct and it measures the speed at which prior deviations from the equilibrium are corrected in the current period. Estimated ECT coefficient is -0.99 (ECTt-1 = -0.9890) and significant at the 1% level, thus indicating that almost 99% of the dis-equilibrium due to the previous term's shocks is adjusted back to the long-run equilibrium in the current term. The speed of adjustment is very high.

All explanatory variables which are logs of exports, imports, exchange rates and interest rates (LNEXP, LNIMP, LNEXR and LNINR) have significant short-run impact on the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) during the term 2000q1-2013q4 in Romania. Estimated short-run elasticities are 0.10% for the log of exports (LNEXP), 0.11% for the log of imports (LNIMP), -0.11% for the log of the exchange rates (LNEXR) and 0.02% for the log of interest rates (LNINR) and they are

significant at the 10%, 1%, 10% and 5% levels respectively. All five lagged changes except the second lag of ΔLNGDP are statistically significant at the 1% level whereas sixth lag of ΔLNGDP is insignificant (but kept in the model to ensure residuals have no serial correlation and the coefficients of the model are stable). Dummy variable (DUM) in the short-run model is found insignificant (p=0.52).

The diagnostic tests are performed for the restricted error correction (short-run) model (RECM) and results are reported in Table 10. The Lagrange multiplier tests are used to test the null hypotheses of no serial correlation in the residuals for lag-one and lag-four periods. p values obtained for the Lagrange multiplier tests are 0.1812 and 0.0403 respectively. There exists no first order serial correlation in the residuals at the conventional significance levels but the p-value of the fourth order serial correlation test is not high (4.03%). This may be evaluated as the weakness of the estimated model (but this model is the best one among the obtained models). Null hypothesis of normality is not rejected by the Jarque-Bera normality test (p-value is 0.6354). The Breusch-Godfrey heteroscedasticity test confirmed that there is no heteroscedasticity in the residuals (p-value is 0.1790). The null hypothesis of no ARCH effects in the residuals is tested by regressing the squared residuals on the one period lagged squared residuals and a constant term. Null of no ARCH effects is not rejected (p-value is 0.2258). Finally, null hypothesis of no mis-specification is not rejected at the 5% level by the calculated Ramsey's RESET test statistic (p-value is 0.0675).

Table 10. Diagnostic Tests for the Restricted Error Correction Model (RECM)

Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value	Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value
No Serial Correlation	$\chi_1^2 = 1.7880$	1	0.1812	Homoscedasticity	$\chi_{12}^2 = 16.2743$	12	0.1790
No Serial Correlation	$\chi_4^2 = 10.0082$	4	0.0403	No ARCH Effect	$\chi_1^2 = 1.4669$	1	0.2258
Normality	$\chi_2^2 = 0.9070$	2	0.6354	No mis-specification	$\chi_1^2 = 3.3424$	1	0.0675

Stability of the parameters is tested by applying the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and of squared recursive residuals (CUSUMSQ). Results are shown in Figure 1. The coefficients of the model are found stable because the plots of CUSUM and CUSUMSQ statistics fell inside the critical bounds of 5% significance level.

Figure 1. Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals and of Squares of Recursive Residuals for the RECM Model.
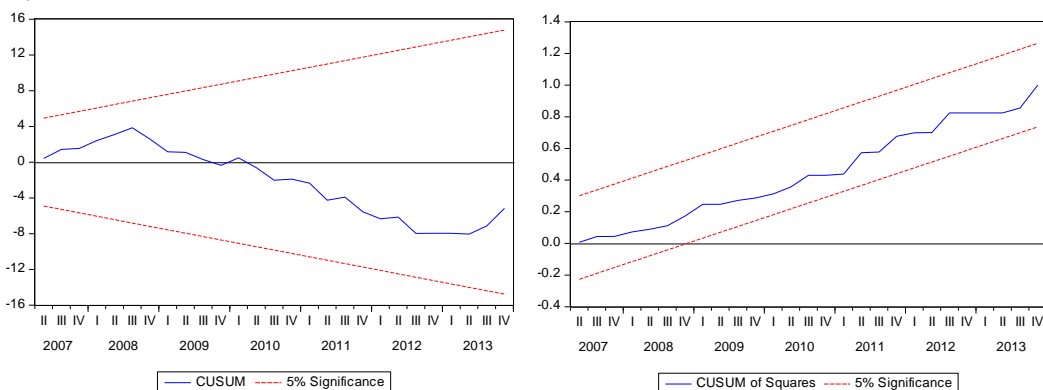
ARDL bounds F testing method is used to determine if there exists a long-run relationship (cointegration) among the logs of gross domestic product (LNGDP), exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rate (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR). ARDL cointegration method does not indicate the direction of causality. The long-run, short-run and the strong

form of the Granger causality test are performed to test the causality hypotheses from each of the explanatory variables to the log of the gross domestic product (LNGDP) by using restricted error correction model (RECM) given in equation (7).

Short-run (weak) Granger causalities for the chosen model where LNGDP is the dependent (or normalized) variable are tested by using the null hypotheses of $H_0 : \gamma_i = 0$ (no ΔLNEXP→ΔLNGDP), $H_0 : \delta_i = 0$ (no ΔLNIMP→ΔLNGDP), $H_0 : \xi_i = 0$ (no ΔLNEXR→ΔLNGDP) and $H_0 : \psi_i = 0$ (no ΔLNINR→ΔLNGDP) which show short-run non-causalities from the logs of exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXC) and interest rates (LNINR) to the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP). Wald test is used to perform hypothesis testing on the coefficient restrictions.

Long-run Granger causality from the explanatory variables to LNGDP is tested by using Wald test (or t test) on coefficient of the error correction term (ECT) in equation (7). The null hypothesis which shows there is no long-run Granger causality from the explanatory variables to LNGDP is $H_0 : \omega = 0$ (no ECT→ΔLNGDP).

Strong form of the Granger causality is tested by using Wald test on joint coefficient restrictions of the restricted error correction model (RECM) in equation (7). The null hypotheses are $H_0 : \omega = \gamma_i = 0$ (no ΔLNEXP+ECT→ΔLNGDP), $H_0 : \omega = \delta_i = 0$ (no ΔLNIMP+ECT→ΔLNGDP), $H_0 : \omega = \xi_i = 0$ (no ΔLNEXR+ECT→ΔLNGDP) and $H_0 : \omega = \psi_i = 0$ (no ΔLNINR+ECT→ΔLNGDP).

Results of the Granger non-causality tests are reported in Table 11.

Table 11. Results of the Short-run, Long-run and the Stronger Form of the Granger Causality Tests

Short-run Granger Causality			Strong form of the Granger Causality		
Null Hypothesis	Wald F Test Statistic	p-value	Null Hypothesis	Wald F Test Statistic	p-value
$H_0 : \gamma_i = 0$ No ΔLNEXP→ΔLNGDP	$F_{1,36} = 3.8742$	0.0568	$H_0 : \omega = \gamma_i = 0$ No ΔLNEXP+ECT→ΔLNGDP	$F_{2,36} = 11.7502$	0.0001
$H_0 : \delta_i = 0$ No ΔLNIMP→ΔLNGDP	$F_{1,36} = 8.9635$	0.0050	$H_0 : \omega = \delta_i = 0$ No ΔLNIMP+ECT→ΔLNGDP	$F_{2,36} = 12.3069$	0.0001
$H_0 : \xi_i = 0$ No ΔLNEXR→ΔLNGDP	$F_{1,36} = 2.9542$	0.0942	$H_0 : \omega = \xi_i = 0$ No ΔLNEXR+ECT→ΔLNGDP	$F_{2,36} = 11.8095$	0.0001
$H_0 : \psi_i = 0$ No ΔLNINR→ΔLNGDP	$F_{1,36} = 6.2731$	0.0169	$H_0 : \omega = \psi_i = 0$ No ΔLNINR+ECT→ΔLNGDP	$F_{2,36} = 12.2748$	0.0001

Long-run Granger Causality

Null Hypothesis	Wald F Test Statistic	p-value
$H_0 : \omega = 0$ No ECT→ΔLNGDP	$F_{1,36} = 18.0309$	0.0001

When the model is normalized on the log of the gross domestic product (so LNGDP is the dependent variable of the model), there exists a strong long-run Granger causality from the logs of exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) to the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) in Romania for the period of 2000q1-2013q4.

The F-tests on the joint deletion of the corresponding coefficients show strong evidences of short-run Granger causalities from the log of exports to the log of GDP, from the log of imports to log of GDP, from the log of exchange rates to log of GDP and from the log of interest rates to the log of GDP at the 10%, 1%, 10% and 5% significance levels respectively. Also, results of the strong Granger causality tests indicate that there are strong causalities from each of the log of the explanatory variables namely exports, imports, exchange rates and interest rates to the log of GDP.

Discussion

In this study, an empirical model is investigated between five time series variables which are logs of gross domestic product (LNGDP), exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) during the term from the first quarter of 2000 to the fourth quarter of 2013 (2000q1-2013q4) in Romania.

Autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) model is specified to identify the relationship between the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) and the other four explanatory variables. ARDL bounds F test procedure is used to determine the cointegration relationship for Romania and a cointegration relationship is detected when log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) is identified as dependent to the other four explanatory macroeconomic variables in the model. After confirming that there exists cointegration relationship, the long run and the short run elasticity coefficients of the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) are explored.

Results of this analysis indicate that there exists a long run cointegration relationship between the logs of gross domestic product (LNGDP), exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) in Romania where the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) is defined as dependent variable in an ARDL framework. Because of cointegration relationship, it is reasonable to estimate a dynamic error correction model for Romania and subsequently estimate the long and the short run elasticity coefficients. Long-run and short-run elasticity coefficients are explored by using ARDL model and the causalities from the explanatory variables to LNGDP are determined.

Results show that logs of exports (LNEXP), imports (LNIMP), exchange rates (LNEXR) and interest rates (LNINR) have a substantial long-run effect on the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) with respective long-run elasticity coefficients of 0.09% (LNEXP), 0.14% (LNIMP), -0.05% (LNEXR, p-value is 10.8%) and 0.01% (LNINR). Under specified model, log of exchange rates (LNEXR) has a long-run effect on the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) at the 10.81% significance level. The long-run estimates show that exports, imports and interest rates are positively correlated but exchange rate is negatively correlated to economic growth. The negative relationship between the exchange rate and GDP shows that the depreciation of the exchange rate will slow down economic growth in Romania. Dummy variable (DUM) with the estimated coefficient of -0.02 is found statistically significant at the 5% level and it is concluded that after the European Union membership, the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) of Romania is 0.02 points on average less than before the membership.

Dynamic short-run effects are estimated and results show that each of the four explanatory variables affect the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) in the short term too. Estimated short-run elasticity coefficients are 0.10% for exports (LNEXP), 0.11% for imports (LNIMP), -0.11% for exchange rates (LNEXR) and 0.02% for interest rates (LNINR) in Romania.

Finally, long-run, short-run and the stronger form of the Granger causalities from each of the four explanatory variables to the log of gross domestic product (LNGDP) are examined by Granger non-causality testing method. Unidirectional short-run Granger causalities are determined from exports to gross domestic product (LNEXP→LNGDP), from imports to GDP

(LNIMP→LNGDP), from exchange rates to GDP (LNEXR→LNGDP) and from interest rates to GDP (LNINR→LNGDP). There also exists the stronger form of the Granger causalities from each of the explanatory variables to GDP.

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Manufacturing Output in Romania: an ARDL Approach

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Abstract

This paper empirically investigates manufacturing output function for Romania by using the quarterly time series data during the period 2000q1-2013q4. Research variables are manufacturing production index, labor cost index, producer energy price index, interest rate, exchange rate and a time dummy variable measuring the effect of Romania's participation to European Union. Long-run and short-run elasticities of variables were examined using the bounds testing cointegration method proposed by Pesaran et al. (2001). Results of the analysis show that Romania has a long run cointegration. The dynamic error correction model for Romania is found and subsequently long-run and short-run elasticity coefficients are explored by using ARDL model. It is detected that logs of energy price index, labor cost index and interest rates have a substantial long-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index with respective long-run elasticity coefficients of -0.51% (LNEPI), 0.57% (LNLCI) and -0.05% (for LNINR). Log of exchange rates does not have a long-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index. Causality test using the Toda and Yamamoto (1995) Granger non-causality procedure was employed in order to examine Granger causalities between variables and unidirectional Granger causalities as (LNLCI→LNMPI) , (LNINR→LNMPI), (LNEXR→LNINR) and (LNEPI→LNMPI) are detected. CUSUM and CUSUMSQ stability tests on hypothesized manufacturing output function were also implemented.

Keywords: ARDL bounds F test, Toda-Yamamoto non-causality, Stability tests, Manufacturing output, Romania

Introduction

Development in industrial production generates the dynamics of growth and economic development. Industrialization is exceptionally substantial for the realization of economic development. In this study, the evidence of long-run cointegration relationship among the logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, exchange rates and interest rates in Romania is investigated by using autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) bounds F testing developed by Pesaran and Shin (1995) and Pesaran et al. (2001). Subsequentially the long-run and short-run elasticity coefficients are estimated. Direction of causality between the research variables are also investigated by using recently getting popularized Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality testing approach (Toda & Yamamoto, 1995). It is found that the cointegration relationship exists in Romania during the period 2000Q1-2013Q4 for the research variables identified below and after the causality assessment, unidirectional relationships are determined.

There are limited number of empirical researches investigating the determinants of production index in the literature. Bodo et al. (2000) tried to find best model to forecast the index of the industrial production in the Euro area by constructing univariate ARIMA to multivariate cointegrated VAR and conditional models. They found that the conditional error correction model in which the aggregate index of industrial production is explained by the US industrial production index and the business confidence index from the European Commission harmonised survey on manufacturing firms achieves the best forecast performance. Zizza (2002) modeled the monthly volume of the industrial production of the euro area based on the US industrial production index to obtain short-term predictions and proposed the model on the single country forecasts of the production indices for the main euro area countries.

Bodo and Signorini (1987) built several models such as simple univariate, OLS that employs data on electric power input, corrected for the effects of temperature and (indirectly) of the manufacturing output mix and a transfer function model based on business surveys. They determined that the best single forecasts are those based on the electric power input. Bodo, Cividini and Signorini (1991) used half monthly electricity consumption data to model the industrial production in Italy. They showed that a model using half monthly electricity data generates acceptable estimates of the monthly production index. Clark, P. K. (1987) decomposed quarterly data on industrial production and deflated gross national product in the US into

independent nonstationary trend and stationary cycle components using Kalman filtering and smoothinq techniques. He detected that at least half of the quarterly innovation in US economic activity can be attributed to the stationary cyclical component. Barışık and Yayar (2012) used economic variables which are such as outward factors as oil price, exchange rate, export and inward factors as public expenditure, consumption expenditure and import to determine their effects on industrial production by using regression analysis. Authors demonstrated causal relationships between industrial production and economic variables and determined the impulse-responses. They showed that economic variables influence the industrial production.

Method

Framework

Hypothesized functional relationship for this empirical research is given below between five macroeconomic variables plus one time dummy for Romania as

$$MPI_t = e^{\beta_0 + \eta DUM} EPI_t^{\beta_1} LCI_t^{\beta_2} EXR_t^{\beta_3} INR_t^{\beta_4} e^{v_t} \qquad (1)$$

and by taking natural logarithm on both sides, it is gotten the usual log-linear equation for estimation as

$$LNMPI_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \beta_1 LNEPI_t + \beta_2 LNLCI_t + \beta_3 LNEXR_t + \beta_4 LNINR_t + v_t \qquad (2)$$

Data and Approach

Data used in the analysis is defined in Table 1 and all raw data are obtained from Eurostat's web page1. Manufacturing production index (MPI) is the volume index (2010=100) of the production in Romania. Energy price index (EPI) is the output price index (2010=100) in national currency calculated by the producer prices in industry. Labor cost index (2008=100) (LCI) is calculated by compensation of employees plus taxes minus subsidies and rearranged by the authors to get new index which shows 2010=100. Exchange rates and interest rates are well known usual variables, they are obtained as monthly data and converted to quarterly data by the authors.

Also, DUM in the equation (2) is the dummy variable to capture the differences if any in the intercept before and after Romania's being the member of European Union at 01.01.2007. Dummy is coded as 0 and 1 to identify before and after European Union membership of Romania, respectively.

The sample size is 56, beginning from the first quarter of 2000 and ending at the fourth quarter of 2013. All variables except the dummy one are transformed into the natural logarithms in order to estimate elasticity coefficients as shown in the equation (2).

All results in this study are obtained from Eviews version 7.1 software.

Table 1. Short Names of the Research Variables, Their Definitions and Units

Name	Definition	Unit	Term	Name	Definition	Unit	Term
LNMPI	Log of manufacturing production index	Log of index (2010=100)	2000Q1-2013Q4	LNEXR	Log of exchange rates	Log(Leu/Euro)	2000Q1-2013Q4
LNEPI	Log of energy price index	Log of index (2010=100)	2000Q1-2013Q4	LNINR	Log of interest rates	Log of rates	2000Q1-2013Q4
LNLCI	Log of labor cost index	Log of index (2010=100)	2000Q1-2013Q4	DUM	Time dummy variable	none	2000Q1-2013Q4

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1 www.eurostat.com

Procedure

Autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) F bounds test is performed to identify if there is a long-run relationship among the logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, labor cost index, exchange rates and interest rates in Romania. ARDL cointegration test is used because this method has some advantages when it is compared to other alternatives such as Engle and Granger (1987), Johansen (1988), and Johansen and Juselius (1990) procedures. First of all it has more power and therefore recommended when sample size is small (Pesaran et al., 2001; Ghatak & Siddiki, 2001; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). One other flexibility of the ARDL bounds F testing is its usability when not all variables have the same order of integration. Variables in the analysis may be I(0), I(1) or combination of both. The only necessary condition for the integration order of the variables is order's being at most 1 (Pesaran et al., 2001; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). The ARDL bounds testing method allows the variables' to have different optimal lags, while it is impossible with conventional cointegration procedures. Finally, the ARDL bounds cointegration test utilizes only a single reduced form equation, while the conventional cointegration procedures estimate the long-run relationships within a context of system equations (Narayan, 2005; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) unit root tests are performed to determine the order of integration of the series (Dickey & Fuller, 1981; Phillips & Perron, 1988). Also, different variables can be assigned different lag-lengths as they enter the model.

Since we have hypothesized log-linear functional form between the research variables given in the equation (2), in order to perform ARDL bounds F (or Wald) test for examining evidence for long run relationship, an ARDL equation called as unrestricted (or unconstrained, conditional) error correction model (UECM) is constructed as below (Pesaran et al., 2001)

$$\Delta LNMPI_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \theta_0 LNMPI_{t-1} + \theta_1 LNEPI_{t-1} + \theta_2 LNLCI_{t-1} + \theta_3 LNEXR_{t-1} + \theta_4 LNINR_{t-1}$$
$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{p} \beta_i \Delta LNMPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \gamma_i \Delta LNEPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \delta_i \Delta LNLCI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i}$$
$$+ \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + v_t$$

$$(3)$$

where vt is white noise error term and Δ is the first difference operator. This model is estimated by using ordinary least squares (OLS) method. (p+1)(q1+1)(q2+1)(q3+1)(q4+1) number of regressions are estimated to acquire the optimal lag-lengths in the equation and the choice between different lag lengths is made by using information criteria such as Akaike (AIC) or Schwarz (SC). Schwarz information criterion (SC) preferred to AIC because it tends to define more parsimonious specifications (Pesaran & Shin, 1995; Acaravci & Ozturk, 2012). Alternatively, unrestricted error correction model (UECM) can be derived from underlying VAR(p) model, instead of specifying an ARDL model (Pesaran et al., 2001; Fosu & Magnus, 2006). Then number of regressions to specify the unrestricted error correction model becomes (p+1)(k+1) where (k+1) is the number of all variables and p is the desired maximum lag length. Residuals for the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) should be serially independent and the model itself should be dynamically stable. ARDL bounds F test statistic is calculated by imposing equality to zero restriction on all estimated coefficients of lagged level variables. Null hypothesis of no cointegration against the alternative hypothesis of existence of long-run cointegration becomes

$$H_0 : \theta_0 = \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3 = \theta_4 = 0$$

$$H_1 : \theta_0 \neq 0; \quad \theta_1 \neq 0; \quad \theta_2 \neq 0; \quad \theta_3 \neq 0; \quad \theta_4 \neq 0; \quad \theta_5 \neq 0$$

$$(4)$$

The asymptotic distribution for the ARDL bounds F test statistic is non-standard under the null hypothesis that there exists no level relationship, irrespective of whether the regressors are I(0) or I(1). Exact critical values for the ARDL bounds F test are not available for several mix of I(0) and I(1) variables but Pesaran et al. (2001) calculated the bounds on the critical values for the asymptotic distribution of the F statistic under different situations by changing the number of explanatory variables (k) in the model and sample size, for different model specifications (like no constant + no trend, unrestricted constant + no trend etc.) and for each conventional levels of significance 1%, 5% and 10%. In each case, the lower bound is based on the assumption that all of the variables are I(0), and the upper bound is based on the assumption that all of the variables are I(1).

It is concluded that the variables are I(0), when the computed bounds F test statistic falls below the lower bound, so no cointegration is possible by definition. When the bounds F test statistic exceeds the upper bound, it is concluded that there is cointegration. The test is inconclusive when the bounds F test statistic lies between the bounds. Critical table values (bounds) are calculated for small samples (between 30 and 80) by Narayan (2005). Critical bounds are used from Narayan

(2005) and from Pesaran et al. (2001) with respect to sample size, the former is for sample size at most 80 and the latter one for more than 80.

The long-run levels model showing the long-run equilibrating relationship and short-run error correction model to measure short-run dynamic effects can be identified by using the ARDL restricted error correction model (RECM) when cointegration is found so that the long-run and the short-run elasticity coefficients are determined.

The long-run relationship model is

$$LNMPI_t = \alpha_0 + \lambda DUM_t + \alpha_1 LNEPI_{t-1} + \alpha_2 LNLCI_{t-1} + \alpha_3 LNEXR_{t-1} + \alpha_4 LNINR_{t-1} + v_t \quad (5)$$

and the short-run relationship model (RECM, Restricted Error Correction Model) is

$$\Delta LNMPI_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \omega E\hat{C}T_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \beta_i \Delta LNMPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q1} \gamma_i \Delta LNEPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q2} \delta_i \Delta LNLCI_{t-i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=0}^{q3} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{q4} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + e_t \quad (6)$$

where ω is the coefficient of the error (or equilibrium) correction term ECT. It shows variables' speed to converge to equilibrium and it is expected its to have a significant negative value.

The variable ECTt-1 (error or equilibrium correction term) in the equation (6) is one lagged values of the estimated ordinary least squares (OLS) residuals (v_t) of the long-run model given in equation (5). Long-run coefficients can also be calculated by using estimated θI coefficients of the unrestricted error correction model (UECM, equation 3). The long-run estimated relationship for any X_i is obtained by $-(\theta I / \theta 0)$. Both functional form misspecification and assumptions about the residuals in the restricted error correction model (equation 6) such as no serial correlation, normality and homoscedasticity should be checked by performing diagnostic tests.

Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test corresponds to the vector autoregressive (VAR) model (Toda & Yamamoto, 1995):

$$LNMPI_t = \alpha_0 + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{1i} LNMPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \alpha_{2i} LNMPI_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \beta_{1i} LNEPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \beta_{2i} LNEPI_{t-i} \right)$$

$$+ \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_{1i} LNLCI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \gamma_{2i} LNLCI_{t-i} \right) + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \delta_{1i} LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \delta_{2i} LNEXR_{t-i} \right)$$

$$+ \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \varphi_{1i} LNINR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=k+1}^{d\,max} \varphi_{2i} LNINR_{t-i} \right) + \varepsilon_t \quad (7)$$

Equation (7) is written for each of the five variables as a system first to determine optimum VAR lag-length k by using information criteria such as Akaike or Schwarz. The greatest order of integration, which is obtained from the unit root tests, of all five variables is defined as dmax and then above (equation 7) VAR system is estimated. Null hypothesis of no Granger causality against the alternative hypothesis of existence of Granger causality is defined for each equation (left side variable) in the VAR system. Hence the Granger causality for instance from LNEPI to LNMPI (LNEPI→LNMPI) implies $\beta_{1i} \neq 0$ ($\forall$ i) in the first equation written for LNMPI (equation 7).

Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test can be performed irrespective of whether the variables are I(0), I(1) or I(2), cointegrated or not cointegrated, but inverse roots of autoregressive (AR) characteristic polynomial should be inside of the unit circle to estimate robust causality result.

Results

In this section, the results of various stages of analysis are presented and discussed. These include the unit root results for stationarity test, cointegration relationship, short-run and long-run estimations, and the causality analysis.

Augmented Dickey-Fuller and Phillips-Perron unit root test results for the logs of the manufacturing production index, energy price index, labor cost index, exchange rates and interest rates are given in Table 2. Test results show that all the time series variables are stationary at most in their first differences but some may be stationary in their levels. All series in the analysis should be integrated of the same order for using the conventional cointegration analysis such as Engle and Granger or Johansen but superiority of the ARDL bounds cointegration analysis is its usability with a mixture of I(0) and I(1) data. It is concluded from the results of the unit root tests that the maximum order of integration is found as 1.

Table 2. Unit Root Test Results

| Variable | Test Statistic | Log Levels | | | | First Difference | | | |
		ADF	Lag	PP	Lag	ADF	Lag	PP	Lag
LNMPI	τ	1.3936	(4)	3.4234	(15)	-2.3960**	(3)	-11.1903***	(12)
	τ_{μ}	0.1130	(4)	-0.6775	(26)	-3.2804**	(4)	-18.6985***	(49)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-3.2862*	(4)	-4.1533***	(4)	-3.4310*	(4)	-32.8554***	(53)
LNEPI	τ	1.1122	(1)	3.3928	(5)	-2.1605**	(0)	-2.1099**	(7)
	τ_{μ}	-4.1844***	(1)	-9.9320***	(1)	-2.4922	(0)	-2.1656	(4)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-3.1663	(1)	-4.7479***	(0)	-3.9112**	(0)	-3.8793**	(2)
LNLCI	τ	0.7401	(4)	4.2055	(3)	-2.8659***	(3)	-6.2997***	(3)
	τ_{μ}	-1.2460	(4)	-9.7099***	(54)	-2.2730	(3)	-9.1705***	(4)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-0.9854	(4)	-3.0293	(16)	-2.1454	(3)	-12.2755***	(3)
LNINR	τ	-2.0012**	(0)	-2.0152**	(1)	-7.1682***	(0)	-7.1899***	(3)
	τ_{μ}	-1.0767	(0)	-1.0694	(1)	-7.4284***	(0)	-7.4286***	(2)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-2.6033	(0)	-2.8393	(2)	-7.3499***	(0)	-7.3510***	(2)
LNEXR	τ	1.2047	(1)	1.3172	(5)	-4.4269***	(0)	-4.3650***	(3)
	τ_{μ}	-3.7459***	(1)	-3.8443***	(3)	-4.8451***	(0)	-4.8439***	(3)
	$\tau_{\mu+T}$	-3.3283*	(1)	-2.8906	(3)	-5.3471***	(0)	-5.3809***	(3)

Notes: (1) $\tau_{\mu+T}$ represents the most general model with a drift and trend; τ_{μ} is the model with a drift and without trend; τ is the most restricted model without a drift and trend. (2) Numbers in brackets are lag lengths used in the ADF test (as determined by AIC) to remove serial correlation in the residuals. When using the PP test, numbers in brackets represent Newey–West bandwith (as determined by Bartlett–Kernel). (3) Superscripts ***, ** and * denote rejection of the null hypothesis at the 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively. (4) Tests for unit roots have been carried out in E-VIEWS 7.1.

Values of the Akaike and Schwarz information criteria obtained from the construction of the unrestricted error correction model (UECM) are reported in the Table 3 choosing the maximum lag lengths as five. The method proposed by Kamas and Joyce (1993) is followed in determining the optimum lag lengths for the unrestricted error correction model by using Schwarz information criterion (SC) (Yüce Akıncı & Akıncı, 2014). First, the optimum lag length for the differenced log of the manufacturing production index (ΔLNMPI) is determined when the other differenced series are not in the model. Then the same procedure is applied for the first regressor (first difference of the log of the energy price index, ΔLNEPI) to determine best lag length but using the fixed lag length found for the differenced log of the manufacturing production index (ΔLNMPI). After determining optimum lag lengths for ΔLNMPI and ΔLNEPI, lag length for the ΔLNLCI is specified by fixing the lag lengths for the ΔLNMPI and ΔLNEPI series. The procedure goes on the same way until the optimum lag lengths for all differenced series are identified. The chosen optimum lag lengths in the unrestricted error correction model are 4 (ΔLNMPI), 0 (ΔLNEPI), 4 (ΔLNLCI), 1 (ΔLNEXR) and 0 for ΔLNINR.

$$\Delta LNMPI_t = \beta_0 + \eta DUM_t + \theta_0 LNMPI_{t-1} + \theta_1 LNEPI_{t-1} + \theta_2 LNLCI_{t-1} + \theta_3 LNEXR_{t-1}$$

$$+ \theta_4 LNINR_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{4} \beta_i \Delta LNMPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{0} \gamma_i \Delta LNEPI_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{4} \delta_i \Delta LNLCI_{t-i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=0}^{1} \xi_i \Delta LNEXR_{t-i} + \sum_{i=0}^{0} \psi_i \Delta LNINR_{t-i} + e_t$$

$$(8)$$

Table 3. AIC and SC Information Criteria for the UECM Model

Lag Length	$\Delta LNMPI_{t-i}$		$\Delta LNEPI_{t-i}$		$\Delta LNLCI_{t-i}$		$\Delta LNEXR_{t-i}$		$\Delta LNINR_{t-i}$	
	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC	AIC	SC
0	-	-	-3.5608	-3.1063	-3.7182	-3.2258	-3.9419	-3.2601	-4.0263	-3.2687
1	-3.0077	-2.7130	-3.5300	-3.0376	-3.6818	-3.1515	-4.0524	-3.3327	-3.9953	-3.1999
2	-2.9461	-2.6115	-3.5512	-3.0209	-3.6513	-3.0831	-4.0588	-3.3012	-4.0375	-3.2042
3	-3.3495	-2.9743	-3.6179	-3.0498	-3.6157	-3.0096	-4.0720	-3.2765	-4.0517	-3.1805
4	-3.5841	-3.1674	-3.6023	-2.9962	-3.9466	-3.3027	-4.0462	-3.2129	-4.0125	-3.1034
5	-3.5527	-3.0939	-3.5886	-2.9385	-3.9079	-3.2196	-3.9931	-3.1136	-4.0098	-3.0538

ARDL bounds F test results are reported in Table 4 below. The result of the bounds test confirms the presence of a long run relationship when the log of manufacturing production index is dependent variable of the model for the period 2000Q1-2013Q4 in Romania. Calculated F statistic is 5.3082. Upper bound critical values are I(1)=4.334 (n=55) and I(1)=4.314 (n=60) for five variables (k=4) and 5% significance level. Null hypothesis of no cointegration is rejected at the 5% significance level because F test statistic is greater than the critical upper bounds value I(1).

Table 4. Results of F Bounds Test

F Statistic	Sample Size	$\alpha = 0.01$	$\alpha = 0.05$	$\alpha = 0.10$

	for Critical Table Values	I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)	I(0)	I(1)
5.3082	n=55	4.244	5.726	3.068	4.334	2.578	3.710
(n=56)	n=60	4.176	5.676	3.062	4.314	2.568	3.712

Notes: Critical values I(0) and I(1) are obtained from Narayan (2005), "Critical values for the bounds test: caseIII: unrestricted intercept and no trend", p.1988; k=4. F statistic is significant at the 5% significance level.

After confirming the existence of a long-run relationship among the logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, labor cost index, exchange rates and interest rates, the diagnostic tests were examined from the unrestricted error correction (bounds test) model (UECM). These include Lagrange multiplier test of residual serial correlation, Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values for correct functional form (no mis-specification), Jarque-Bera normality test based on the skewness and kurtosis measures of the residuals and Breusch-Godfrey heteroscedasticity test based on the regression of squared residuals on the original regressors of the model. Diagnostic test results which are given below in Table 5 show that all assumptions about the specified model are met. None of the null hypotheses of no serial correlation, no mis-specification, normal distribution of the residuals and homoscedasticity can be rejected.

Table 5. Diagnostic tests from the Unrestricted (unconstrained) Error Correction Model (Bounds Test Model)

Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value	Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value
No Serial Correlation	$\chi_1^2 = 1.1453$	1	0.2845	Normality	$\chi_2^2 = 1.8868$	2	0.3893
No mis-specification	$\chi_1^2 = 1.9894$	1	0.1584	Homoscedasticity	$\chi_{19}^2 = 18.2936$	19	0.5029

Stability of the estimated parameters is tested by applying the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and of squared residuals (CUSUMSQ) proposed by Brown et al. (1975). CUSUM and CUSUMSQ test results show that the parameters of the UECM model are relatively stable over time. The plots are given in Figure 1 below. The red lines represent critical bounds at 5% significance level.

Figure 1. Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals and of Squares of Recursive Residuals for the UECM Model
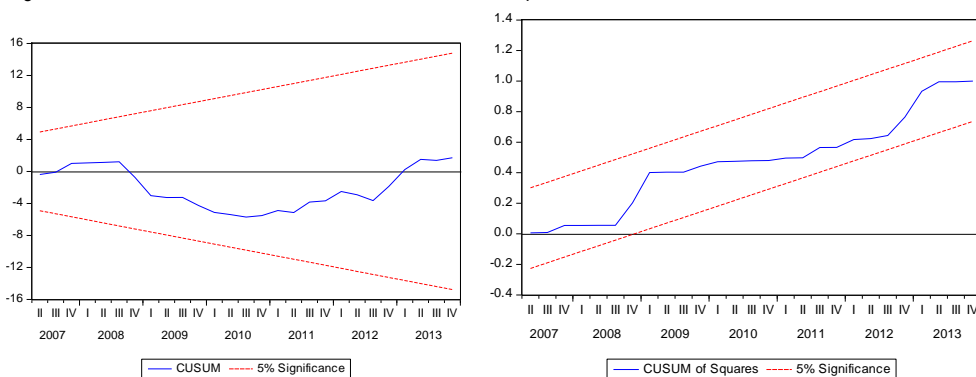
After determining the long-run cointegration relationship, the short-run and the long-run elasticity coefficients are estimated by using the ARDL procedure. Estimated long-run levels model is assigned as below and shown in the Table 6. Lagged values of the estimated residuals of the long-run levels model are used as error (equilibrium) correction term in the short-run model. Results of the short-run model are given in the Table 7.

$$LNMPI_t = 4.6319 + 0.0328DUM_t - 0.5112LNEPI_t + 0.5703LNLCI_t - 0.1385LNEXR_t$$

$$-0.0451LNINR_t + \hat{v}_t$$

<div align="right">(9)</div>

Table 6. Estimated Long-run Coefficients

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	t Statistic	p-value
LNEPI	-0.5112	0.1707	-2.9939	0.0043
LNLCI	0.5703	0.1505	3.7896	0.0004
LNEXR	-0.1385	0.1047	-1.3231	0.1918
LNINR	-0.0451	0.0218	-2.0735	0.0433
C	4.6319	0.3077	15.0536	0.0000
DUM	0.0328	0.0512	0.6407	0.5247

In the long run, elasticity coefficients of energy price index, interest rates and exchange rates are all negative and their values are -0.51, -0.05 and -0.14 respectively. Long term elasticities for energy price index and interest rates are statistically significant at the 1% and 5% level. However, the coefficient of exchange rates in the long run is not statistically significant within the conventional 1-10% levels of significance. The long run elasticity coefficient of labor cost index is positive (0.57) and significant at the 1% level.

Although the coefficient of exchange rates in the long run is not statistically significant, in the short run, both the elasticity and lag-one period elasticity of exchange rates are significant at the 5% level. The contribution from exchange rates in the short run is about -0.37% ($\Delta LNEXR_t$ = -0.3659) and short run lag-one period elasticity is positive 0.37% ($\Delta LNEXR_{t-1}$ = 0.3672).

On the other hand, estimated short run elasticities for energy price index and interest rates are -0.54% ($\Delta LNEPI_t$ = -0.5399) and 0.02% ($\Delta LNINR_t$ = 0.0238) but they are not statistically significant while both of energy price index and interest rates are significant in the long run.

Table 7. Restricted Error Correction Representation (Short-run EC Model)

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	p-value
$\hat{ECT}_{t-1}$	-0.2944	0.1051	0.0082
$\Delta LNMPI_{t-1}$	0.0887	0.1542	0.5690
$\Delta LNMPI_{t-2}$	0.2310	0.1497	0.1318
$\Delta LNMPI_{t-3}$	0.0084	0.1345	0.9504
$\Delta LNMPI_{t-4}$	0.4958	0.1394	0.0011
$\Delta LNEPI_t$	-0.5399	0.3642	0.1471
$\Delta LNLCI_t$	-0.0827	0.2755	0.7657

$\Delta LNLCI_{t-1}$	-0.2725	0.1821	0.1434
$\Delta LNLCI_{t-2}$	-0.5384	0.1823	0.0056
$\Delta LNLCI_{t-3}$	-0.0943	0.1534	0.5429
$\Delta LNLCI_{t-4}$	0.5633	0.2257	0.0174
$\Delta LNEXR_{t}$	-0.3659	0.1666	0.0348
$\Delta LNEXR_{t-1}$	0.3672	0.1589	0.0269
$\Delta LNINR_{t}$	0.0238	0.0184	0.2039
Intercept	0.0385	0.0182	0.0415
DUM_{t}	-0.0199	0.0146	0.1820

$\overline{R}^2 = 0.7035$ $\hat{\sigma} = 0.0325$ $AIC = -3.7671$ $SC = -3.1610$

Notes: (1) Model specification is ARDL(5, 0, 5, 2, 0) with dependent variable $\Delta LNMPI_{t}$ and $\hat{ECT}_{t-1}$ is the equilibrium correction term. (2) $\overline{R}^2$ is the adjusted squared multiple correlation coefficient and $\hat{\sigma}$ is the standard error of the regression. (3) AIC and SC are Akaike's and Schwarz's Bayesian Information Criteria.

 Lag-two period and lag-four period elasticities for labor cost index in the short run are -0.54 (ΔLNLCIt = -0.5384) and 0.56% (ΔLNLCIt = 0.5633). Both these coefficients are significant at the 1% and 5% levels respectively.

Short run growth policies measured by the lag-four period manufacturing production index is significant at the 1% level and contribute about 0.57% (ΔLNMPIt-4 = 0.5633) to the current manufacturing production index.

The error (equilibrium) correction term (ECT) measures the speed at which prior deviations from the equilibrium are corrected in the current period. The estimated ECT coefficient is -0.29 (ECTt-1 = -0.2944) and significant at the 1% level, thus indicating that almost 30% of the dis-equilibrium due to the previous year's shocks is adjusted back to the long-run equilibrium in the current year.

The diagnostic tests given in the Table 8 are examined from the restricted error correction (short-run) model (RECM). The Lagrange multiplier tests are performed to test the null hypotheses of no serial correlation in the residuals for lag-one and lag-four periods. Both hypotheses cannot be rejected (p-values are 0.1376 and 0.2481 respectively). Null hypothesis of no mis-specification is not rejected by the calculated Ramsey's RESET test statistic (p-value is 0.7802). Null hypothesis of normality is not rejected according to the Jarque-Bera normality test (p-value is 0.5468). Performing the Breusch-Godfrey heteroscedasticity test comfirms that there is no heteroscedasticity in the residuals (p-value is 0.3801). Finally, the null hypothesis of no ARCH effects in the residuals is tested by regressing the squared residuals on the one-period lagged squared residuals and a constant term. Null of no ARCH effects is not rejected (p-value is 0.8453). All diagnostic test results confirm that all necessary conditions for the restricted error correction model are met.

Table 8. Diagnostic tests from the Restricted (constrained) Error Correction Model (Short-run ECM)

Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value	Null Hypothesis	Test Statistic	df	p-value
No Serial Correlation	$\chi_1^2 = 2.2047$	1	0.1376	Normality	$\chi_2^2 = 1.2072$	2	0.5468

No Serial Correlation	$\chi^2_4 = 5.4062$	4	0.2481	Homoscedasticity	$\chi^2_{15} = 16.0301$	15	0.3801
No mis-specification	$\chi^2_1 = 0.0779$	1	0.7802	No ARCH Effect	$\chi^2_1 = 0.0381$	1	0.8453

Stability of the estimated parameters is tested by applying the cumulative sum of recursive residuals (CUSUM) and of squared recursive residuals (CUSUMSQ).

Figure 2. Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals and of Squares of Recursive Residuals for the RECM Model
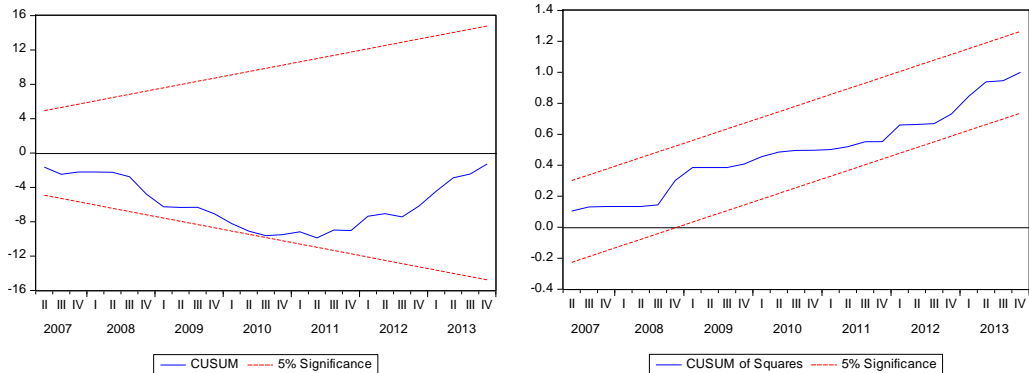
The results of Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality test are reported in the Table 9. Unidirectional causations from labor cost index to manufacturing production index (LNLCI→LNMPI), from interest rates to manufacturing production index (LNINR→LNMPI), from exchange rates to interest rates (LNEXR→LNINR) and from energy price index to manufacturing production index (LNEPI→LNMPI) are determined at the 1% (χ2 = 21.38), 1% (χ2 = 15.18), 5% (χ2 = 13.74) and 10% (χ2 = 9.73) levels of significance respectively.

Discussion

In this paper, an empirical model investigated among five time series variables which are logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, labor cost index, exchange rates and interest rates. Data belong to Romania and enclose the term from the first quarter of 2000 to fourth quarter of 2013.

Autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) model is specified to identify the relationship between the log of manufacturing production index and the other four explanatory variables. ARDL bounds F test procedure is used to determine the cointegrating relationship for Romania and a cointegrating relationship is detected when log of manufacturing production index is dependent to other explanatory variables in the model. After confirming that there exist cointegration, the long run and the short run elasticity coefficients of the log of manufacturing production index are explored.

Results of this analysis indicate that there exists a long run cointegration relationship between the logs of manufacturing production index, energy price index, exchange rates and interest rates in Romania where the log of manufacturing output is defined as dependent variable in an ARDL framework. It is reasonable to estimate dynamic error correction model for Romania and subsequently estimate the long and the short run relationships. Long-run and short-run elasticity coefficients are explored by using ARDL model and the direction of causality is detected. Results show that logs of energy price index, labor cost index and interest rates have a substantial long-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index with respective long-run elasticity coefficients of -0.51% (LNEPI), 0.57% (LNLCI) and -0.05% (LNINR). Under specified model, log of exchange rates does not have a long-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index. It is found that there are dynamic short-run effects. As well as lag-four of the log of the manufacturing production index contributes 0.50%, the short-run log of exchange rates is -0.37% and lag-one of the log of exchange rates is 0.37%. Lag-two and lag-four of the

log of the labor cost index have a short-run effect on the log of manufacturing production index. The respective short-run elasticity coefficients are estimated as -0.54% and 0.56%.

Finally, direction of causality is examined by Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality testing process which is suitable even when the series are integrated of different orders. Unidirectional Granger causalities are determined from labor cost index to manufacturing production index (LNLCI→LNMPI), from interest rates to manufacturing production index (LNINR→LNMPI), from exchange rates to interest rates (LNEXR→LNINR) and from energy price index to manufacturing production index (LNEPI→LNMPI).

Table 9. Results of Toda-Yamamoto Granger non-causality Test

Dependent Variable: LNMPI				Dependent Variable: LNEPI			
Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value	Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value
LNEPI	9.7334	5	0.0832	LNMPI	6.4955	5	0.2609
LNLCI	21.3823	5	0.0007	LNLCI	2.5399	5	0.7705
LNEXR	8.4378	5	0.1337	LNEXR	3.2200	5	0.6661
LNINR	15.1795	5	0.0096	LNINR	1.0138	5	0.9614
Dependent Variable: LNLCI				Dependent Variable: LNEXR			
Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value	Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value
LNMPI	1.7558	5	0.8818	LNMPI	6.5615	5	0.2553
LNEPI	6.5796	5	0.2538	LNEPI	4.1658	5	0.5258
LNEXR	6.6196	5	0.2505	LNLCI	4.5223	5	0.4769
LNINR	2.4492	5	0.7841	LNINR	2.7699	5	0.7354
Dependent Variable: LNINR							
Excluded	Chi-sq. Test Statistic	df	p-value				
LNMPI	3.7689	5	0.5831				
LNEPI	4.5667	5	0.4710				
LNLCI	3.3070	5	0.6528				
LNEXR	13.7444	5	0.0173				

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Children and foreign languages: Observe, get to know and understand them (Didactic units for children)

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Abstract

Teaching a foreign language to children is not as simple as it seems, taking into consideration the general opinion that children are more adaptable than grown ups. Without any doubt, it is easier for a child than for an adult to learn a foreign language, due to many factors which we will go through briefly in this research, but the most important thing is how to present the learning of a foreign language to children. The global glottodidactics offers adequate and detailed information on this, providing teachers of foreign languages not only with the theoretical framework, but also with the practical one. It is proved by many important researches that a child, due to many psycho-physical and neuropsychological factors is capable of learning a foreign language as a native Italian or British, but what happens in practice is that such a natural capability is not turned against the teacher, who is not so able to operate in this age and raise affective barriers that will compromise not only the teaching of a foreign language but also it will create a long-term or maybe a permanent repulsion of the child towards the foreign language. Therefore, it is very important for the foreign language teacher who works with children to be well-educated in didactics and psycho pedagogy, as well, in order to know how to act and adapt to the age and psychology of the child and know how to achieve the main purpose that is the teaching of the language. We already know that teaching children should be a natural and spontaneous process, but teachers are met with the challenge of how to realize this. As we mentioned previously, global glottodidactics provides a lot of tools, especially the ludic methodology, which uses games as the extraordinary tool to wholly engage children and offers them the possibility to learn a language through direct and spontaneous practice.

Based on what we said above, we are providing a didactic unit for children, which aims at teaching children how to know themselves and others through observation, teach them to interpret facial expressions and mimic, know how to ask and respond to specific expressions and compare between Albanian and foreign language children, learn the lexicon related to this aspect, and also raise the awareness regarding human feelings that are transmitted through facial expressions and mimic.

Keywords: children, teaching, foreign language, game.

Semina un pensiero... e nascerà un carattere
Semina un pensiero e nascerà un'azione,
semina un'azione e nascerà un'abitudine,
semina un'abitudine e nascerà un carattere,
semina un carattere e nascerà un destino.
Buddha
(Guglielmi A., Il linguaggio segreto del volto, 2012)

Introduction

In most of the cases, our face is the mirror of our soul and mind. It reflects our interior world and it is true that human face is able to express emotions and opinions through its alternations, which often cannot be consciously controlled. In fact, it is exactly the face that often betrays us and shows our internal spiritual and emotional situation to others.

Despite this, our face is important because it is our own individual emblem through which we represent ourselves and interact with the world. Our internal emotions and feelings that are reflected in our face are easily read from interlocutors and the people we interact with. That's why it is our duty that children acknowledge, understand and interpret them. Children start to gradually learn them at an early age, and while growing up truly understand what they really mean and what does the face of the person express. This is the teaching goal and it is treated as such in kindergarten and further in schools, whose purpose is to raise individuals who are familiar, first with their own feelings, and then with those of the

others. This will help them to create their personal identity, know themselves, be independent and know how to interpret emotions and personal opinions, and then those of the others.

As far as the foreign language teaching is concerned, and in our case it is Italian, this objective expands and becomes more complex, because the child should learn not only the facial expressions, but also name them in a foreign language, and verify whether this interpretations are the same or not in other children, and learn to verify whether they are the same to Italian children, as well (through pictures, videos).

Teaching children how to know themselves and their own emotions through facial expressions and interpret or express such emotions is important for a better psycho-social-pragmatic development. This is due to the fact that often a child might not properly identify or distinguish such expressions that can lead him to an incorrect interpretation and, as a consequence, misunderstandings can arise.

This becomes even more important when it deals with the teaching of a foreign language, because the goal becomes more complicated especially when the child has to realize it in another language. It would be really helpful the usage of the ludic methodology. The values and the importance of this method, and the application of games as an efficient technique where the child is wholly involved, body and mind, has made such a methodology more famous than global glottodidactics. Game as a teaching object dates back to earlier ages and it still continues to be used as the most efficient tool through which the child can learn spontaneously, in freedom and complex-free, enabling thus a positive psychological progress without creating communication and interaction barriers.
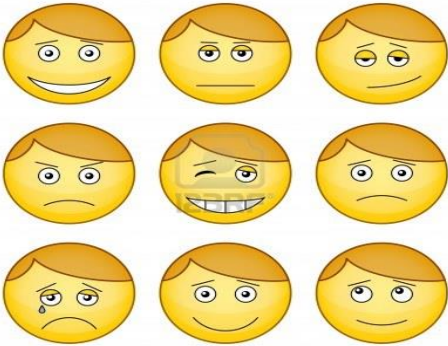
Therefore, we cannot act differently, but use this methodology and games as the most essential tool in our lesson, taking into consideration the age and the psychology.

A well-known researcher claims:

"Games are actions that build the world" (Goffman, 2006)

Starting from this quote, let's build our world of emotions and feelings by playing and by knowing ourselves and the others.

Didactic units for children (Gjinali A. PhD Thesis, 2013)

| Mimics and our expressions |
| You and I |

| Smileys, faces, emoticons | |

Duration	5-6 hours
Recipients, public	Pupils of 2nd-3rd-4th degree
Field of expertise	You and I; expressions, phrases, creativity, fantasy
Method	Its principle is the theory of multiple Intelligences (Gardener)
Educational objectives	1. To increase the children awareness on own and others' emotions. 2. To become aware of own emotions and feelings and learn how to express and interpret them properly.
General objectives	Stimulation, encouragement and participation of all children in organized and properly defined discussions Motivation and continuously keep children highly interested General knowledge of main personal and others' emotions
Teaching objectives	1. Know and understand emotions expressed through face mimic 2. Know and understand emotions and the correct identification 3. Become aware of personal emotions 4. Acknowledge friend's emotions 5. Understand friends' emotions and getting to know a different viewpoint 6. Know the lexicon related to these emotional expressions 7. Know and use different expressions related to emotions 8. Know negative and positive mimic 9.Create critical sense and reasoning regarding different emotions
Linguistic objectives	Know the lexicon used with mimics: smiley, cheerful, passive, angry, accomplice, cunning, worried, disappointed, sad, pouting, shy, fearful, proud, shame, surprise, hopeful, etc. Learn how to ask someone about their feelings Learn how to response when asked Learn to express our feelings
Cultural objectives	Understanding whether the faces of Italian children express the same and if they are the same as those of Albanian children Emphasize same mimics and interpretations Emphasize their differences, if any Explain these differences, if any (note: Of course, the expressions, especially the basic ones, are universal, but this is a conclusion children have to reach by themselves)
Social-pragmatic objectives	Know friend's mimic: Understand it Feel empathy Share the same emotions, same feelings Reject contradictory and unclear emotions Share same viewpoints
Environment	Classroom

Materials	paper, ink, colourful chalks, blackboard, video-projector, computer, CD, DVD, internet (to get familiar with smiley, emoticons)
Activities	Being active, different games to achieve the above-mentioned objectives.

Children watch a cartoon, for example: Pinocchio

Teacher and pupils can be assured in Albanian on Pinocchio's father's emotions (Geppetto), Pinocchio's and different characters', by stopping the video time after time, in order for the pupils to observe better the actual facial expressions.

Dramatization of different facial expressions as observed in the movie

Possible explanation of observed mimics

Group activities among two children

Game 1. It deals with the representation of different emotions

Pupils sit in front of one another and after find and expression the facial expressions of their friend have to draw it.

The winner is the one who finds the most of expressions and correctly draws them.

Game 2. Match facial expressions with expressions written in small paper labels under the teacher's supervision. That is, labelling.

Game 3. Children try to "read" expression on their friend's faces and on drawings. They try to identify it and express it verbally.

Game 4. Each one of them gets a mirror and practices facial mimic and expressions according to the emotions their teacher indicates them to. The winner is the one who correctly guesses them.

Game 5. With the help of internet, teacher shows children smiles, emoticons and faces.

The class is divided into two groups

The first group must find the negative mimics. First, they have to find what they are expressing and then verify them by reading the description and thus, find out whether their answer is correct or not.

	The second group should find positive mimics. First, they have to find what they are expressing and then verify them by reading the description and thus, find out whether their answer is correct or not.
	The winning group is the one who find more correct mimics.
	Game 6. Teacher associates every facial expression with a defined music tune and children must find out whether it fits or not.
	The winner is the one who manages to make more associations between image and music.
	Game 7. Teacher asks the pupils that for every defined mimic, the pupils draw something that they think corresponds to the facial expression: an image, a panorama or a famous figure, etc.
	After finishing, they have to discuss and explain why the image they chose to draw is related to the mimic assigned by the teacher.
	Game 8. Teacher asks children to draw familiar faces with different facial expressions, according to their character and nature.
	The winner is the one with the best representation and who explains clearly the relation between the face, mimic and its nature.
	Game 9. Create a short story through mimics.
	Work group.
	The winner is the group with the most clear and funny story.
Teacher's role	-To provide each group not only with the necessary materials, but also with the facial expression each group must perform
	-Clears the emotions expressed by each facial expression
	-Assists the working groups by clarifying them, in case of confusion
	- Assists individuals by orienting them to problem solving
Methodology	Based on the ludic one, active
Knowledge check	It will be performed via teacher's observation during the class, by paying attention to the given responses during the activity.
Evaluation	The evaluation is done personally done by the teacher
	He will do it by evaluating:
	The acknowledgment of emotions expressed in the story
	The acknowledgment of emotions through facial expressions (real, drawn or observed)
	The right correlation between the face and the respective drawn expression
	The acknowledgment of lexic and used expressions for such mimics.
	All the games

Conclusions:

The teaching of a language, but not only, must be conducted with children in various methods and pass through many sensory channels, in order to use all kinds of intelligence, styles and learning strategies that each one uses to profit the most of what is offered. Also, undoubtedly, teaching children should involve games and by game, we mean a teaching game, well-organized and properly defined by the teacher, so that we can achieve the desired objectives.

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Analysis of Social Costs as a Result of Romanian Social Health Policy

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to discuss how social costs in health social policies can be evaluated. How can we measure implications of health policy decisions, embodied in what I have called social costs of these decisions? How can we measure which social groups are the most affected by current Romanian health policies? Among the social costs that we can intuitively detect are poor indicators of health status, poor indicators in distribution of services, accesibility and quality of medical services. Are these indicators enough to measure social costs in health social policies? [1]

Keywords: Social costs, Health system policies, Health reform, Social Indicators, Measurement of indicators

Introduction

The health system in Romania has problems. It is a system that is funded by social contributions of only 4.5 million employees, but 90% of the population (18 mil.) has formal access to services, a large burden for the system. Health expenditure as percentage of GDP place our country on a final place among European countries, therefore the system is underfinanced. In these conditions, health system cannot insure high quality services for all the patients.Corruption in the system is also a factor that is leading to waste of resources to specific interest groups. There can be also detected exemples of ineffective management, bad health policy decisions, with medium and long-term consequences.

Healthy human capital is important for economic and social development of a nation. On the one hand, human capital in poor health negatively affects economic development by reducing work capacity and by increasing costs of providing public health services. On the other hand, economic development increases the living standard for the population, has impact on human health and on the resources available for investment in health services. We could say that in case of poor societies, there is a vicious circle between health status and health resources available in investing for health, but less healthy population, which unfortunately requires more investment. The circle could be broken by an additional effort of resources in the health system and consider long-term health policy as a priority.

Romania's accession made the reference point the health status and health services of European Union countries. Health of human capital in Romania is below the European average, with some problematic indicators such as high infant mortality, high tuberculosis morbidity. Conditions that are almost eradicated in developed countries of the EU, continues to affect a large number of Romanian (incidence of hepatitis B is double, the incidence of Tuurbeculosis is one of the largest in the EU, we have the highest rate of cervical cancer death in EU). Therefore, poor health is a problem with significant social implications, affecting employment and driving high social costs.

Purpose of research

My concerns on health policy issues in Europe and Romania dates back several years, including doctoral thesis in health social policy (december 2011). Meantime, I tried to answer some question: what would be the way forward for Romania in reforming its health system and what path other European systems followed. I now ask myself which are the social costs that Romanian society pays as a result of poor health policies.

Problems for all national health services are put in terms of capacity of sustainability, accessibility, quality, waiting time, distance to health services, paying out of pocket for services. Continually rising cost of medical systems, aging populations, development of expensive innovative technologies are main concerns of all European governments.

I am interested in how can we measure social implications of health policy decisions in Romania, embodied in what I have called the social costs of these decisions and which social groups have been most affected by the health system.

At this stage, I have already constructed a research project in order to asses these evaluations of costs. The research will be developed during next 16 months, starting july 2014 that will gather field data, mainly based on a qualitative methodology.

I have proposed following objectives of research:

-Clearly define concepts I operate with : what is a social cost than other types of costs

-Identify types of social costs as a result of health policy

-Analyze how these costs were produced.

-Detect possible features of the health system that generated social costs.

-Detect indicators periods with developments that I can show certain costs of a type of measure / decision

-Identify social groups affected by these social costs than others.

-Identify how these groups perceive costs

-Identify weaknesses in the health system that generated and generates social costs.

-Identify whether health social policy conducted a long-term assessment of these costs? What indicators were used.

-Identify ways in which social policy makers perceive the costs

-Developed social policy recommendations based on the analysis results.

Research methodology includes three components:

• A secondary analysis of social data/social indicators

   Possible social costs that can be highlighted by the development of socio-demographic indicators in the period 1990-2013:

 The evolution of socio-demographic indicators that characterize human capital: mortality, morbidity of various types, life expectancy, population growth, the rate of avoidable mortality attributed to healthcare.

 The indices of access to healthcare: distance to health services (on all 3 levels: family medicine / ambulatory / hospital) waiting time, number of services accessed.

 indicator Evolution expenses / costs out of pocket for their health

 The evolution of service units

 The evolution of medical personnel in the system. The problem of social cost of migration of doctors as

 Indicator confidence of population in the health system

 Indicator Evolution of satisfaction of population to health system

 The evolution of indicators characterizing social policy-ex. health expenditure as percentage of GDP

• A legislative analysis.

An analysis of the legislative history that regulated health system after 1990.

• A sociological research based on a qualitative methodology

Achieving depth interviews based on semi-structured interview guides with institutional and social actors:

 People at risk: uninsured, unemployed, welfare recipients, people in poverty, people with disabilities or disabling/various disabilities and health problems, families with many children, low-income employees

 health policy makers

 doctors from family medicine / ambulatory/ hospital

 Representatives of trade unions

 patients

Theoretical Background. What is a social cost and how to measure?

I have wondered what a social cost is and how it differs from other types of costs. A first definition of social cost would be a cost to society as a whole, as a result of an event, action, or policy change. It includes negative externalities, but it is rather a definition that comes from the economic field. (Source: Glossary of International Economics Deardoffs)

In conventional economics literature, social costs have externalities. They are understood as unplanned consequences of the activities of one or more economic agents which affect the well-being or productive capacity of others involved in the economic process, costs for which it is not possible to obtain or demand compensation.They has residual or secondary effects of the main economic activity of the agent, "external" effects and escape the working of the price mechanism. (Vítor Neves, 2012)

Policy implications of the current economic crisis led to social costs everywhere in Europe. (Wolfram Elsner et all, 2012). Capitalist market economy centered on money biased real social demands and needs. Although social costs can sometimes have a monetary component, they cannot be defined only in terms of money. They are not easy to be measured. Work, information (knowledge), institutions, there are commodities with a role to solve social problems. Social dilemma remains that between profitability and serving the individual or serving social. The social cost decreases quality of life, decreases the ability of democratic collective action. Social costs are preceding the crisis and they are also post-crisis. (Wolfram Elsner et all, 2012)

So how can we measure social costs as result of health policies? Among the social costs that we can intuitively detect are poor indicators of health status, poor indicators in equal distribution of services, accesibility and quality of medical services. Are these indicators enough to measure social costs in health social policies? I hope my project will answer these questions. Second data analysis, first hand data from qualitative research will answer to some questions related to types of indicators to be measured.

At this stage of the project, I made a list of possible indicators, easy to measure:

Nr Crt	Type of Indicator
1	Life Expectancy
2	Life expectancy at various ages
3	Life expectancy in good health
4	Mortality
5	Overall mortality
6	Mortality by causes of death
7	Survival rates
8	Infant mortality
9	Potential years of life lost
10	Morbidity
11	Specific morbidity; prevalence, incidence of some diseases
12	Occupational morbidity
13	DALY (Disability Adjusted Life Years)
14	QALY - Economic evaluation
15	Indicators of lifestyle

	Tobacco/ Alcohol /Drug /Diet indicators
16	Indicators for exposure to carcinogens and other hazardous substances
17	Frequency of occupational accidents and diseases
18	Indicators to characterize the environmental conditions Air pollution/Water pollution /Other types of pollution radiation Exposure to carcinogens or other harmful substances from the workplace
19	Measuring the impact of premature death;
20	Measuring avoidable deaths;
21	Development of composite indices that take into account both the intensity of the phenomenon of death and non-fatal consequences of the causes of disease (disability, handicap):
22	Life expectancy without disability;

Adaptation after Georgeta Zanoschi, Indicatori de evaluare a stării de sănătate a populaţiei, 2013

If we look on figures for Romania, for these indicators, we can see that some health indicators have lower values than those of the European Union. For example, women in Romania has the highest rate of incidence and death from cervical cancer. This form of cancer is now preventable through early detection and cure, therefore a national screening program for cervical cancer is vital for Romania.

Another indicator for which Romania is positioned on the worst place in the European Union is infant mortality. Although still nearly two times higher than the EU average in 2010, the infant mortality rate in Romania has decreased from values more than 3 times higher than the EU average in 2000. This may be due to both the effectiveness of national programs for maternal and child and growth of socio-economic level of the population of Romania in the last decade. Although most of the indicators have a favorable trend, since 1990, Romania has a lot of catching up to have a healthy population as the EU Member States, especially compared to EU-12.

Research premises.

Which are the premises that would reduce social costs? In this phase of theoretical framework, I am starting from a couple of premises regarding health policy decisions that could in my view, reduce social costs. These decision of social policies should theoretically lead to decrease of costs. I shall analyse these by qualitative methodology in my research, also legislative analysis and analysis of second data indicators.

A. Health Insurance system must should not be considered a luxury.

Health care should not be a luxury for some social groups, as it is today. Therefore, the need to find appropriate intervention mechanisms. Costs for the treatment of serious diseases outweigh the savings of middle class families, whether these costs should be paid out of pocket. Demand payment from pocket at the time of purchase care service leads in many cases to inability to pay for consumers and health becomes a luxury. Stomatologist services are a problem in Romania, because they are not covered bt helath insurance are very expensive for population. Therefore, a coverage with health insurance for stomatologist services is needed.

B. Health Insurance system must fulfill the function of shock absorption / social risks absorption, together with other components of the welfare state.

Transition stress, poverty, unemployment had direct impact on public health since 1990. System currently fails to reduce these shocks. It requires the establishment of a system of individual and collective risk absorption and redistribution of resources. Vertical redistribution aims to reduce inequalities, to secure equal access to services (education, health, social protection) and horizontal redistribution is designed to offset market failure situations and modern social risks. It is a matter of social morality that health insurance system should reduce the barrier between rich and poor in inequality of consumption of medical services. The rich continue to use medical services more than the poor and have better access to services in

most European countries. In a weak health system provided by the state, rich appeal to the upper class private system that offers decent treatment. This private system is however inaccessible to the poor or socially excluded. Vulnerable groups who may be exposed imbalances in the supply of medical goods and services are those geographically isolated, people with disabilities or disabling health problems, families with many children, poor families, the unemployed, low-income workers .

C. Health Insurance system must evaluate corectly health care needs

When we speak of demand for health services, things are more delicate. Unlike buying any other consume product, people have little knowledge about what they are buying when they need health care. There is an asymmetric information between buyer and supplier. Even when they have a choice, patients choose between what the doctor suggests. Demand is therefore forced, unplanned, led by the doctor, not the consumer. (S. Bodenheimer T, Grumbach K, 2009)

The most important institution for treatment in Romania remains the hospital, with direct consequences on the health budget. A percentage of 40% of the budget expenditures are expenditures for hospitalization. (Source: National Health Insurance House, 2013).

Request for services must be guided. Romania is faceing a high percentage of hospitalisation, leading to higher costs for system. This has some causes. On the one hand, there is a poor offer of services of family medicine in some areas, on the other hand, some of the population seek medical help in advanced stages of the disease, so the concentration is higher for the university centers and hospital facilities. Some problems can be solved efficiently ambulatory. Treating a health problem that could be solved ambulatory reduce costs by up to 10 times than hospitalization. (Source: National Health Insurance House, 2013)

F. Health Insurance system must take into account that we have a large proportion of the rural population is poorly covered services

G. Welfare state must mix efficiently medical assistance services and social assistance

It is abnormal the translation to healthcare services of the social problems that should be solved by social assistance.Other alternative social care services should be developed: homeless shelters, relief and recovery at home, rehabilitation and counseling.

Examples of excessive use of medical for some social problems for which there is no other solution

-Hospitalisation of homeless persons especially in cold weather

- Hospitalisation of persons who actually need social assistance / help at home

- Early retirement from work through false disability certificates.

In modernity, we can find a supermedicalisation of modern life (Radulescu S, 2002), an increase in dependence of individuals to health care institutions. In medical units, all types of problems arrive: depression, suicide attempts, unwanted children abandoned in hospitals, homeless. Many of these problems have a social nature. Medicalization actually hiding their social origin unsolve the social inequalities and social anomie. Admission temporarily mask the individual's social functioning problems. Super-medicalization trend has increased health costs and the number of medical acts.

Treating the disease without taking into account complementary social policies is the wrong direction. For example, the doctor treats a poor man in Romania and is releasing the patient. The pacient returns to the same environment with poor housing conditions, no proper food, hygiene, money to continue treatment. The income from minum wage doesn't insure him proper resources . Such medical resources invested in that man may be ineffective as long as the entire social system does not intervene properly. It is an example that shows inefficiency handling of social problems.

H. We need a coherent policy that ofeer shock absorption for private cost of health market. This is especially for drug market and stomatology market

There are health systems, areas where the market has a primary role. It is about supply and demand for drugs. Manufacturers of drugs, sanitary supplies and equipment are private entities. State intervention to reduce market impact is through compensation or covering of certain types of medication for patients. A case exploded in massmedia. In Romania, the state requires low prices on the sale of drugs. But the legislation did not protect patients properly. Cheap drugs were purchased before entering in pharmacies by "smart guys" and exported for profit. The cumulative effect is that patients are left without the necessary medication, and the profits go into the pockets of speculators: view cytostatic crisis, rapid morphine crisis (report IRQL, 2013). The state must intervene to stop such slippage.

I. We need a depolitization of Health system.

Health often becomes an object of political struggle. In each campaign, the parties raise the issue of health and the possibility of the state to ensure health expenditure. Medicine is part of a complex history, about power. According to the theory of social conflict (Radulescu, 2002), the medical system is seen as an institution of domination and power, the product of tensions and disagreement between groups with different interests. The social system gets to work better for privileged groups. Health institutions, pharmacies and doctors are dominated by two conflicting motivations: own financial profit or social interest.

K. We need to stop interest groups and conflicts of interest

It sounds cynical, but the market economy and power structures for providing social justice issues, morals in health lost ground. The most striking case is that of pharmaceutical companies and pharmaceutical distributors that for maximizing profits, are leading campaigns to promote products to the patients and the doctors, or even "corrupt" doctors in the system through incentives such as payment of Congress or incentives to prescribe certain drugs to patients. Some doctors hide conflicts of interest that include: working at clinics, private laboratories, where they send the patients found in the public system.

L. Co-payment in health system may increase social costs

The introduction of co-payment is generally a measure to drop the pressure on those medical facilities where these payments are introduced. For example, the large amount of appeal to the Emergency Unit (UPU), which introduces high costs for the system.

Co-payment should be treated with care as means of adjusting, for they may affect people with low living standards, which could not afford the co-pament and decrease access to services.

"There are some classic examples of states that have decided to introduce co-payments for consultations and medicines; these states were later forced to review its decision, as it was observed a sharp increase in the use of emergency and hospital services. It turned out that these low-income patients were unable to afford co-payment for necessary care, and reported a worsening of their health because they did not receive timely medical care or pharmaceuticals. There was a worsening of health for the population group with chronic disease and/or poor general health condition as a result of avoiding necessary care. Another group at risk of not receiving medical care when needed, is the children of low-income families. "(Ciutan M., 2009, p 25)

L. We need to increase funding and consider health care a priority

Health policy analysis should be studied in the context of the social and historical background of the national health policy. Romania having low economic resources, gave the health system and education a marginal position as funding. At the same time, the policy of reforming the health system was not bold enough to achieve major reforms, as did other former eastern reforms and failed to improve services quality. Socio-political history, ideological values of each state and the role of unions or professional organizations modeled systems development.

Given the crisis in the period 2008-2013, all European countries have adopted pragmatic measures packages to meet the financial crisis, but not reconsidering the role of the state and its social functions. Measures aimed at reducing public spending and restrict / control of administration and increasing spending budget resources. Mature markets took into account tax reduction measures to stimulate economic growth. Former communist states went mainly on measures to increase taxation. We can not speak of a trend in terms of anti-crisis fiscal measures, each country taking decisions taht considered advantageous.

In the health sector as a result of the need to reduce budget deficits in many countries, governments face the difficult political choices in the near future. Governments may have to limit the growth of public health expenditure, to reduce spending in other areas or raise taxes or social security contributions to reduce deficits. On the other hand, improving the efficiency of spending in the health sector can contribute to controlling these pressures, for example through a more rigorous evaluation of health technologies and wider use of information and communications technologies. (OECD, 2010)

M. There is a need for strategic planned decisions and not reactive responses

Not everything is the result of government policies. When decision makers are faced with a crisis situation, they tend to adopt emergency solutions that bring temporary solutions and whose impact is not measured in the long term. (Crinson I., 2009). Decisions of the Ministry of Health of Romania were in many cases reactions to problems, answers reactive and not planned strategy decisions. See ambiguities at Romanian Law 95/2006, which governs the entire health system. It has been amended many times.

Health policy process is a pragmatic response to a range of health and social problems, based on a set of values. Public policy is the course of action or lack of action chosen by the public authorities in response to a specific problem or set of interconnected problems. Public policies offer a path forward for a range of interrelated actions. The definition also refers to the action and inaction provided to be selected by the authorities. Such policies are tools by which to solve community problems.

In the study of health policy, it is important a comparative analysis of health systems, otherwise we face the risk of studying an isolated system and see no commonality problems. Some problems are redundant in discussions about health policies:

 The need for all health systems for effective organizational management and increase system performance in terms of cost / benefit, due to increasing health expenditure.

 The need to reform the health system: decentralization, privatization, public-private mix adoption (provided by the state, private and non-profit sector), with increased patient choice of provider.

 Resistance organizational culture / institutional, professional medical organizations to change, to reform.

 Critique of consumerism on the health care market and the issues of equity and access to services. None of the health systems have failed to reduce totally inequality in access to services. There are still groups in all the countries facing drawbacks. Most times, they are selected from immigrants, the poor, uninsured / unemployed, ethnic.

 Increased demand for long-term care in the community, which should lead to reform health and social services. We need a mix of social services with health in communities. A number of medical problems have an element of social anomie to be solved as a series of social problems have a health component: alcoholism, drug addiction, abandonment of children and the elderly, suicide attempts.

Conclusions

Conference communication will include analysis of first empirical data. I hope that feed-back from other collegues: sociologists, economists, other specialists will help me improve and consolidate my research projects. I have already constructed a research project in order to asses these evaluations of social costsThe research will be developed during next 16 months, starting july 2014 and will gather field data by a qualitative methodology on a sample of subjects including medical personell of different types, patients, health policy decision makers, representatives of medical trade unions. Also, the methodolohy includes second data analysis on social statistical indicators and legislation evaluation. The data collection starts August and September. So, there will be available first data to be presented at MJSS conference in September. This proceeding briefly included presentation of research project, some theoretical aproaches, work hypothessis and discussions related to the subject of research.

Other evaluations so far (Vlădescu, Ciutan, Dragmomirişteanu, Rădulescu) shows that education and health status of human capital was not considered at the level of social policy as priority of transition, despite declarations of principle. These is expected to have long term consequences on social development of Romania. Social inequality and polarization access to health services currently exist and the large differences between urban population (with access to health and education services in university hospitals) and on the other pole, rural population, with problems accessing services at the primary level and problems in moving toward the center services: heavy travel costs and distance to a population living from subsistence agriculture, with few financial resources available.

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SELF-CONTROL TEACHING IN EARLY AGE

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Abstract

This paper is saying about importance of self-control in early age. Developed self-control is a pre-condition of developing willingness, capability of concentration and independence of a child. Child is capable of cooperation for which was stimulated by inner motives. Child is able to accept demand, to listen, but not only for ``pure`` obedience. Confirmation for that is asking for explanation, reasons, and different options of the solution of a problem. More attention, persistence enable successful realisation of started activities. Consequence of it, further, is development of independence, supported by a teacher. After theoretical analysis of key questions determining the sense and importance of self-control, there are given results of empirical analysis, more precisely results found on the base of long-term observation, according to previously prepared protocols of teachers, which is their work on development of self-control in early age. The given results reflect the state from one teaching unit and they represent qualitative indicators. In order to get more detailed review, there are also given results of focus group interview with teachers. Self-control of children depends on overall climate which, among other things, should offer: honest, not just declarative respect for children and their rights; timely recognition and meeting of children`s rights; adequate model of teachers` behaviour able to question their acts. Development of self-control is especially influenced by well-planned and successful life regime, but which is flexible enough to adapt children`s needs and capacities. In this paper, we were primarily focused on the role of a teacher in self-control development process. It seems that our practice has been ``overtaken`` by tradition control over a child. There is often imposed organisation of sleeping and eating schedule, which implicitly express a need for self-control. In order to get more objective findings on that, we have targeted some important indicators-self-control pre-conditions. In relation to that, we put a special accent on: adoption of new rules of values and behaviour; setting clear demands by a teacher; consistent setting of borders of the children`s behaviour, verbalisation of some activities, establishing clear and specific rules, redirection and support instead of punishment and awards.. The key question we tended to get an answer for during this research is the way in which the teachers stimulate obedience that does not have a common meaning of subjugation, but appears as a result of willingness that is self-controlled. In relation to that, we put a special accent on: adoption of self-controlled willingness and which, as such, represents a special quality for personal and social progress.

Key words: self-control, discipline, obedience, institutional context.

Introduction

It is not possible to talk about self-control independently from other aspects or factors directly or indirectly determining the course of early education. First of all, we mean stimulant environment and qualitative support of teacher (an adult). Actually, it is holistic approach emphasizing complete context of the institution for early education. Therefore, we will tend to explain in the first part of the paper the key postulates and their specific influence on our subject of interest. We will also try to perceive stimulant or even limiting indicators of self-control and self-discipline through interactions with teacher and peers. Foundation for many of those influences we found in theories of Erickson, Vigotsky, Bronfenbrener, as well as pedagogical aspects of Maria Montessori.

Self-control in context of contemporary institution for early education

Contemporary understandings of early education emphasize all benefits and importance of this period for learning and development of child. Thereby it is truly believed in developing potentials and abilities, and active participation is sure. Socio-constructive theory establishes such aspects. Child in early age is conversant to other children and adults. Environment in which children are educated offers or limits their development. ``Just in that co-relation with their physical

(ecological) and social environment, child reveals meanings, examines and checks their hypotheses, develops new mental structures, learns about the world they are surrounded by, and gradually accepts new values, builds attitudes and way of lives in the culture they belong to`` . (Petrović-Sočo, 2009, page 11). Anyway, it seems it is more appropriate to talk about context of the institution, than the surroundings. When we say context we usually think of physical dimension, and we probably see it as a frame or we identify it with the surroundings. However, as we had previously emphasized different kinds of interactions in the surroundings, that way there is no context existing isolated from different subjects functioning in it. It is a dynamical category which besides physical also includes social, cultural, and even timely aspect. Context of the institution for early education could be defined as ``a living organism, as a complex, dynamical content, as an interactive network of social, cultural and ecological (physical) and timely relations that a child is in constant interaction with``. (Petrović-Sočo, 2007, page 36, according to: Stoll i Fink, 2000, Capra, 1986 i Snge, 2003).

When we say discipline, then we usually think about rigidness, obedience, etc. Somewise, we can relate it with negative opinion on discipline, in which external authority prevails. Control is done arbitrarily and punishment isn`t rarely used. (Kamenov, page 227). Taking into account different educational styles, as opponent to this one, teacher can go to other extremes and be too permissive. Although we could say, to inertia, that the solution could be found by converging these two strategies, actually it is not like that. The problem is much more complex and the base should be searched in adequate social frame. It means: understanding of child`s needs, reliable value and stable figure of an adult-teacher. (Kamenov, 2008, page 227).

In the process of self-control development the most important role undoubtedly belongs to adults-teachers and parents. They should be experts in watching and listening to children. However, it is not spontaneous, intuitive recognition of children`s needs and later again about spontaneous acting by teachers. On the contrary, initiative, independence, activity and overall development in different domains require very conscious, reflexive acting of teachers. Reflexive practicians have their own teaching philosophy, they always reconsider themselves, and earlier experiences are tested in new situations and contexts. Teacher is very often in situation to act directly, to apply knowledge in action. We will agree that such a practician does not suit their traditional attitudes, so reflexion necessarily means mental level.

Behaviour of children is the mirror of a teacher or what he does. To stimulate discipline and self-control, they have to be disciplined themselves. First of all, teachers must know to take ``break`` between impulsive ``feeling`` and ``taking action``. The technique that we, that way, demonstrate to children is so called time-out (the time enabling us to ``remote`` from the problem and regain emotional stability. (Nelsen, et al., 1996, page 50).

Adults-parents and teachers have a huge role in constructive direction of impulses. Through interaction and communication with adults, children learn how to control impulses, overcome troubles, and postpone pleasure (Seefeldt, Barbour, 1998, according to: Calkins, 1994, 4). That could be realised in various situations, such as mediating in conflicts when in such purpose a child ``is stirred to recognise conflict, share opinions, come to agreement on solution, and to estimate and apply new behaviour`` (Jurčević-Lozančić, 2011, page161).

Role of teacher is supporting for adoption of basic rules of behaviour and values, whereby possibilities, wishes and overall personality of a child must be respected. Such support is not the same as demonstration of certain rules that would be mechanically practised and permanently adopted later through simple imitation.

It seems that our practice is just ``burdened`` with traditional control over child. There is often imposed strict organisation of sleeping and eating schedule which implicitly express the need for control. However, help of an adult does not mean permanent dependence of a child on an adult, nor it means subdual to authority, but helping a child to get rid of that dependence gradually. Namely, here we can see contradiction: child is traditionally seen as helpless, dependent, and at the same time should be adapted (to be flexible) when it comes to life rhythm in the institution. ``On one side children are not trusted so they are not allowed to do what they can already do by themselves at that age (for example: washing hands, clearing our after meal, recognising their bottle, etc.), and on the other side they are at the same time expected to do what they cannot do (delaying need for food, sleeping, drinking, playing).`` (Petrović-Sočo, 2009, page 33).

Assumption of adopting a rule is that a child understands its meaning. Therefore, the explanation should be given, which means giving reasons why is something acceptable or vice versa. ``Facts show that giving reasons to children is the most important individual factor influencing later development of self-controlled behaviour.`` (Walsh, 2001, page 60).

Significant support to self-control development and overcoming of impulsiveness is enabled by setting clear requests by a teacher. Instructions are often insufficiently specified, so it seems that the child has an alternative of choice. For example, a teacher says: ``Ana, can we sit down?`` while she offers an alternative. Such request can be ambiguously interpreted, and it is certainly confusing, especially if we have children from different cultural milieus in the kindergarten. (v.

Katz, McClellan, page 67–68). This certainly should not be identified with ``strict educational regime``, but we emphasize necessary explicitly in messages sent by teacher.

Role of an adult also reflects in consistent setting of boundaries of children`s behaviour. ``Since the childhood, children are motivated for meeting the environment and discovering domains of their own acting`` (Phillips, 1999, page 24). Besides consistency in relation to children, an adult should treat the other adults in the kindergarten according to the same principle (which is not the only one).

Behavioural concept ensures children`s development in dependence on external corroboration. In that sense, prizes are usually used as stimulation means. However, ``if children are only awarded, there is little chance for them to develop their own control and self-discipline.`` (Seefeldt, Barbour, 1998, page 262). Support and redirecting are far more efficient means. That is the way to build up the forms of behaviour that the child is motivated for. With techniques of support and encouragement we actually valuate made effort, no matter what the end is like. Indirectly, we also stimulate different patterns of behaviour. For example, we give careful and specified support: `` I`ve noticed that you had stood up and moved a chair to the other place when Edi stubbed you this morning. I appreciate your self-control and tendency to solve this situation in such a peaceful way``. (Nelsen, et al., 1996, page 6). Real encouragement actually means gentle, but specific enough, i.e. concrete feedback.

On the other side, instead of punishment, it should be talked about redirection of activities. Child is said what should not be done and is given information on how to act. When we punish children, we actually don`t teach them how to do something properly, on the contrary-they learn how to avoid punishment in the future. Much more efficient than punishment is explanation of a situation to a child. ``Surveys have shown that the most efficient way of discipline ``facing`` with inappropriate behaviour is the ``non-punishing`` one (Katz, McClellan, 1997, page 71). Of course, it means giving simple and very convincing reasons for concrete ``discipline actions`` by a teacher.

The teacher applying logical consequences actually expresses reality of social order. That is the way to represent a group of rules that have to be adopted as an assumption of successful functioning within a group. (Seefeldet, Barbour, 1998, page 271, according to: Dreikurs, Greenwalk & Peper, 1982). This system sets a clear connection between a concrete procedure and consequence, and therefore punishment is not necessary. System of logical consequences eliminates anger, expresses an open attitude, support for self-control development. Besides, it expresses mutual respect between children and adults, which is a condition for development of autonomy and acceptance of acceptable behaviour.

Interactions among children inevitably get to social cognitive conflict. Knowledge is acquired and communication is reached on that base. ``Children look at other children, they imitate them and later it becomes a part of their own behaviour``. (Seefeldet, Barbour, 1998, p. 261). In the case of peer interaction, there could be an adoption of certain rules, and later a self-regulation. ``Child moves from external regulation done by advanced peer towards its internalisation i.e. self-regulation of activities (The same, page 91). Therefore, it would be probably desirable to make groups consisted of children of different age.

Social interaction improves zone of proximal development. Vigotsky defined the ZPD as a ``distance between the level of real development determined by independent solving of problem and the level of potential development determined through solving of problem according to directions of an adult or in cooperation with more capable peers`` (Berk, Winsler, 1997, page 24, according to: Vigotski, 1978, page 86). It is important that children have interaction with somebody (participants can be adult-child or child-adult) in order to reach the goal by joined forces.

In order to get a real cooperation and to communicate successfully during the common activity, it is very important that participants work on reaching the same goal. Important quality of good ``ferries`` (metaphor that appeared in literature to describe effective interactions of teaching/ learning within ZPD) is subjectivity. That is the concept referring to the process in which two participants, who start the task with different understanding come to the common understanding. (Berk, Winsler, 1997, page 27, according to: Newson and Newson, 1975). Inter-subjectivity provides common base for communication while one of the partners is adjusting to perspective of the other. So, it is essential that participants in social interaction negotiate and look for a compromise in accordance to ZPD of the child.

Of of goals of the so called ``ferry`` is stimulating self-regulation. In that purpose, an adult should allow a child to regulate common activities whenever it`s possible. That means that as soon as a child could work independently, an adult should revise control and power. ``As soon as the common goal is reached, active withdrawal of an adult as a response to take over by a child is essential for self-regulation development``. (Berk, Winsler, 1997, page 30). Degree of explicitness of the request made by an adult during interaction significantly determines child`s self-regulation. ``When adults constantly influence behaviour of a child through explicit commands and immediately give answers to current problems (``Put it here``. ``That`s the green one``), learning and self-regulation are reduced. As a contrast, when teachers and parents regulate

behaviour of children by asking questions which allows children to participate in revealing answers, learning and self-regulation are maximal``. (Berk, Winsler, 1997, page 30, according to: Neal, Williams 1990; Roberts i Barns 1992; Gonzales 1994).

According to Maria Montessori assumption of self-control is a developed will. If developed properly, will is a stimulating strength, foundation for progress. Further on, she emphasizes reciprocity of will and obedience. Being obedient means practiced will. It cannot be formed outside. In order to get a child adopt a certain order, to develop self-control, it is necessary to gain attention of a child, come to those hidden potentials and motives that are ``unconscious``. In the second conscious period, there is expressed activity of will, which can be guided later. It is similar with obedience. ``In the first period, the period of internal disorder, child is not obedient, and it seems like being psychically deaf, insensitive to commands; in the second time a child is willing to be obedient, acting like a person receiving a command and willing to respond it, but cannot do it or not always successfully, which means that the child is not ready yet and does not feel joy in being obedient; in the third period the child is ready to respond, with thrill; and with the child, with improvement in practicing, there is a joy for being able to be obedient`` (Montessori, 2001, page 238). Obedience coming out from practicing will enables the own control. That is not blind obedience, that is responding to request of the one who provides them the ``right to require`` with their authority and abilities, as well as responsibility.

Self-control of children also depends on overall climate which, among other things, should offer: honest, not declarative respect of children and their rights; timely recognition and satisfaction of children`s needs; adequate model of teacher`s behaviour capable to reconsider their actions. (Petrović-Sočo, 2007, page 88). Environment should be flexible in order to be modified in accordance to children`s needs. It is important to provide qualitative conditions for satisfaction of primary children`s needs (for food, sleep, etc). Satisfaction of primary needs with children in early age enables gaining of safety. If it is not reached, it is difficult to influence development in any domain.

Development of internal control is particularly contributed by a well planned and consistently achieved regime of life, but which is elastic enough to be adjusted to children`s needs and potentials (Kamenov, 2008, page 232). According to that, schedule of activities should be individualised in as high degree as possible, especially with children in early age. It is often vice versa in our practice, teacher is impatient, wants to feed the child as soon as possible, communicates roughly, he is ready to punish the child. (Manojlović, Mladenović, 2001, page 85). Instead of present overriding regime of the day, there should be a frame, but not the rules carried out with no exception.

Self-control is the process started in the early childhood. In nature, it is long-term and complex. Kopp (1982) emphasizes that the willing control (as response to mother`s request) can be noticed in the last quarter of the age one (Joffe, 1979; Stayton, Hogan & Ainsworth, 1971). Such attitude would be surprising for many theorists, first of all because there were not many researches done for the age under three. Willing control is developed during the whole pre-school period.

Developed self-control is a precondition of developing will, ability of concentration and independence of a child. The child is ready for cooperation for which was stimulated by internal motives. Child is able to accept request, to listen to it, but not only for ``pure`` obedience. Confirmation for that is asking for explanations, reasons, different options of solutions for some problem. More attention, persistence enable successful realisation of begun activities. Its consequence is development of independence, ``supported`` by the teacher. The major importance of self-control is probably reflected in that.

Method of research

Taking into account the nature of chosen problem, it was necessary to provide a holistic access to its examination. Thus we tried to establish the nature of different interactions in kindergarten context. Besides systematic long-term examination (lasting for two months), we have also done group interviewing. The goal was to get the whole picture on which factors influence self-control education, and how much does the whole climate contribute or limit its development. Taking into account all above mentioned, we have chosen the qualitative type research. In that sense, for understanding and interpreting given data, it was extremely important to include examinees-teachers, who helped our evaluations through their own experience (implicit pedagogy). Finally, we mention that the research, done in the scope of a educational unit in Niksic, was not focused on size and representativeness of the sample, but on deeper analysis and understanding of chosen problem.

Results of researches and discussions

The first impression we got during our visit to the kindergarten was that it was a very comfortable place for learning and stay for children. Groups were divided in: day nursery, kindergarten for younger and older children. Taking into account that we wanted to determine which way teachers stimulate development of self-control in early age, we have chosen the long-term watching of the younger group of children.

The object was structured in the way that it was made of two separate classrooms for each of the above mentioned groups, with separate dining room. As we were informed by teachers, they were privileged in that sense, as in other units food is served in the classrooms. Door of the classrooms-bedrooms are almost always closed. Cloakroom is placed in the hall. After they arrive to the kindergarten with help of their parents, the children put on little slippers and put off their jackets. Neither teachers nor children wear uniforms. Teachers meet the children kindly and smiling.

In the study where the younger group of children stay there is a special desk for a teacher placed in the corner of the room; four tables placed according to interests, bookshelves with toys and didactical material, bookcases. On the walls there are works of children on a particular subject in a particular time period (domestic animals, pets, heralds of spring). Colours are vivid and warm, including those on carpet and curtains.

After usual roll-call, regime of the day is continued by going to breakfast, after which comes the work on specific activities (firstly on the level of the whole group, and later according to interest centres), finishing usually with some musical or activities for relaxation. After that comes lunch, going to sleep. How much the regime of the day is schematic, flexible, and how much it is a stimulant frame for development of self-control we conclude on the base of expressed opinions of teachers, as well as our direct insight.

According to statements of the teachers, there is no exclusive insisting on routine order, but there is possible flexibility with obligatory respect of behaviour rules. However, to the question is it possible to individualise schedule of activities (for example Do all children have to go to sleep at the same time), we got a reply: ``we cannot do that, that is not possible; they were learned to be quiet, although they don`t sleep; it could be done if there is a special room for sleeping``...``there are children who do not need day sleep, that is the reason why private kindergartens are favoured``. Other teachers would agree that children often refuse to go to the kindergarten because of day sleep. They mentioned lack of space as the major problem. ``We are aware that it would be good if we had a room where children who don`t sleep could stay, but the problem is exclusively technical``. One of the examinees said that she had seen it in some kindergartens in other towns, so changes in their kindergarten should be surely directed that way.

When it comes to time organisation, we have also got an impression that it is not flexible enough. Washing hands and consuming food is done on frontal level; there is queue and it is usually crowded. As well as for sleep regime, we got an explanation that no exceptions are made in that case, so there are rules and order, and that getting used to the same is important. We remind to contradictory we have expressed in the scope of theory organisation and that is that the children are asked to do what they are not ready for, and to adjust to current needs disregarding certain regime. Only treating children reflects perception of them as dependent on adults, and they are at the same time asked to adjust. Our attention was especially attracted by a child that constantly ``came out`` from ``a train`` coming with breakfast. A teacher commented it in a way: ``He has been here for months and hasn`t learnt to get into line yet``.

It also seems contradictory that teachers consider satisfaction of primary needs of a child as extremely important, but on the other side we haven`t noticed flexibility (individualisation) in their satisfaction. We have already mentioned satisfying of the need to sleep, and the similar is with food. All children go to breakfast and lunch at the same time; sit and wait for their portion. Possibilities for research are limited, taking into account that they are not allowed to pour tea or milk by themselves, and very often the food is broken into pieces. We emphasize example of a boy who was taking a cup and putting it on his ear to drink his tea. He would do it for several times, and his teacher would say to put it down. Only when the child sitting opposite his did the same with his cup, the teacher realised they were playing phones. There are not rare cases that the teacher feeds slower children.

We did not get the impression that study room ambient is stimulant for research. Materials and toys are available for children, but the teacher mostly has planned course of activities. Instead of free choice of activities, they are mostly selected by the teacher with explanation that ``the weaker ones cannot glue paper balls in drawn figure, but they can paint it``. Of course, question of freedom is made here as well. However, to the question ``How does the discipline start, what is the pre-condition for discipline, we`ve got a reply ``through likeability, attractiveness, we adjust activity to the age, focus attention, then we make a request``. Focus on work was apostrophe. There is an obvious gap between planned in advance set of activities and tasks on one side and focused attention and interest on the other side.

We have already emphasized that the environment in the watched kindergarten was not stimulant for research. That is contributed by prevailing isolating culture of the institution as well as absence of attractive material. Namely, groups are separated, and architectural solutions do not give possibility for any flexibility of space. Even the doors of studies, besides the fact that they are always closed, are wooden, and windows are high on the top, so we cannot speak about transparency in that part. In the studies, first of all, there is no enough space for free moving. In conversation with the teachers, we were given an explanation that only the study for the older group is bigger and that it is a unique case, not only in their kindergarten but wider, in the whole town. Besides the existing toys, picture books and prepared didactic material that we have noticed on arrival, there were no significant changes during the stay in the institution. The exception is a couple of toys which, as the teacher said, they had got from the older group. Natural materials were not exposed in the study, but the teacher would take them for in advanced prepared activities and selected them as needed. She would usually keep them out of children`s reach. As it comes to work according to interest centres, we emphasize that we have discovered through conversation that the children prefer construction centre, but not the rest of ``directed activities``. We will allow ourselves the statement that the centre was best equipped, which could be an indicator why the other centres are not stimulant. Anyway, there is certainly an open question remained, why this exact centre is favoured most.

In addition to flexible organisation, i.e. individualisation of activities there are statements that the program is flexible, that is is featured by work according to interest centres and thematic planning. ``Some topic started today could be finished the following day, the following week``. The goal for all of that is focusing attention, stimulating interest at children. However, the impression we got during our visit to the kindergarten refers to already prepared topics and activities coming out from it. Especially noticeable was the statement of a teacher: ``I prepare everything for the next week``. We appreciate an effort made in preparation of different materials for work, but taking into account current interest of children seems problematic. Such access was regularly repeated at other teachers as well. Namely, they emphasize the benefits of long-term occupation with a certain topic, but it seems that they don1t leave space for needs and interests that can interrupt already planned course of their activities. To the question do you act reflexively and which types of reflection to you often use, we got a reply ``we think, especially if we had an unusual situation, that is necessary, that`s our job like``. It seems that implicit pedagogies of a teacher do not differ much in that sense. Besides, we think that reflection as a kind of learning is not quite present in their work yet. We got confirmation for that through other indicators as well, and some of them will be mentioned in this paper. With the above mentioned we wanted to at least generally expose some elements referring to spacious-material and time dimension of context of the institution we visited. In the further exposing, we will focus on some of concrete indicators regarding self-control.

We consider extremely positive the fact that the teachers use their personal example to emphasize importance of self-discipline and self-control development. ``We have to be the example so they could follow us. You are a role model for everything (of behaviour, creating hygiene habits, indicating). We don`t miss the opportunity for learning from own mistakes, although it is hard in large groups. We have to show what is right-how to do hygiene habits, sit at the table, and behave according to Bonton- ``here you are, please...```. We also appreciate that the teachers recognise and use technique of ``time-out``. As they emphasize `` you have to control yourself, and in a nice way, smiling you can say anything``.

Discipline is, first of all, recognised as knowing and following the set of rules. ``Order, respect, mutual respect, rules in behaviour; order is followed since the day the children start coming to the kindergarten, we insist on mutual respect; we remind children on rules and order, especially in the first month of their arrival``. They emphasize how important it is that children want to cooperate in that process, i.e. if it is necessary to respect needs, wishes of the children and create a stimulant frame on that base. Our attention was attracted by the statement: `` Rules of behaviour are well known, they know how to behave in the study, in the garden; there is the furniture that is dangerous. We especially underlined the dangerous furniture, because this statement has stirred us to think whether it meant stimulating of self-protection or watching of a child as independent. We think that it is early for us to comment what is the background of this statement, which does not mean it can be indicative.

Delaying of impulse, pleasure as a pre-condition of self-control development, as the teachers emphasize, could be realised by verbalising, talk. We have often witnessed, during our visit to the kindergarten, the interpretation and explanation of different situations, stimulant for self-regulation. We mention some of them: ``Is that nice what Gojko did, you don`t touch temperas with hands, paint is infectious, isn`t it? Lazo, get up from the floor so we don`t step on the paint... We cannot discover who it is, our game will fail...``. Besides, the teachers emphasized necessary explicitly in making requests to the children. They emphasized in the conversation ``we have to be specific, if we don`t act clearly and concretely we cannot expect from the children to respect our requests``. Concreteness is necessary to get the reply and change of behaviour``. During survey we have also got the impression on explicit of request, for example ``listen carefully, take one strip each, do not crimple, then put the glue; take one popcorn and glue; now sit at the tables; who the teacher

call, he calls his friend; put back the crayons, we take only one...``. On the other side, we did not notice so much that the teachers use positive terms in establishing rules of behaviour. In conversation with them, we got an explanation why it is so. As they say, the children easily understand the statements such as ``is it nice, don`t hit him``, than ``tell him it is your turn``. It is certain that they are prone to making statements, explanations for certain situations and requests. Anyway, formulating of positive terms, as to the rule, is lacking. As they say, their formulations are not negative, nor extremely positive. They describe them as specified messages, with necessary individual access, and obligatory pleasant tone. ``We don`t use negative connotations, we tend to make child understand the request, saying it in a pleasant way``. On the base of the previously mentioned, it is certain that teachers explain why something is acceptable or unacceptable``. As they emphasize, that is especially important, because the children often don`t understand why is something problematic, why they get or do something. ``Even if we didn`t do that``, they say, ``the children ask for explanation``.

Consistent setting of limits of the children`s behaviour is especially important dimension. We did not doubt that they will be confirmed in the conversation, but we had to make a certain effort in watching the same, and on that foundation base conclusion. We could generally say (although we should take into account the time we spent in the kindergarten) that there is principle in setting the rules and then in following the same. We especially emphasize the statements of the teachers who said: ``we are trying to be consistent. If we make a mistake once, they use it. They can remember, they can learn, but also to use that if you are not consistent``. Such statements matched our estimations as well, as the cases of inconsistency that we have noticed, were mostly sporadic.

Further on, we paid attention to strategies of learning social norms, as a pre-condition of self-controlled behaviour. We asked the teachers what, of the given, they use the most: being a role model, replacement and redirection, setting of rules of behaviour or implementation of certain consequences (Walsh, 2001, str. 58). During the conversation, we have confirmed the importance of role model, the personal one, as well as looking at positive examples of children. As they say, those are the children being awarded for something, and therefore can be a stimulant role model for other children. In the further course of conversation we tended to identify what do the teachers do when a child tries to follow a rule?

In the most cases we got a reply that such behaviour is awarded. In the further course of conversation we saw that that is the common type of award and realised that those are not just awards, but they also use praise. There were the excellent comments as well, such as this one: ``they are the happiest when we give them sweets``. Further reconsidering justifiability of awards and praises, we realised that the teachers encourage the children (we saw it during the survey), and they use the praises in a moderate way, so they do not favour children and negatively influence confidence. Here we also had some unexpected statements that they got instructions during the specialisation that every procedure or made effort of the child should be praised, which is unjustifiable for the above mentioned reasons, in their opinion. We found helpful the words of encouragement, which we could hear very often: `` You do it really well``, ``Excellent, just go on with your work``, ``How come you cannot do it, we can all do it``... There were the negatively connoted, such as: ``Look at Gojko, he will never work with temperas again...``. Anyway, such statements were exceptional.

In the further course of conversation we actualised the question of sanctioning unacceptable behaviour. The teachers unanimously said that they do not apply punishing. During the survey we noticed that the teachers used to say ``you will be punished`` when communicating with children. Emphasizing the system of logical consequences, as positive and above all helpful solution, we realised that it is still mot a part of their repertoire of behaviour. As the examinees emphasized, it is not ``really practical`` to ask from a child to clean the spilled milk, because he gets stained``. It happens sporadically: ``only when they throw bread on each others, they pick up the crumbs``.

In the theoretical part of the paper we have emphasized the importance of social interactions in relation teacher-child and mutual interactions of children. It is searching of compromise suiting the ZPD of a child. In accordance with that, we asked the teachers if they are prone to reduce help and control when they notice that the child can do independently. Replies we got are quite confusing: ``Yes, persistence is important``, ``I don`t allow them to give up, although they are not good at it, you saw when they were making the balls``, `` In dependence on situation and activity``, ``You must have control and mustn`t leave the child alone``. In order to complete and in a way clear our the given replies, we asked them if they could immediately respond to current problems. Unlike the previous question, here we got explicit reply that you must have patience, make sub-questions, instruct work, getting to reply and check the understanding. They have also explained additionally that –it all depends what is the purpose of the task; in some situations it is completely irrelevant whether we will immediately say the colour, if the point is something else, but if the purpose is to recognise a colour, they will certainly not get a ready reply``.

In order to approach any generalisation in this part, we have to get back to the beginning analysis of context and prevailing interactions in it. Namely, planned activities the teachers start to realise on frontal level (through storytelling,

poem, etc), after which comes again planned set of activities done according to interest centres. In that spirit, communication on the level of the centre itself is continued, with prevailing frontal requests. There are occasionally some individual referring, such as: ``Do you need my help?... Just don`t pass the line``, ``I`m coming Aco, just after I help Dik``, ``You don`t need help, you can do it by yourself``. There is certainly will and tendency to realise a certain task through support and that they, according to the need, are reduced or redirected to the other children. Anyway, it seems problematic the whole way of acting, starting from spacious-material dimension of context, work in the centres, unattractive material... Teachers on theoretical level understand the essence of discipline, as they understand the importance of thematic planning and work in accordance to needs, abilities and interests of children. However, spirit of collective discipline (rules of behaviour and the same regime for all), absence of cooperation in the widest sense of word and planned activities are contradictory to previously mentioned theoretical postulates.

It is noticeable that the teachers already have the need to realise planned activities, disregarding possible variations in interests of children. That was contributed by the managing role of the teacher during realisation of the given activities. Besides that, they would often reduce chance for research in a way that, in our opinion, they did some activities instead of let the children do them (putting glue, prepared paints...). Besides all that, directive communication, placing giving instructions in the first plan, requests worth for all, contributed creating of climate more suitable for teaching than independent, spontaneous research.

Taking into account the range of this paper, we note that we won`t be occupied with the question of peer interaction more studiously. Anyway, we will generally mention some of the indicators that are important for self-control and that give us a whole picture of overall context of the surveyed institution.

During the interviews, the teachers emphasized the importance of the mentioned interaction. According to them, structure of the group is extremely important. According to their statements, the group we watched is much worse than those in previous years. Then they explained to us that it corresponded with family structures, styles of parenthood, etc. They think that the problems are negative role models that the children look up to.

``Children look up to their peers, they rather adopt negative models, which we certainly try to prevent... ``if a friend painted something precisely is less relevant than if someone upturned a chair``...``if one or two children adopt it, they will explain to the third child``.

On the base of survey we got the impression that, in a few times, elaborated style of work does not leave space for truly cooperation and on that foundation based learning. Even if an activity was imagined for a group, there is no real interaction between children. When we apostrophe the above mentioned in conversation with the teachers, they told us that taking into account the age, it is illusory to expect that the child will manage in a group, so it is justifiable to use pair work. Again, we have to get back to common way of work, which is not adjusted to individual interests, nor it has characteristics of problematic, provoked learning. In that sense, we could mention again the lack of attractive material, as well as inflexible organisation according to interest centres. As there is mostly individual work even in the group, the children are not able to develop the feeling of closeness and acceptance. Such ``group`` work does not offer chance for truly exchanging of ideas, as the teacher does not leave the space for spontaneous dialogue among them, nor prepare activities that could be focused on accomplishment of the common goal, which gives the cooperation the real sense. We have to keep shortly on the statement that ``if one or two children adopt it, they will explain to the third child``. Here, as well as in other places, we get indicators offering optimism.

Disregarding the previously described context of the visited institution, we consider that certain indicators, regarding discipline, are positive.

Conclusion

Theoretical, as well as empirical interpretation of our subject of study, we started with the story on context. In that sense, we especially emphasized the spacious-material and time dimension of context.

Spacious-material dimension is featured by a quite dysfunctional space (isolated studies, insufficiency of material, inadequate architectural solutions etc.). Anyway, optimism is still reflected in bookshelves, cloakrooms available to children and bottles, warm colours...

Time dimension is recognised as ``common regime of work``, in the scope of which, disregarding individual needs and tempo, hygiene habits are practiced, they have breakfast, lunch, go to sleep...``stay in the kindergarten is a pattern, it is determined when they come, when they have breakfast, sleep``, the teachers say.

Environment, i.e. the whole climate has the seal of teaching. Namely, the prevailing frontal start of activities at the beginning of the day, over planned activities according to interest centres, to insufficiently and stimulant material.

Above mentioned refer to presence of isolating culture, as well as to insufficient awareness (reflection) of the own practice. This, all the more, if we take into account the statements of the teachers on necessary individualisation, thematic study and stimulation of children`s interests, and which are opposite to their practical work.

Starting from such an implicit pedagogy of the teacher, we reconsidered the frame of discipline and in the scope of them chance of self-control development. That way we concluded that it is insisted on:

Following the rules of behaviour,

Explicit requests,

Explanations,

Consistent in establishing of limits of the children`s behaviour...

The above mentioned should be added motivation with praises and encouragements, but also insufficient implementation of logical consequences in purpose of sanctioning unacceptable behaviour and stimulation of the acceptable. Although here mentioned statements stimulate self-regulation, there is the question in which measure it is possible in the previously described context, and what is their reach. According to what was seen, it seems that it is more about discipline in collective spirit than behaviour motivated by self-control.

We have especially emphasized the nature of interaction between the teacher and child in the prism of context of the visited institution. Teacher usually invites all children to take part in activities, disregarding their interests. Therefore they all have the same requests in front of them, and they are all given general instructions. That certainly emphasizes traditional role of the teacher, and on damage of the watching, listening, planning one. That way, the already well-known teaching of Vigotsky on the zone of proximal development is put in the second plan. It is not difficult to conclude that on described foundation based communication is mostly linear. With no pretension to widely elaborate interaction between children, we have generally mentioned it, as it is extremely important in the self-regulation process. The previously indicated interaction and communication from relation teacher-child has been undoubtedly transferred to mutual relations of the children. Direction of all to listen to the story, to work mostly on their own tasks in groups, to be motivated more to exchange in their own, and especially with other groups, the consequence was mutual mistrust, non-acceptance, even conflicts. It is not hard to conclude that in such conditions, chances for cooperative learning are limited.

Finally, we state how much the described context is stimulant for teaching self-control. Maybe it is the best in that sense to pay attention to the prefix only. Is the child in the surveyed conditioned treated as independent, autonomous, i.e. dependent and helpless? It is clear that we cannot conclude on self-control non-contextually, and if we o it, we find reply in the other part of the mentioned question. Therefore, the attention is paid to discipline, but the circumstances in which teachers act, as well as their implicit pedagogies, should be quite modified in order to develop self-control at children at those bases.

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A qualitative approach to organizational analysis - The applicability of qualitative studies through the Critical Incidents Technique in the implementation of organizational development programs –

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Abstract

A qualitative approach in a organizationl diagnosis process has the purpose of identifying the elements that generate performance and the ones which may require improvement, and which the organization itself can control. The instruments used in qualitative studies can help to accurately point out the organizational profile by conducting interviews with key people in organizations (mainly from managerial level, and key people- specialists in certain business lines). Applying a series of techniques to describe the current situation in an organization in terms of organizational climate, culture, norms and values promoted at informal level is necessary in order to customize organizational organizational development programs on specific company needs. The CIT (Critical Incidents Technique) promotes the use of qualitative techniques in order to accurately capture specific situations (in organizational context) that may destabilize the activities of an organization. Critical incidents are understood herein as problmes/situations that require new approaches in order for them to be resolved. If an organization goes through a set of planned changes, critical incidents are seen as constructs that may be directly observed through qualitative methodology. Critical incidents can have a positive impact if they are supported by setting clear objectives and standarized actions considered in the current critical incident. Qualitative study through CIT presumes defining the specific organizational profile of a company, the type of relations that exist within it, of the behaviours, values and habbits that are promoted internaly in order to see what are the processes that are affected by organizational change. This paper is due to the empirical study of an organization which is undergoing a process of change due to the recent takeover by a foreign investment fund; the research involves identifying key points that can optimize the development program of the organization and facilitate implementation of the change process by outlining best practices applicable to the company and by poining out the common elements of the curent organizational culture and the one that is implemented.

Keywords: Organizational analysis, qualitative study, Critical Incidents Technique, Organizational Change

1.Theoretical definition of the Critical Incidents Technique and aplicability in organizational context

The Critical Incidents Studies cover a very wide range of fields, with applications in the field of combined structures –based on human relations- formed with the purpose of fullfiling a common goal. The critical incidents technique was developed by John Flanagan in order to see what are the aspects affecting pilots ability of learning to fly- prior explanations consisted often in ambiguous statements, without being clearly defined what are the reasons why pilots have certain behaviors (positive or negative) in learning exercises. Flanagan's technique was used to pinpoint the reasons for the pilots acting in a certain way in the learning process. According to Rogers, the essence of CIT is to capture „experiences of communication ", both negatively and positively charged depending on the implications they may have. (Rogers, 2005)

In organizational environments the critical incident analysis aims at identifying factors that are not part of the routine of a company, or of the standardized activities that have a range of known actions undertaken by employees. Critical incident technique requires prior analysis of the factors that are included in the conceptualization of planned change (as further development of an organization) that destabilizes the company's internal system.

Using CIT in organizational analysis implies a qualitative approach, oriented on precise measurement of behavior patterns, interests and values that may be found in an organization and the way they affect the company's well being. To analyse an organization through qualitative methodology means that the point of interest is to highlight specific issues of the company. In the study of change the relevance of a qualitative approach is given by the level of depth that the insight acquired through interviews may have for the change process The analysis of the current situation in an organization going through a change process involves identifying operational models considered valid by the members of the company by structuring key elements that people identify as being important for execution of organizational tasks.

Flanagan designed CIT in order to define what are the functional specifications of certain mechanisms that depend on interconnected structures – reffering to human relations-.

The term „critical" has created controversy due to its nature to emphasize the studied traits. CIT method – referenced to human behavior - states that the term „critical" defines extreme behaviors (which can be both efficient and inefficient) in atypical situations (Flanagan, 1954).

„Incidents" can make reference to actual situations that were modeled as atypical behaviors. In short, the term „critical" marks a certain behaviors intensity on a specific case, the term „incident" defining the event itself (Cope&Watts, 2000).

Today, critical incidents can be observed in the majority of multinational organizations. The fact that in low income areas small and medium bussiness are being taken over by large corporations with similar bussiness area of interest means that changes in organizational culture, climate and strategic vision are due for. Local entrepreneurship organizations go through a process of adaptation to new work processes, different values and work procedures when they are taken over by multinational companies. Therefore, takeovers by foreign investment funds bring a natural process of organizational change. Implementation of organizational changes (defined herein as development processes) are the adaptation of employees to new work methods, different procedures and different management styles. Problems can arise often, misunderstanding due to differences between working methodologies proposed by management and the way they are perceived and accepted by member of the company. Problems of this type are due to cultural differences- this being a factor of resistance to change.

Resistances to change bring a need for accurate understanding of the current situation in which an organization is positioned in order to be surpassed. In this sense, development programs can be calibrated to the needs of employees and structures can be improved in order to function at full capacity. Applying CIT does not explain the reasons behind the existence of cultural differences but generates significant insights in order to see which elements are affected by cultural differences- the organizational context, the relationships within a company etc. (Wight, 1995). Approaching the analysis of an organization during a period of change from a qualitative perspective can improve its development by modifying (calibrating) in order to improve job satisfaction and employee performance. Qualitative techniques in organizational analysis can contribute to the definition of process maps and help optimize the defined roles in a company (Serat, 2010).

2.CIT applicability in organizations

CIT Analysis can be used to help companies plan, evaluate and calibrate development programs (Hetlage, 2006). For the implementation of a CIT program it is necessary to clearly define the issues that are to be investigated in order to create a valid structure for a specific case.

The use of CIT is aimed at pointing out practical solutions of overcoming incidents, and standardizing certain actions in organizations with the purpose of optimizing processes; CIT is implemented through 5 stages (Flanagan, 1954):

-Establish the purpose of the study

-Establish the work plan and the company's specifications

-Data collection

-Data analysis

-Data interpretation

The general purpose of the qualitative study consists in identifying the exact profile of the organization's structure, of the type of relationship that are developed in the company, the behaviors that are promoted, among with the values and habbits that are encouraged informally.

3.Company description

The company in which the study was conducted has a total of 165 employees, and is enlisted in the industry sector, and is in the process of developing a new product line. A qualitative approach was used to identify the firm's strenghts and needs for development as a result of its takeover by a foreign investement fund. The company was taken over a year ago, time in which there have been changes in operational structures, sales and support. Turnover has increased due to the financial power provided by the investment fund and the pressure on results is getting higher. With the aim to improve employee performance and create a common identity between the company and it's personnel, the company's management has

started the implementation of development programs with the goal of improving individual performance of key employees and optimize working processes. These programs include phases of coaching and mentoring at management, technical trainings and programs focused on developing a common organizational culture in order to increase the overall level of satisfaction. In this respect, the study of critical incidents helps in viewing differences between the organization and employees at a value level, and help calibrating development programs in a manner consistent with the needs perceived by employees.

4.Qualitative research methodology

The qualitative approach used for data collection requires the use of specific tools that can define the organizational profile of the company

Table nr.1- conducting the study

Activity	Individual interviews with company managers and key specialists that have more than 1 year seniority within the company
Purpose of the activity	To emphasize the perception that key people have about the company; to identify the potential for growth of the organization
Establishing individual interviews	Semi-structured interviews with key people in the organization
Critical Incidents	Atypical situations that respondents face-what are the factors that generate critical incidents and what actions lead to resolve / standardize these situations.
Analyzed dimension	Company-perception towards the company, and to the changes that have been made; how corporate values are understood by respondents. Organizational climate- perception of respondents about the degree in which members of the company collaborate and about the general working atmosphere Management- how respondents consider the company is lead by managers Training and career development- ways to improve training processes Commitment towards the company - perception of commitment at company level

The research addresses the management team (top management and middle management of the organization), amounting to a total of 10 people that will undergo interviews based on a semi-structured interview guide to achieve the objectives of the study.

Table nr. 2- data collection

Participants	The company's management team

Data collection method	Semi-structured interview with each manager
General aspects pursued in the interview (focus on certain directions)	Present your work in the company referring to both routine matters and atypical problems?
	Did recent changes affect your job?
	What do you think about the way the company is managed?
	What do you thing could be improved?
	Do you have knowledge about the company's strategic objectives?
	What suggestions do you have for improving performance in the company?
	What is your opinnion about the degree of collaboration within the company?
	How do you personally collaborate with you subordinate and your colleagues from other departments?

5. Interpretation of the results

As mentioned in previous chapters, the purpose of the research was to identify the key elements (both positive and negative) that define the profile of the organization in terms of its culture. Thus, as a result of the interviews we could identify that some of the most important values are Trust, Continuity, Sustainability.

Those values are well cascaded into the behaviors expected at group level, some of those being well exercised at present, others being still in need of development but having promising premises. In this respect, it is to be considered that the current organization has deep roots in the previous culture which created strong collective beliefs and habits that do not necessarily match the new ways which are endorsed by the company. The takeover of the company changed aspects regarding operational requirements and procedures and shifting the company's norms and values to a western result oriented approach. The more recent focus on a new and more complex business sector adds new challenges in this constant change process. In carrying out their activities, managers and employees with a high level of seniority in the organization compare the differences between the new vision and the one of the old company. People generally feel appreciated and well treated. However, there is a need for offering and receiving positive feedback more manifestly and consistently – for celebrating successes and for making explicit to a person that the company appreciates what he/ she does. People appreciate collective treatment and support, but feel the need for individual differentiation. As such, concerns appear related to a general feeling of inequity – „although as a team we all well treated and appreciated, individually I feel that my contribution is not enough known and appreciated."

Identified Critical Incidents:

The company's focus on sincerity – The communication within the organization is open and direct, unaffected by formalisms, hierarchical barriers or fears of punishment. However, given the previous history of the company, people still do not have the natural habit to discuss – they share ideas, give feedback and look together for solutions, but they have not developed 'real conversations' that involve getting to understand what and why the other one is thinking at a more profound level. The management team encourages those, but they still need to develop the mindset and skill for putting emphasis on this type of conversations and making them general practice. As opposed to the old company culture where the focus was strictly on individual performance was setting barriers in communication between departments and also between employees.

As a critical incident, the focus on sincerity has positive effects on the company- treating this as a driving factor for the development of new ways of interaction can impact the organization at all its levels.

Quotes from interviews:

„"People are beginning to understand that without open communication there can be no cooperation".

"Compared with the old company, I see that the new leadership encourages good relationships and positive climate in the workplace"

"Certainly the role of the company is to make money, and management doesn't lose sight of this. But they also visualize the mechanisms behind the turnover and profit numbers and are aware that it is important to treat others honestly and fairly. "

Lack of personal initiative for achieving performance – For the same reasons related to previous history, people maintain a concern for self-preservation. They are less inclined to take risks as not to make mistakes and lose what they have gained. They may not be always keen to propose or accept an innovative idea, or work on a new technology, so as not to fail and lose the gained statute of good expert in the eyes of the others. Peer approval seems to be very important- complexity and change raise some fears, as most employees have worked for years on a certain system and may feel they cannot keep up with the growing requests.

The lack of personal initiative can be enlisted as a critical incident in terms of being a behavior that blocks individual performance. There is a clear need for improvement in the majority of employees regarding initiative. Focus on inspiring self confidence can lead to successful outcomes in terms of individual performance.

Quotes from interviews:

"My people lack initiative- they do not seek solutions for problems they could handle. Maybe the last changes made them more insecure; perhaps they think they could get fired. "

"The new technology requires the use of injection; we all learn together the specifications on injection technologies; the problem is that people have emotions, not opinions, and they don't try to come up with solutions; they rather expect to come from somewhere else. In short, they are afraid to make mistakes. "

Commitment – The employees display a high level of pride to work in the company. Some of this is surely related to the low availability of work in the region, so people appreciate job security. Also, the stability gained by attaching the company to a larger organization that invests in improvement and the possibility to grow alongside a proficient organization are motivational aspects for continuing/beginning a career. People feel that they have learned and grown with the company and value their professional experience here. Also they appreciate the friendly and respectful atmosphere, giving them a high level of personal comfort and dignity in the workplace – essential in terms of organizational commitment. In this sense, commitment to the organization can be perceived as a common element between the old organizational culture and the one proposed by the new management. People trust in the changes made by the company, considering that the organization invests in them. The fact that the staff has a high commitment to the company reduces resistance to change helping to maintain a high satisfaction level and facilitating the implementation of development programs offered by the company.

As a critical incident, commitment to the company can be considered important in maintaining a high level of cohesion in the organization.

Quotes from interviews:

"After seven years of working in this company it feel like finally positive changes are made; In the last year I saw changes, and although there have been cases of people getting fired, I strongly believe that the company has invested in us as a team."

"I for one have no reason to complain. I was sent to various trainings and new procedures were created to help me understand better what I have to do; the only problem is the pressure on results, and the feeling of uncertainty. But i think that they will be resolved in a year. We just need to get used to the new rules. "

Inequity among workers- Managers' commitment to performance also means rewarding proper behaviors, good ideas and actions as to clearly differentiate those employees from the mediocre comfortable ones, while penalizing inadequate attitudes and constantly low performance. The organization lacks active orientation towards a meritocratic culture. *Faptul ca recompensele si sistemul de bonusare nu sunt suficient de clare pentru angajati constituie o problema neintalnita in vechea organizatie*. The conducted interviews show that people are not satisfied of the way wages are calculated in comparisons with other colleagues. A reward system based on meritocratic criteria can help establish a profile of competence in the company and a feeling of employee identification with the company's values.

Quotes from interviews:

"People still come with complaints regarding bonuses and I keep repeating that there is nothing I can do; I wonder why there are seniority bonuses and not performance bonus among blue collar workers. That I think is a problematic situation that needs to be solved."

Conclusions

The organizational culture key elements and patterns of thinking at organizational level seem to be oriented in three directions:

Organizational commitment – The conducted interviews show that people perceive their own values as being consistent with the objectives and the values of the company. Their commitment is influenced by loyalty to the company that built their professional career, and by emotional attachment. There is a high level of enthusiasm and openness in receiving tasks and in doing all it takes to accomplish them, as workers identify themselves with their positions.

Improving outcomes – Focus on continuous improvement of processes and interest in aligning the company to the group in terms of operational practices and results. Quality is a main concern for managers and there is an expressed interest in applying the larger organizational vision for a long term perspective, as well as an intrinsic and personal drive for self-development (long-term career focus).

Developing relationships – Implementing the organizational strategy as well as the well-being of the organization is considered to depend on quality relationships between the members, both internally and in relationships with the company. People tend to place a strong focus on building and maintaining good quality relations amongst themselves and with employees, and a positive atmosphere at work, in this respect being focused rather on the collective than on the individual.

The purpose of the study was to capture the main elements of the organizational culture of the company through semi-structured interviews with the purpose of identifying factors that are perceived as being positive in the organization but also the development needs that can be solved by implementing development programs.

Critical incidents – defined in this paper as atypical cases that are going through a standardization process- were used for shaping specifications of the organizational culture in order to have an accurate description of the current state of the organization.

To adress organizational analysis from a qualitative perspective defines organizational culture at a level felt by all the organization's personnel, and not only from a point in which certain aspects are only communicated throughout formal communication channels. The values of a company and the implementation of the principles that guide it are felt through the relationship that managers have with employees but also through they way that the company invests in maintaining good relations between it's representatives and it's clients.

A qualitative CIT analysis that is focused on defining organizational culture can help organizations optimize personnel turnover and achieve high performance through positive people oriented management systems.

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Dirty Realism in Carver's Work

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Abstract

Dirty realism is the fiction of American authors who write about the dark side of contemporary life. Raymond Carver is one of the best representatives of this generation. His stories constitute a new voice in fiction. In fact, he writes about ordinary things in a simple language that depicts the pain and suffering rather than hope. His literary world reflects the chaotic life of his characters which results in short stories about unhappy marriages and people who continue living a futile life just because there is nothing else left to do. Carver's aim is to convey through language and symbols the special moments when these people's empty lives are separated from chaos. These stories are set in the North-Eastern part of the Pacific Ocean and revolve around the lives of farmers, alcoholics, secretaries, mechanics and other ordinary people. They appear in familiar surroundings and focus on trivial issues and what is more they are endowed with subtle descriptions of objects given through regional dialect. It is his skill to understand and portray the sensations of the characters that shows how the real life of common people in the years '70s and '80s in the USA really was. In this paper I intend to make a detailed analysis of the features of this dark realism in Carver's work.

Keywords: dirty realism, chaotic, symbols, trivial issues, regional dialect

Introduction

There are authors who are verbose and others who are spare. Not only does Raymond Carver fall in the latter category, he is also the master of the understatement. In fact, he is considered as one of the greatest short story writers of the 20th century (it has been said that he revitalized the short story form by the time he died in 1988). He wrote to the literary movements of minimalism and dirty realism. His fiction explores grief, loneliness, infidelity, insecurity and escape.

The "dirty realism", which deals with middle-class characters and is focused on the harsh realities of their ordinary lives became popular in the 1980s. It was Granta, a highly regarded literary journal which coined the label dirty realism in 1983 for which Buford wrote an explanatory introduction:

"Dirty realism is the fiction of a new generation of American authors. They write about the belly-side of contemporary life – a deserted husband, an unwed mother, a car thief, a pickpocket, a drug addict – but they write about it with a disturbing detachment, at times verging on comedy. Understated, ironic, sometimes savage, but insistently compassionate, these stories constitute a new voice in fiction."

It is the dirty realism that describes a writing style whose aim is to create realistic and sad destinies. Dirty Realism is often about people living a sad lifetime with problems such as drug and alcohol abuse, divorce. It is a form of minimalism characterized by a reduction of words and a focus on surface description. Authors like Carver avoid using adverbs and prefer allowing context and in that way there will be less to interpret on our own compared to Minimalism. The characters in dirty realist stories and novels tend to be ordinary, unremarkable people, often with few resources and little money.

What is typical about "dirty realism" is the distinctive style characterised by sparse prose, simple language, and direct descriptions of ordinary people and events. For instance, the opening of the stories is too simple: "This blind man, an old friend of my wife's, he was on his way to spend the night."[1] Its characters are unexceptional and live in unexceptional situations. The all live in the cities and the majority are workers, adulterers , alcoholics, women or ethnic minorities, people who experience estrangement, loneliness and disillusionment every single day of their lives. As a result, they have become tough, their dialogues are elliptical. The metropolitanism is gone to give way to the rural American and often inarticulate, unsophisticated protagonists. These working poor people have to sell their labour or even their bodies in order to survive and who might at any time lose everything, including the basic dignities that make human beings human.

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[1] Carver, Raymond. Cathedral. New York: Vintage Contemporaries, 1989.

Dirty realism focuses on the sadness and loss in the everyday lives of ordinary people – usually lower-middle class or marginalized people. Raymond Carver is the author who epitomizes the dirty realism with his condensed, terse and graceful stories. He successfully employs omissions, uses spaces between the words to give a sense of evanescent and elusive feelings. The style is colloquial and conversational especially in the story "The Cathedral": "She read stuff to him… that sort of thing." There is a lack of obvious imagery or metaphor: "In the movies, the blind moved slowly and never laughed." There is repetition – "this blind man", "a blind man", "the blind man"; and overuse of pronouns, with many instances of 'he' and 'she'. It is flat and spare: "His wife had died, so he was visiting the dead wife's relatives." There is a sense that the prose is somehow constricted, as is the narrator himself: the restrictive style mirrors the narrator's restricted views on life. Carver said of his prose style, "Prose is architecture. And this isn't the baroque age."1

1. The Characters, Language, Style in Carver's Works

His focus is on the simple ritual of everyday life by giving all his attention to the concrete and avoiding all possible abstractions. In his short stories he describes emotions, disappointments and relationships with simplicity and stoicism. In them, the characters are ordinary, in unremarkable occupations, and often lack money, something that becomes the reason for an internal desperation. They are depressed, without education or prospects, but who fail to give up even when it would be in their best interest.

It is difficult to read about the characters personalities, actions, and flaws- to distinguish between the characters mistakes and who they were as people. Did Carver intend them to be viewed as protagonists or antagonists? In these messy stories, it is clear that he develops his characters so that no person is completely innocent or guilty. Unlike the works of many other writers, Carver leaves it to the reader to decide, who, if any of these people, is truly a victim or villain. In asking his readers to go deeper into the psyches of his characters, the reader is encouraged to evolve alternate methods of viewing certain lifestyles, choices, and mistakes. The readers finish these stories recognizing that passing judgment on others is too simple.

Carver has taken the "dirty" reality of day-to-day life and explored it. His characters feel like real people, their lives look like real lives, their relationships are complex and personal. The story Signals is a perfect example. It opens with Wayne and Caroline being seated at a new, expensive restaurant owned by a mysteriously famous European man named Aldo. All seems nice, they're excited. Slowly, things unravel. Wayne was upset and starts complaining about poor service that isn't. Then he's projecting angry, disconnected emotions on Aldo, the server, and other patrons. Finally, the reader gets to see the heart of it: Wayne and Caroline's marriage is in serious trouble (and Wayne feels it's her fault).

"They looked at each other as they drank.

'We ought to do this more often, ' he said.

She nodded.

'It's good to get out now and then. I'll make more of an effort if you want me to.'

She reached for celery. 'That's up to you.'

'That's not true! It's not me who's…who's…'

'Who's what?' she said.

'I don't care what you do, ' he said, dropping his eyes.

'Is that true?'

'I don't know why I said that, ' he said" (223).

It gets deeper and deeper and ends unresolved. It's not classic short story form: it's true-life. There's no "magic, " in it but it still can engage the reader. "I'm against tricks that call attention to themselves in an effort to be clever or merely devious, " he said to one interviewer. "I'm not interested in works that are all texture and no flesh and blood. I guess I'm old fashioned enough to feel that the reader must somehow be involved at the human level."2

Carver's work is the narrative of the middle-class. It focuses on contemporary fashion, on our culture's obsession with looking good and being hip, on the trendiness of dance clubs and jeans and alcohol and drugs and sex and on our consumer society packed with brand names. Carver is the writer who believes that the reader can smell, see, and touch. Moreover,

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1 Sklenicka, Carol. Raymond Carver: A Writer's Life. New York: Scribner, 2009.
2 Carroll, Maureen and Stull, William L. Remembering Ray. Santa Barbara: Capra Press, 1993

we find a narrative that believes in its own logic: in chronology, in plot, in psychology, in selfhood. This is the universe where content is privileged over form and where language is transparent.

Carver's use of first person narrative, ambiguity, epiphany, and symbolism are the technical aspects explored that emphasize the plight of the foreclosed and diffused character who must break free of the bonds of passivity by stepping forward into moratorium. What he does in his stories is combine weariness with wonder, cruelty of life with a moment of relief. In order to achieve that he avoids adverbs, extended metaphor and internal monologue, instead allowing objects and context to dictate meaning.

The characters in his fiction are exhausted with life. Their dialogue is spare and elliptical. It is usually cynical and ironic, concerned with what is below the surface, with the disjunction between what is said and what is meant. The stories are short on plot, short on action, short on explication, sometimes as fractured and dislocated. Arthur Saltzman calls Carver the "Connoisseur of the Commonplace." He claims that Carver depicts the cramped conditions of working-class existence with genuine sympathy and authority. He also points out that Carver's work is characterized by an avoidance of extensive rumination. He uses short sentences and sparse dialogue to effectively highlight the silencing of the working class. As writer and critic Brian A. Oard puts it: The Carveresque image allows the reader to glimpse the terrible waste of his characters' lives (something the characters themselves can sometimes feel but rarely see) and forces the reader to reconsider the entire story in the image's dark light.

His stories are short, his language is stark, his characters are uncomplicated and his symbols are basic. None of this, however, implies poverty of meaning as Carver's short stories are about the meaning of life, the meaning behind relationships and the meaning underscoring human action (Hallett, pp. 488-89). As Carver himself explains in "On Writing, " short stories are "glimpses" of life and, more importantly, "illuminating" glimpses[1] (p. 17). In other words, from Carver's point of view, even though they are nothing more than a brief glimpse at a particular moment in life, short stories illuminate one's understanding of life, insofar as they are focused, concentrated and in-depth `glimpses.'

2.Major Themes

Carver repeats several essential themes that coincide with the reading of most stories in his work.

2.1 Delusion

In the majority of Carver's stories characters are unaware of the truth. Sometimes this is implicit, while other times it is very clear.

In "Feathers, " Jack and Fran are not happy but realize it only when they visit Bud and Olla. They understand the isolation that reigns in their lives and try to change that by having a child.

In "Chef's House, " Edna and Wes pretend that they are changing their dull lives through their vacation at Chef's. But that will end one day and they will have to face their problems again.

In "Careful, " Lloyd believes he is recovering from his alcoholism, even though he drinks champagne for breakfast. This is another delusion in his life.

In "Fever, " Carlyle convinces himself that he is over Eileen, but it's not until his sickness brings out his confession to Mrs. Webster that he realizes how much he has been tied to the past.

In "The Bridle, " Marge is not aware of how unhappy she is. But she lacks the strength to see her loneliness and tries and befriends Betty, instead relying on a pretense that her job is important and that her identity as a stylist is meaningful.

In "Cathedral, " on the other hand, the narrator does not confront his loneliness. Instead, he turns his unhappiness towards others, attacking people even for their disabilities (as with Robert). It's not until Robert forces himself into the narrator's life that the latter realizes he is lonely and desperately seeks more from life.

2.2 Change, Insecurity, Control, Conflict

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[1] Carver, Raymond. "On Writing." Fires: Essays, Poems and Short Stories by Raymond Carver. Santa Barbara: Carver Press, 1983.

In Jerry and Molly and Sam it can be noticed the theme of change, insecurity, guilt, control and conflict. The story is narrated in the third person by an unnamed narrator. Carver explores the theme of insecurity. Al, the main protagonist in the story, is worried about his job in Aerojet. Though he has been there for nearly three years, he still knows his job is not secure. Carver also explores insecurity again later in the story when Betty (Al's wife) tells Al that 'It's us! It's us! I know you don't love me any more –goddamn you! – but you don't even love the kids.' Not only is Betty insecure but what she tells Al also highlights the idea of conflict (internal) within Betty.

The theme of conflict is explored in the story when the reader discovers that Al is having an affair and that 'he didn't know what to do about it.' Again this would be an internal conflict (for Al). The other theme, that of change is also noticeable several times in the story. First there is the fact that Al believes by getting rid of Suzy (his lover), it will be the beginning of a positive change in his life. He knows he needs to change, though he is misguided to believe that by getting rid of Suzy, it will be the right change. There are also other examples in the story that highlight the lack of change in Al's life. First there is Molly in the bar. After Al leaves and is driving to Jill's house, Carver tells the reader that Al felt 'if he'd been in a different frame of mind, he could have picked her up.'[1] This is significant as it highlights that Al hasn't changed. The reader will recall that he picked Jill up in a bar. He is doing the exact same thing again (no change) but this time with a different woman. The other incident in which there is no change is more symbolic. After he has had his shave, Al decides to have a shower and doesn't change his clothes. This further highlights that not only does Al need to change clothes (he slept in them) but he also needs to change his life (stop having affair). However, in all probability he won't.

There are also several examples in the story which suggest to the reader the theme of control. There is the fact that Al is aware that he needs to reshape his life. He incorrectly believes that the first step in regaining control of his life is by getting rid of Suzy. Also the reader is aware that Al is having an affair with Jill. Though the narrator tells the reader that Al didn't know what to do about it, it further suggests an awareness (from Al) that not only does he need to change but he has to look at this affair with Jill in order to again, regain some sort of control in his life. Jerry, the barman in the story, though he is only briefly mentioned, is also significant. Significant because he can fix Molly's washing machine motor. This in some ways mirrors what Al is trying to do, he is trying to fix his life, to regain control over it.

The ending of the story is also significant as it suggests the theme of guilt, conflict and change. As Al is driving and looking for Suzy, it is obvious that he is continuing to feel guilty about having abandoned her. The narrator tells the reader that Al felt that 'A man who would get rid of a little dog wasn't worth a damn.' Just after this statement the reader learns that Al, 'He knew the situation was all out of proportion now but he couldn't help it.' Not only does this suggest an internal conflict within Al but on a different level it also suggests that Al is fully aware that there is a need for change in his life and getting rid of Suzy was not the type of change that Al needed. It also suggests a lack of control as Al isn't able to control what is happening in his life.

Carver closes the story with symbolism, for change. The reader is already aware that Al considers Suzy to be stupid. However, despite his opinion of Suzy, Al is relieved to have found her, 'he didn't feel so bad, all things considered. The world was full of dogs. There were dogs and there were dogs. Some dogs you just couldn't do anything with.' The last statement in the story is important as it not only suggests that Suzy will remain the same but also possibly Al too, despite his awareness and wish to control or change his life, he may not actually do so.

2.3 Isolation/Loneliness

Most of Carver's characters are separated from others, either physically or emotionally. Sometimes they are aware of this, while some others are unaware of how much their loneliness affects them.

In "Feathers, " Fran and Jack live apart from others. They don't have much social interaction, and Fran attempts to stop them from visiting Jack's friend. Where Bud and Olla are also isolated physically, they nevertheless seem to be entirely happy in their world. The idea of having a child makes them further apart from one another.

In "Chef's House, " both Wes and Edna live lonely lives. Edna talks only about having a "friend" who she leaves to join Wes. Their relationships with others hold little weight, and so they try too hard to have what they've lost from one another. They are even isolated from their children. This is what drives them to try to create a kind of relationship but that unfortunately does not result as such.

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[1] Collected Stories .New York: Penguin Group, 2009.

In "The Compartment, " Myers lives an isolated life in which he sees few people. His trip to Europe represents an attempt to reconnect with others, but he spends most of his time in Europe alone, and ultimately decides he doesn't want such reconnection at all.

In "A Small, Good Thing, " Ann and Howard are separated from one another even though they don't realize it. Ann recognizes late into Scotty's hospitalization how she feels distant from Howard, and they grow closer through the experience. The story illustrates how far away from each other humans are through the many doctors the parents encounter. Their reunion at the baker is so haunting especially when the three people share their loneliness.

In "Vitamins, " all the characters are lonely. They want to be somewhere else, away from a life where their only friends are those with whom they work. Patti and the narrator live together but are emotionally separated from one another.

"Where I'm Calling From" is a story about a character who learns to accept himself. He refuses to call his girlfriend from fear of learning bad news, but the story ends with him deciding to try and connect with others hoping to help himself.

"The Train" has three characters. Miss Dent doesn't know anything about the people in the train station. Each one of them hopes to disappear into the anonymity of the late night train to address their own problems.

In "Fever, " Carlyle's issue is the loneliness he feels since Eileen left. Carol is only some comfort, since she has her own problems.

"The Bridle" is set in a landscape of loneliness. The apartment building is far away from life, and the characters are so separated that they play games to win divorces. Marge, so lonely with Harley, wants badly to have a friend in Betty.

In "Cathedral, " it is portrayed the individual isolated from others for several reasons. The narrator drinks too much and seems unable to communicate with his wife. The wife has earlier tried to commit suicide because of loneliness. Only the blind man, Robert, seems able to form lasting human connections. Though a blind person, he can be so interesting to talk with, he is able to see and understand beyond what others can see. The blind man was able to unravel the truth out of the husband. He realized his weakness as a lover to the wife. The blind man's touch connotes that he cares and that's what the wife in the story needs. Someone who will care and listen to her.

The story is also about connection – "She told me he touched his fingers to every part of her face, her nose – even her neck!" – and communication: "But she and the blind man kept in touch", something the narrator finds it hard to do. But his epiphany at the hands of the blind man transcend talk – it is a physical and mystical moment – "It was like nothing in my life up to now", experienced with his eyes closed and with no words to truly describe it: "'It's really something, ' I said."

Unlike Carver's other stories, however, "Cathedral" ends with hope; although there is no proof that the narrator will overcome his isolation, for the moment, he is in communion with himself and another human being. He is happy to have company at night and what is more, he experiences the pleasure of freedom, the pleasure of feeling part of the world outside of himself.

2.4 Tragedy

The characters confront tragedies in their lives. Tragedy consists also in forces outside of human control. In such characters, even time is a kind of tragic force. It passes without people understanding it and once it is gone it cannot be undone. They may try to turn it back but in vain and the result is that they are left desperate and hopeless. For instance, the couple in "Feathers, " in "Chef's House, " in "Preservation, " in "Careful, " in "Where I'm Calling From, " and in "Fever." In these stories, the characters quite frequently become nostalgic and try to remember the time in which the relationship they had with one another was different.

The most typical example of tragedy is in "A Small, Good Thing." The tragedy of Scotty's death is devastating, but it ironically brings the couple together because they are the only ones who can perfectly understand each other's loneliness and desperation.

2.5 Inaction

Carver's characters know that they are unhappy, but are unable to take action to change this reality. On the other hand, they sometimes do not even consider the necessity of such a change.

In "Feathers, " Jack and Fran are living a futile and meaningless life until Bud and Olla's situation changes them. Of course, the action they take only makes their unhappiness even more obvious.

"Preservation" is a story about inaction. The husband is completely unable to confront problems and this in the story is illustrated by the image of the frozen man. He is frozen in his unhappiness.

Myers in "The Compartment" is a character has taken the decision to lead a life isolated from others and consequently take no action whatsoever. The irony in this story is that the central character has no intention of changing the situation. On the contrary, he accepts everything as completely normal.

Part of the pain in "A Small, Good Thing" is the lack of action anyone can take to help Scotty. This feeds into the theme of tragedy – no matter what parents feel, they cannot do anything to help their son. It is this kind of surrender that connects them with the baker.

The same happens in the short story "Vitamins". The characters feel unhappy however, they don't take any action. There is talk of leaving for Portland but still nothing happens. Those rare actions taken such as the date between the narrator and Donna illustrate how unwilling they are to improve their lives.

In "Careful, " Lloyd wants to be happier but seem unable to control his alcoholism. Something similar happens in the short story "Where I'm Calling From" in which alcoholism can be perceived as a problem of inaction. The narrator is afraid of being unable to control his drinking. However, near the story's end it seems that he tries to take some actions when he asks for a kiss from Roxy and then call her his girlfriend.

In "The Train, " Miss Dent has taken action. She wants to take revenge, by holding a gun on the man who has treated her badly. But that action is followed by passive waiting. She can't do anything until the train arrives.

In "Fever, " Carlyle wants to take some action and find a babysitter but cannot do so. What he does brings no results, and he even has to rely on Eileen, considered by him as an antagonist, to help him. His epiphany comes from finally accepting his helplessness when he confesses how he feels to Mrs. Webster.

In "The Bridle, " Marge is unable to take action to improve her life. She almost confronts Harley at the end, but in vain.

In "Cathedral, " the epiphany comes when the narrator, a man who chooses to live in front of the TV ignoring the rest of his life, finally takes action to create something for himself. Robert, who is interested in travel and learning new things, leads the narrator to take action towards being a part of the greater world and consequently leaving behind his loneliness.

2.6 Detachment

Carver's characters are detached from themselves. They feel distant from their own identities.

In The Ducks, the theme of detachment is crystal clear. The story is narrated in the third person by an unnamed narrator and from the beginning of the story the readers realize that Carver is using the landscape and the flight of the ducks (black explosion) to set the mood for the story. Another interesting thing about the opening passage of the story is that Carver is also using symbolism (and a foreshadowing device) to suggest to the reader the idea of a detachment. The main protagonist, an unnamed man is chopping (or splitting) wood. This is significant as it suggests a separation or detachment, Carver mirroring the splitting of the wood to the sense of detachment that the main protagonist feels when he reflects on his own life.

Carver uses symbolism in the opening passages of the story to suggest the idea of detachment (from self) and which also serves as another foreshadowing device. There is the blanket that has fallen from the clothes line. Again this is significant as it is not only separated from the other blankets on the clothes line but it is also detached from the clothes line.

In "Chef's House, " the characters (especially Wes) deceive themselves by pretending they don't have the problems. They behave as though a change in house can help them to start a new life, but they fail to do so when they understand that such a change would bring nothing as long as they have to face themselves.

In "The Compartment, " Myers is not certain if he wants to connect with his son. He has been living for a long time a lonely life and deep inside feels the longing to connect with a world that looks so far away from him. However, it seems that he is unable to bring such a change in his life perhaps because he has been living alone for such a long time that he is accustomed to that. He is at the point when he does not know exactly what he really wants.

In "A Small, Good Thing, " the characters seem to have no connection with the tragedy, as if it has not happened to them but to other people. It takes a long time before they confront the reality. The final scene is very simple. Not only do they feel helpless but they also accept their fate so they stop trying to be different from who they really are.

In "Vitamins, " Patti says "maybe I don't dream." This is true of anyone in the story. They seem to want different things but on the other hand they do nothing to achieve them. Time passes but nothing changes, and so does their depressing lives.

In "Cathedral, " the narrator hides behind meanness when what he really wants is to be connected to something. He cannot understand his real problems until Robert leads him to first look inside himself and then finally to see how can he live in a kind of communion with the world.

2.7 Alcoholism

Alcoholism is a prevalent theme in Carver's work. It is a theme directly related to the personal life of the writer who suffered due to his father's alcoholism and then his own. In his stories a considerable number of characters are current or recovering alcoholics. All of their problems and themes can be traced to their alcoholism, either as a cause, symptom or symbol of the problem.

2.8 Communication

Another major theme in Carver's works is the problem of communication. Carver depicted the desperate life of white- and blue-collar workers, salesmen, waitresses and their inability to express themselves. Things are not clearly expressed and the conflicts are almost never resolved. What the reader has to do is to understand the meaning of the story through implications. The loneliness, the lack of connection etc., relate to the inability to express oneself. There are times when narrators lack the vocabulary to express their longing, as in "Feathers, " "Where I'm Calling From, " or "Cathedral." In other stories, characters need connection but are not able to express their thought.

His short story "Cathedral" is the best illustration of the theme. A story that depicts the encounter between an initially close-minded narrator and a free-thinking blind man. As the story unfolds, it becomes apparent that both characters need each other in order to evolve. It has an optimistic ending, it features a man who transcends his limitations not through words but rather through a silent communion. In the same way Robert 'sees' greater life despite his blindness, the drawing of the cathedral leads the narrator to say more to himself about what he needs, even if he can't put it into words.

In addition, in almost all his short stories there are characters who can't speak to one another. Fran and Jack lack the playful language that Bud and Olla share in "Feathers." Lloyd is unable to tell Inez how he feels in "Careful." Marge lacks the strength to say aloud to Betty that she needs a friend in "The Bridle." It seems that in the majority of the stories, we can find illustrations of limitations on communication.

2.9 Light vs. dark

The theme of light and dark is reflected in the sight and blindness imagery which pervades "Cathedral." The blind man is revealed not as the one who lives in the dark but, paradoxically, in light. He sees the infinite possibilities which the husband, with his sight, with his light, cannot see. Indeed, he teaches the husband to close his eyes, feel and see with his senses and, draw. It is, thus, that when she walks in towards the end of the story, she finds them both on the floor, drawing a cathedral. That cathedral is a symbol of the light which the two men find together and whose essence the wife represents.

Carver doesn't hide life's miseries; but, he also recognizes the little things that lead to hope. What do you really think about when you consider love? Love isn't perfect for certain; but, real people have the most profound capacities to accept each other's faults, recolonize weaknesses, and still forgive. Why is this? It's because deep down we know that none of us can escape making mistakes, we too. In this text, Carver implies several attributes which may lead to success in love: recognize everyone makes mistakes, the person we love must one day accept our flaws, forgiveness means loving us anyway.

2.10 Materialism, Appearance and Morality

In Carver's short story Are These Actual Miles can be noticed the theme of materialism, appearance and morality. The story begins with Leo and his wife Toni. They have to go to bankruptcy court on Monday and their lawyer has advised them to get rid of the car before the courts take it off them. Leo thinks that it'll be better if Toni goes and sells the car, that she'll be able to get more money for it. What is interesting about the situation is that while Toni is getting dressed and ready to go out and sell the car she asks Leo how she looks. This is significant because it is a sign that appearance is important to Leo and Toni, how they appear to the outside world. Leo has made sure that the kids don't see the family fall apart. He has sent them to live with his mother for a while. Again the idea of appearance, to give the impression that everything is all

right. The reader also learns how materialistic Toni and Leo are. They had expensive holidays, spent thousands on luxury items they couldn't afford because Toni believes that since she didn't have things as a child, her own children weren't going to do without.

Toni rings to tell Leo how much she has gotten for the car ($625) but more importantly she also tells Leo what the salesman thinks of people who are bankrupt. He has told Toni that he'd prefer to be classified as a robber or a rapist rather than a bankrupt. It is through the salesman's opinion that Carver affords the reader the opportunity to see how important the American Dream is to people, money and possessions holding more weight than morals. The car is also a symbol for the American Dream, its sale is of benefit to someone else, the dream can continue for another person.

2.11 Masculinity as Homophobia

Michael S. Kimmel in his essay "Masculinity as Homophobia"[1] states that in Carver's work, men receive their sense of manhood from other men, which leads to homophobia because the prevalent emotion is fear. Based on Freudian model, the child desires his father and relies on him for his own masculinity. This reliance causes fear and exaggerated masculinity and consequently homophobia which plays a large role in three of Carver's short stories: "They're not your husband, " "So Much Water so Close to Home" and "Cathedral".

The idea that men establish their masculine identity by the gaze of other men is most present in the story "They're not Your Husband." Indeed, the trigger of the narrative is pulled when the main male character, Earl, overhears two men comment on how "fat" his wife is. Earl is unemployed, and his wife has taken a job as a waitress. One night when Earl is half drunk he visits the diner his wife works at, seeking a meal on the house. While sitting at the counter he hears two men chatting about his wife. One man comments, "Look at the ass on that. I don't believe it . . . some jokers like their quim fat". Wounded in his masculinity, Earl at that point becomes determined to regain it by imposing a diet on his wife.

In "So Much Water So Close to Home" the narrator, Claire, tells the story of her husband, Stuart, and his friends finding a dead naked girl on their fishing trip. Instead of immediately calling the authorities and risking an abrupt end to their getaway they go ahead and drink and fish for a few days, deciding to cut their weekend short by only one day instead of missing out on the whole thing. What keeps the men from reporting the dead woman is their collective desire to prove their masculinity to each other. No one wants to be the sissy who decides to cut the trip short. Had any women been around with the men, the chances that anyone would put their hook in the water would have been presumably slimmer. Indeed, when Stuart realizes the extent of Claire's outrage he tells her, "I won't have you passing judgment on me. Not you". This statement suggests Stuart is used to having others pass judgment on him, namely other men, but will not allow his wife, or perhaps any woman, the same luxury; it could also suggest that his wife's (a woman's) judgment counts little, or less than that of the men

2.12 Epiphany

One last theme is the moment when characters have a sudden realization or epiphany. The epiphanic moments are present in Carver's works but the menace, as Gunter Leypoldt[2] calls it, is created because the characters are either unable to give voice to the epiphany or are incapable of comprehending it. Therefore, the question is whether they are able to learn from it. Conversely, another theme would be hope for personal growth, as the narrator in "Cathedral" seems to have an epiphany at the end when he realizes that he can communicate with the blind man and that doing so makes him feel very different and alive in many ways.

Conclusion

The study aimed to show that Carver has written stories categorised as part of Dirty realism which uses fictional techniques to shed light on the dirty unwritten (and often unspoken) truths that we individually and collectively censor from public dialog. Characters and settings are closely based on real people and places while the plots follow real-life sequences of events, which tend to be less linear and predictable than traditional forms of fiction. Language provides sufficient precision

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[1] Kimmel, Michael S. "Masculinity as Homophobia: Fear, Shame, and Silence in the Construction of Gender Identity." Feminism and Masculinities. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2004: 182-99.

[2] S. Koch, et al. 'Throwing Dirt on the Grave of Minimalism.' Columbia: A Magazine of Poetry and Prose 14 (1989): pp. 42-61.

and depth to challenge our most learned elite but that is also accessible to the not so educated members of society. Grammar and style are strongly influenced by informal spoken language which is authentic and with minimal complexity.

With different arguments it was proved that Carver's fiction explores grief, loneliness, infidelity, insecurity and escape. He writes about people living a sad lifetime with problems such as drug and alcohol abuse, divorce. His style is characterized by a reduction of words and a focus on surface description. His characters are ordinary, unremarkable people, often with few resources and little money. They all live in the cities and the majority are workers, adulterers, alcoholics, women or ethnic minorities, people who experience estrangement, loneliness and disillusionment every single day of their lives. As a result, they have become tough, their dialogues are elliptical. The metropolitanism is gone to give way to the rural American and often inarticulate, unsophisticated protagonists. These working poor people have to sell their labour or even their bodies in order to survive and who might at any time lose everything, including the basic dignities that make human beings human. Carver's focus is on the simple ritual of everyday life by giving all his attention to the concrete and avoiding all possible abstractions. In his short stories he describes emotions, disappointments and relationships with simplicity and stoicism.

Carver's work is the narrative of the middle-class. It focuses on contemporary fashion, on our culture's obsession with looking good and being hip, on the trendiness of dance clubs and jeans and alcohol and drugs and sex and on our consumer society packed with brand names. Carver is the writer who believes that the reader can smell, see, and touch. Moreover, we find a narrative that believes in its own logic: in chronology, in plot, in psychology, in selfhood. This is the universe where content is privileged over form and where language is transparent.

Carver can be considered as the best representative of Dirty Realism, who explored all the themes typical of it and who had a huge influence on the next generation of writers. He was the one to bring into light the normal people, ordinary ones who inhabit his stories by clearly stating the reality of American people not the American dream that was promised to them. In his work we can find the humanistic writer that perfectly understood the "daily tragedies" of people and with a brilliant mastery depicted their lives not as they should have been but how they really were. If one enjoys reading about normal people in real life situations and not larger-than-life heroes then that one may find oneself in Carver's crude realism.

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THE CRUCIAL ISSUES ABOUT THE LEGALIZATION LEGISLATION ON ILLEGAL CONSTRUCTIONS IN ALBANIA. WHAT CAN WE LEARN FROM THE BALCANIC EXPERIENCE?

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Abstract:

   In the process of transition of the Balkan countries towards democracy, the strengthening of the "rule of law" is a key factor. The process of legalization in Albania is a clear indication that this transition has not been developed as it should have. In post-communist Albania, ranging from the 1990s to the present day the problem of illegal buildings remains a disturbing fact to which, no final solution has been found, yet. The solution that the Albanian government has given to the problem is the implementation of the system of Ownership Reform substantial part of which is the legalization of these buildings through a law of 'legalization', which makes legal, situations that were illegal up to that moment.This paper will aim to provide a solution to the question " The problems that have arisen during the legalization process in Albania. What can be done in the future by observing and taking into consideration the experience of countries with similar experiences?".Thus we will deal especially with the evaluation fact of defining how much coherent and pragmatic the policy of legalization has been and how much acceptable it is valued by all stakeholders involved in this process (unlicensed builders, former owners, state, third parties, and international actors. Which are the main obstacles that have slowed down the process of legalization up to now and how to remove or overcomere them.In conclusion it will be emphasized the positive elements by European practices especially from Balkan countries, to be taken into account. By observing in comparative ways, there will be noticed that the legalization process is not only an Albanian phenomenon but has occured in all post-communist countries due to the unconsolidated market of real property trade after 1990 and because of the fact that many properties continued to remain " without an owner', for a long time due to the excessive length of the process of restitution of property to former owners. In conclusion, it can be said that in the future , only a well developed - 20-year vision territory planning policy , would contribute to the elimination of the phenomenon of informal constructions, which are a blocked asset not only to their builders but to the albanian society as well.

Keywords: Process of legalization; Albania ; Balkan countries; ownership reforms; legalization legislation; illegal constructions.

Introduction

      Since 1991, when Albania's democratic system was set up and up to 2014 on average it is estimated that 400, 000 buildings were built without permit, a very large figure considering the population of only about 3 million people.This phenomenon is visibly widespread in all the Western Balkans countries. Being mainly developing countries, in the Balkans property rights have been very uncertain, and as De Soto noted: "property rights to land and dwellings in developing nations are notoriously insecure, a fact that has helped impoverish the citizens of those nations. "(Benjamin, 2008) The widespread phenomenon of illegal buildings forced the governments of these countries to undertake the temporary legalization process. Legalization is simultaneously a consequence of a weak democracy and lack of law enforcement, but at the same time is also a necessity for a system of governance for the benefit of the citizens and an advanced economy. When people do not have a clear concept of law and the violation of the law becomes a rule, then state intervention is vital for any society because as Niebuhr.R said "Man's capacity for justice makes democracy possible, but man's inclination to injustice makes democracy necessary." The most important initiative in the Balkan countries regarding the legalization process was the signing in Vienna on September 20, 2004 of the "Vienna Declaration on Informal Settlements in South Eastern Europe", from four countries (Albania, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia) and on 17.03.2005 by Kosova. The focus of this statement was: "to commonly agree on actions that will regularize (legalize) and improve informal settlements in a sustainable way

and will prevent future illegal settlements." The signature of this statement has been very important and decisive in accelerating the process of legalization in the Balkans.

The essence of the process of legalization is: "To make legal or lawful; to confirm or validate what was before void or unlawful."[1] Legalization of illegal buildings "refers to the legal regulation of individual buildings or entire settlements considered "illegal" by the local authorities" (BPRI, 2014). Illegal buildings are buildings built on land legally owned by the builder or on the land of a third party, without planning permission or in excess thereof. Besides illegal isolated buildings, another phenomenon is entire settlements of illegal buildings which are a result of informal development. The latter is a social phenomenon deficient in legal form "Where people settle on land that may be owned by others or the state and build dwellings - usually sub-standard and temporary in nature. Informal development may even appear on legally owned land while it's illegality is related to zoning, planning, or building regulations. "(Potsiou, 2012)

A result of informal development are informal settlements which, according to the Vienna Declaration, point 2 are "Human settlements, which for a variety of reasons do not meet requirements for legal recognition (and have been constructed without respecting formal procedure of legal ownership, transfer of ownership as well as construction and urban planning regulations), exist in their respective countries and hamper economic development." Legalization is crucial for a society because it serves " to incorporate these structures into the social, economic and physical (infrastructure and services) fabric of the surrounding city and society. "(BPRI, 2014)

Causes of illegal buildings in Albania.

Firstly, legalization is generally due to the overall informality of a society. On its turn this informality is due to the incapability of the state to manage its territory, for the proper administration of land and to make the law applicable by all. Secondly, displacement of population and the urbanization process. "During the 1990s, as much as one third of the population of rural (mostly northern, mountainous) regions migrated to urban, peri-urban, and coastal areas in search of income generation opportunities, despite the lack of adequate housing infrastructure or public service provision."(WB, 2012). Freedom of housing and the right to move are negative freedoms, which implies the state must not interfere in the exercise of that right, but the intervention of the state during transition periods (not limiting the right to move but through helping the population and better managing the situation) affects more positively than a completely indifferent attitude, as actually happened in Albania after 1991. Thirdly, the need for better houses. During communism the majority of the population in cities lived in apartments in average 50 m2, where a family with 4-5 members lived. These dwellings were owned by the state and were rented for little money to residents. These flats were privatized, becoming a property of the inhabitants only in 1992 with the Law "On privatization of public housing units." Unfortunately, since then up to now a negative phenomenon has been noticed. A large number of illegal extensions have been built, this as a demonstration of the need for larger residence space. Fourthly, prolonged procedures to obtain building permits. The building permit is the main document to enable the construction of a building within the rules. During the years 1998-2009 (just the period when the majority of the illegal buildings were built) the law "On urban planning" was in power and it stipulated in Article 45: "Every natural or legal person, domestic or foreign, that will build on the territory of the Republic of Albania should be provided with building permit. This is the only legal document on the basis of which is permitted to construct." But corruption, complicated procedures and prolonged deadlines make it difficult to obtain a construction permit. According to BEEPS [2] study of 2008 "29% of firms said that informal payments were expected for construction permits, the highest for any business process in Albania; 3 times higher than SEE average."(Rontonyanni, 2011).Also as Doing Business survey in 2011 highlighted, Albania is the last in among all Balkan countries concerning the number of days it takes to get a building permit. It takes 331 days (approximately 11 months) in Albania, compared to 169 days in 146 days in Greece and Macedonia, in Montenegro 230 days and 279 days in Serbia. The procedures to obtain building permits are also quite complicated. In the study of Doing Business 2013, "Albania is the only country in SEE that does not have a clear practice on getting a construction permit" (Rama, 2013).Fifthly, there is a lack of state policies on preventing illegal constructions, especially in urban areas, where preliminary screening may be more effective. The principle that "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure." applies in this case too. Legalization or demolition of illegal buildings is a pragmatic solution, but their prevention is the best solution and with the lowest cost. "Experience shows, legalization, penalties and even demolition has not completely stopped informal development."(Un-Habitat, 2010) Sixthly, the overlong process of restitution of property to former owners, expropriated during the communist regime. This process began in 1993 and was scheduled to finish in May 2014, but has been postponed again until 30 April 2015. Due to the excessive length of this process for years it is not

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[1] www.thelawdictionary.org/**legal**ize
[2] Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey

defined the ownership of the land of former owners, indirectly fueling the construction over them of illegal buildings from former owners who claim ownership or third persons. Restitution and compensation process affects the process of legalization. If the former owner of the property has been physically compensated or his land has been restituted before the start of the process of legalization, he is considered a legitimate owner. If the process of legalization begins, it should be terminated until a solution to the conflict in court between the former owner and illegal builder. On the other hand the process of legalization affects the conclusion of the return and compensation process. If a decision, whether the property will be returned physically or will be compensated, hasn't been made and meanwhile the process of legalization of illegal building built on his property has begun, the process of return/compensation should be suspended. There can't be made a physical return of the property to the former owner, if the legal deadline foreseen in the Law on Legalization hasn't terminated.[1] The judicial cases at Albanian law courts with "property disputes" object, especially between former owners and their squatters should be treated with priority by the Albanian state. This is a demand repeated by foreign authorities. "The Courts have not been successful in resolving property disputes or enforcing property rights, potentially damaging Albania's EU integration prospects. Property disputes represent a large share of court caseloads and citizen complaints to the People's Advocate, but enforcement of court decisions in these matters remains problematic." (WB, 2012).This prolongation has led to lower investments from foreign countries. "A survey conducted in 2008 as part of the World Bank's Investment Climate Assessment found that insecure property rights and access to land were considered to be severe or very severe obstacles by over 20 Percent of firms respectively. (WB, 2012). Seventhly, housing policy for vulnerable populations (especially Rome minorities) have been missed or have not been effective after 1990.

Regarding the importance of the process of legalization, firstly it has a great importance for the economy. "Legalization has the potential to convert this dead capital into useful capital, workable capital that can make its way into the formal system." (WB, 2012).In 2010, in Albania it was estimated that there were about "400, 000 structures covering an area of 300, 000 ha, at € 10 billion." This is an enormous amount taking into consideration that the official GDP of Albania for 2011 is $ 27.78 billion[2]. It is clear that legalization is connected with immovable property and buildings, which constitute an essential element of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a country. As "UNECE" [3]estimates that: " at least 20 percent of the Gross Domestic Product of most nations comes from land, property, and construction. "(Montealegre, 2010). Through this process, tax revenues are increased and illegal buildings are transformed into exploitable capital. For example, in Macedonia there wasn't in power a legalization law until 2011, when "Law on the Treatment of Unlawful Constructions" was passed, by the explicit declaration stated by the Macedonian government that: "The legalization process was launched in order to raise government income from property taxes."(BPRI, 2014)

Only through the process of legalization, illegal buildings can be sold and bought freely, to be mortgaged, or can be divided. Albanian Supreme Court (SCA) in the Unifying Decision No. 1, dated 24.03.2004 states that: "real estate items of whatever nature they are, land surface, the extensions of buildings with or without permission of the competent authority, on the ground registered or not , if they themselves are not registered in the records of RERO[4] , should not be subject to judicial division, otherwise with its decision the court would legalize illegal and unfair actions of the parties in the trial. "

Secondly, it is laid before Albania as an obligation to secure EU membership. Informal Settlements constitute in Albania "one quarter of the population and 40% of the built up area of major cities" (Montealegre, 2010). As stated in the Vienna Declaration, point VI: "The urban, social and economic integration of informal settlements within the overall city structure will be a key factor in preparing for accession to the EU." European Union has consistently raised during the years before the Albanian government the issue to develop a comprehensive strategy in this area: "the opinion of the European Commission on Albania's application for opening accession negotiations includes the adoption of a strategy and action plan on property rights, which should cover the restitution / compensation and legalization processes, among the key priorities which Albania will need to address prior to opening accession negotiations." (European Commission, 2010) As the World Bank states :"Resolving property disputes and enforcing property rights through the courts has been problematic, damaging Albania's reputation with regard to the rule of law and affecting the Albania's EU integration process." (WB, 2012).

Thirdly, it is the best alternative facing other opportunities, such as the collapse of the illegal buildings. The demolition

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[1] Law no. 9583, dt.17.067.2006 "Article 28/1" For the real estate, on which unlawful objects have been set up by the third parties, physical return can't be applied without the completion of legal term provided on the law of legalization ..Upon completion of the prescribed legal term for the process of legalization, there will be applied, where possible, physical return of real property, while the rest will be compensated. "

[2] www.cia.gov

[3] United Nations Economic Commission for Europe

[4] Real Estate Registry Office

of illegal buildings would bring a greater cost to society in general. "In Croatia 1, 600 buildings were torn down in the period 2004-2007. However, this is an unusual case in democracies, creating major social and political problem, and is not an example of good practice, and is not recommended. "(Potsiou, 2012). Especially for the economy, the collapse would bring huge losses in Albania because " It is estimated that approximately 6 to 8 billion USD has been invested in informal development construction in Albania, and that 40, 000 hectares of land is occupied either informally or illegally. "(Un-Habitat, 2010)

Slowdown factors of the legalization process in Albania.

The legalization process has moved very slowly in Albania. "the latest data show that from 293, 000 applications presented, only 22, 000 applications were completed, leaving hanging a whole category of citizens who have respected administrative procedures and have declared their buildings, but have not yet received an official response on their applications "(AO, 2014). According to official data of the Ministry of Justice as well, legalization has proceeded slowly "the agency 1has implemented administrative procedures for about 80% of buildings built before the 2006. Legalization permits are granted for 52'000 properties. About 100, 000 informal properties were in the preparation process for technical and legal documentation. (CMD Nr.405, 2012)

There is no doubt that the corruption of the administration is a major inhibiting factor."Corruption remains a particularly serious problem and is prevalent in many areas, including law enforcement institutions. There are still serious gaps, e.g. in monitoring local government corruption." (European Commission, 2013) Corruption has really slowed the process. "The difficulties in implementing the entire legalization process have been reinforced by a lack of political stability. Widespread corruption represents a serious obstacle in this regard. " (BPRI, 2014)

Also, an inhibitory factor was the overlong process of restitution of property. The failure to pay the value of the construction plot by the illegal builder is another decisive impeding factor. "However, legalization has not been completed for about 90, 000 properties, because the process requires repayment of financial obligations by the holders of informal settlements." (CMD Nr.405, 2012)

A slowdown factor has been also the lack of thorough studies which should apprehend distinguishing features of the Albanian reality. The legalization legislation should be more appropriate for the Albanian society. Even though in 2006 the Albanian government adopted an action plan for legalization2, this decision does not set a fixed date when the legalization process was supposed to finish. For the first time the "Reform in the area of property rights 2012-2020" 3 2013 was set as the deadline for completing the legalization process. This term not only wasn't achieved but there are still several years ahead to fully complete the process .

In the face of this situation, the EU4 has raised before the Albanian government to develop a strategy with regard to property rights in general, and particularly in relation to legalization. "The opinion of the European Commission (EC) on Albania's application for opening accession negotiations includes the adoption of a strategy and action plan on property rights, which should cover the restitution/compensation and legalization processes, among the key priorities Albania will need to address prior to opening accession negotiations. (EC, 2010). Seeing that there was a concrete solution, the EC presented the 2013 "Roadmap for 5 priorities for 2013", where one of the main priorities was to analyze the legislation for ownership within April to June 2014. Given the fact that the legalization process is crucial for the integration of Albania into the EU, especially after the Foreign Ministers Council of EU approved the granting of candidate status to Albania in June 24, 2014. "Major and systematic efforts are needed to address persisting problems in the area of property rights. Property restitution, compensation and illegal construction are issues that need to be tackled." (EC, 2013) Legal initiatives undertaken by the Albanian state concerning legalization process.

The solution the Albanian government initially gave to the illegal constructions problem was the silence, ignoring the problem and not undertaking any legal initiative. From 31 March 1991, when the first multiparty elections were held in Albania and until 2004 there was no serious attempt by the Albanian government to address the problem of illegal buildings. The silence of the authorities indirectly encouraged the increase of these buildings, which were "invisible" to the economy of the country.In order to give a solution to the problem, the Albanian parliament adopted initially the Law No. 9209, dated 23.03.2004 "On the legalization of extensions to the buildings" that had as a target the legalization of illegal additives in

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[1] Agency for Legalization, Urbanization and Integration of Informal Areas
[2] CMD (Council of Ministers Decision) **Nr. 397, datë 21.6.2006**
[3] CMD Nr. 405, datë 27.6.2012
[4] European Union

unfinished construction and completed constructions raised before the entry into force of the law. Secondly the Law no. 9404 of October 29, 2004, "On legalization and Urban Planning of Informal Zones." It's object was the legalization of illegal buildings in informal settlements (established before the entry into force of this Act) and the urbanization of these areas.Thirdly the Law No. .9482, dt.03.04.2006 "On legalization, urbanization and integration of illegal buildings." which unified in a single law the legalization of illegal buildings in formal and informal areas and unauthorized extensions in buildings constructed with a construction permit, raised prior to the entry into force of the law.The reason for adopting this law was the lack of success achieved by the two previous laws because of the lack of a serious commitment to its implementation and failing to compile a feasibility study to make the law effective based on the peculiar features of Albanian society. As the World Bank affirms, the laws passed in 2004 "had limited success due to insufficient resources and expertise at the local government level." (WB, 2012)

Summarizing the characteristics of the legalization process in Albania we can conclude firstly that in all the adopted laws the legalizing process was initiated according to the claim of the person that had built without permit, within a limited period from the entry into force of the law. Furthermore according to the three Laws the process is under the responsibility of the local authorities. ALUIZNI was created in 2006 (Agency for legalization Urbanization and Integration of Informal Zones and buildings), which is a public legal person subordinate to the Minister of Transport and Infrastructure. This institution will accept the pleas and will manage the process of legalization and will issue the legalization permit at the end of the process. But it won't remove the competences of the local authorities in this process. Under these laws the consequences if the claim wasn't made within the term, if a false declaration was made or if the person failed to complete the technical and legal documentation were the exclusion from the legalization process and demolition of the building.

It is worth to survey more thoroughly the most important problems concerning legalization procedures sanctioned by the Law 9482/2006. This law addresses these three main processes: First: The process of legalization that aims to make illegal builders, owner of the building build without permission and of the land underneath the building. This law classifies illegal constructions depending on the type of property on which they were built (a) Constructions on the property of the builder (b)Construction on the property of a third person. (C) Construction on the state property. The greatest number of illegal buildings are built on third party property: "According to ALUIZNI data, 29 percent of the identified illegal constructions were built on land belonging to the owner, 24 percent on state land, and 35 percent on land owned by another person; information was unavailable for 12 percent of cases. "(WB, 2012) Secondly: The process of the transfer of the ownership of the building plot, and" expropriation" and compensation of the owner of the building plot whereon the illegal building is constructed, in the case when the land on which the building is build belongs to a third party. Albania's Constitutional Court (CC) stated in it's decision No. 35, dated 10.10.2007 that: "Although the law(legalization law) does not mention the term" expropriation" and does not provide a formal expropriation procedure, the persons registered in the Register of Immovable Property(RIP) and compensated because of the registration of the owners of illegal buildings, will be called de facto and de jure dispossessed. "This expropriation is done in the public interest, which in this case aims at legalization, urbanization of informal settlements and their integration in the infrastructure of the entire territory1. As the ECHR2 states in the decision "Former King of Greece vs Greece", dt.23.11.2000: "the notion of public interest should be understood broadly, especially in connection with decisions to issue laws on expropriation, which take into account political, economic and social motives." The legalization motives are economic and social and related to the interest of all the society. The third process is the urbanization and infrastructure construction of informal settlements. This urbanization will be funding through the state budget. Sustainable urban management, means under paragraph IV of the Vienna Declaration (VD) that "Informal settlements be integrated in the social and economic, spatial/physical and legal framework, particularly at the local level." Not only urbanization but the whole legalization process is under the responsibility of local authorities. Albania's Constitutional Court (CC) affirms in the decision Nr.3/2009 that: "Urban planning and land management are full and exclusive powers of the local authorities and are included in the legal concept" its assignment ", according to which via the freedom and authority to give decisions, they are responsible for their implementation. Urban planning is described as a technical and political process that has to do with people's welfare, control and use of land, the design of the urban environment, as well as protecting and enriching the natural environment. The Court specifies that are specifically the local government bodies administers of the territory under their jurisdiction. The Court considers that, including any decision or action, that has impact and implies land use and urban composition, in the area of "urban planning" and "land management", it isn't left out of this concept the legalization process of informal areas and buildings "

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[1] Article 41 of the Albanian Constitution 1998: "1. The right of private property is guaranteed; 4. Expropriations or limitations of property rights, equivalent to expropriation, are permitted only against just compensation.5For disputes over the amount of compensation may be appealed in court. "

[2] Supreme Court decision, nr.179, dt.19.04.2011 www.**gjykataelarte**.gov.al/

Trial Practice in Albania regarding the legalization process.

At the prolonged processes of restitution of property and legalization process we can find one of the main reasons of the weak economic development of Albania for the period 1992-2014. "When property rights are secure, people can spend their time creating wealth rather than defending it. "(Benjamin, 2008).

Some of the main problematic issues regarding the legalization process that were observed by the practice of the First Instance Court in Tirana and the Supreme Court of Albania(SC) concerning the legalization process are: Firstly, the closing moment of the legalization process is the instant when the applicant obtains the legalization permit. The legalization process can't be considered complete, even if the applicant has paid the value of the construction lot. According to the Law on Legalization if the owner of the construction lot files a suit for claiming his property in the Court against the illegal construction builder, the legalization process should be suspended. The allegation of the unlawful possessor that the recovery claim must be dismissed because it was filed after the moment when the illegal builder has paid the value of the land and undersigned the "contract of sale with reservation of property" is not accepted by the Court. The Albanian Supreme Court (SC) Decision nr.274, dt.23.04.2013 asserts that "it turns out that the respondent is not yet equipped with the legalization permit which constitutes the final document which closes the legalization procedure and legitimizes the subject to record the construction in the Register of Immovable Property. "

Secondly, the legalization process should be suspended in the case of a conflict over land ownership: (a) In the case the owner proceeded with a recovery claim, whose property is occupied by illegal constructions, involved in the process of legalization, the issue is not must be drawn out of the judicial jurisdiction, but must be explored by the court. In the decision Nr.168, dt.6.03.2008 Supreme Court (SC) affirms that: "the law" On Legalization "can't stop the hearing of the ownership disputes in court. It is the duty of The Court to assess whether the plaintiffs are owners of the land they claim to be returned and if the defendants are lawful possessor thereof. "(B) The same reasoning as above was followed by the Court in cases where the third person sues negative indictment, claiming the violation of joint public facilities by the illegal building and requires suspension of the process of legalization."Plaintiff seeks judicially from ALUIZNI, the suspension of the legalizing process of the illegal construction carried out by his neighbor, as he claims this construction prevents the use of the common driveway crossing, especially in an fire emergency. The plaintiff has the right to address ALUIZNI as the competent institution in the legalization of illegal constructions, in order to protect its legitimate interests that may be affected by the decisions of this body and has the right to require a decision in favor of these interests, but the lack of exhaustion of such a road does not prevent the claimant to petition the court with the same search. "(C) Suspension of the legalization process is done even when a third person who pretends the ownership of the construction parcel files for "inheritance claim suit"[1] (d) The owner, who alleges violation of his right, may raise in same trial a civil and administrative lawsuit simultaneously. The Supreme Court's decision nr.274, dt.23.04.2013 asserts that: "The owner can raise simultaneously in the same trial a denial claim (suing the illegal constructor) but also administrative lawsuit (by suing ALUIZNI) for opposing the administrative actions taken during the process of legalization. So simultaneously with the civil court process can also be considered an administrative process of reviewing the legality of administrative procedure, suspending the administrative process."(e) With regard to resolving the civil cases in which the owner of the land sues the illegal builder (where the latter claims that the building is in the process of legalization) the Supreme Court stated in Decision no.113, dt.12.02.2013 that part of the land on which no building is built should be returned to the owner. While the land on which the building without permission was constructed and the functional surface of the building, are not returned to the owner. "The court determines that it belongs to ALUIZNI to consider the request of the defendant and if the illegal building isn't legalized, at the end of legalization process its construction should be brought down and the land returned to the owner or if the defendant's building is legalized land owner (plaintiff) must be compensated."

Thirdly, it is a common phenomenon the self-declaration of people who have not actually built the building, or not including all persons who have contributed to the construction. In these cases the persons claiming to be contributors in the construction have forced ALUIZNI by Court Decision to recognize them co-owners of the building, and the self-declaration was found partially invalid by the Court. SC in the Decision Nr.391 Civil College, dt.18.09.2008, states: "In the case object of this judgment, the plaintiff has sought judicially to be recognized as null a document with legal consequences for her. This document is the self-declaration made before the defendant ALUIZNI by petitioner's former brother in law, pretending that the unauthorized construction was constructed by him. For this declaration the plaintiff claims that is partially null, bringing legal consequences in the exercise of the right to legalization. Plaintiff also seeks to restore the violated right

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[1] Supreme Court Decision, nr.434, date. 11.10.2011.

for a self-declaration on her honor, hereupon the legalization of the house object to judgment. Claims with a legal reason as above are classic civil suits and are examined by court jurisdiction. "

Fourth, because of the spread of illegal buildings in a large extent, the Albanian Parliament for the first time added in 2008 to the Criminal Code, the offense "illegal construction". The added article 199/a predicts that" the illegal construction of a building on its own land is punishable by fine or imprisonment up to one year. The same act committed in public or state land or the land of another, shall be punished with imprisonment from one to five years. "We see that in the first paragraph it is a criminal offense while building on the land of another is a crime.[1] A serious problem present the cases where criminal charges are filed by the prosecution for the criminal offense mentioned above, while the building was in the process of legalization. So there is a need for more cooperation between all state institutions so that the process of legalizing not only to be as fast but cost much lower for all subjects participating in it.

Fifth, the decision to grant the legalization permit is an administrative act, for this reason after the legalization procedure ends, this decision can be appealed to court, by the unlawful occupier and the expropriated owner. [2]

Sixthly, during the course of the legalization process the state should carry out a full check on buildings build without permission. The illegal occupier of the building should not be allowed to demolish the building for which he has applied and to construct a brand new building over the former one. In the decision of the First Instance Court of Tirana, Nr.329 dated. 26/02/2014, we find such a situation: "The defendant is resident displaced from Kukes to Paskuqan in Tirana district, since 1992. In 1993, he built a one-storey house with an area of about 130 square meter, in an area that belonged to the state. On 08.11.2006, the house was entered in the legalization process. In this building, the defendant resided until February 2013. Since it had become uninhabitable and risked his own life and that of his family, he has demolished it without proper permit and began constructing a new house. The new facility was being built by the defendant in the same area where the old building had been built and which is freely used by him for a period of about 20 years. "In this decision the defendant was found guilty of illegal construction, followed by high financial costs for the state and for the illegal builder: (1) from year 2006 to 2013 the state has invested in the legalization procedure of the first building which was destroyed by the owner of the building, due to the lack of control by the state, (2) cost of the fine that was paid by this subject (in this case around 2500 euro), (3) there is the possibility that the second building and that he constructed can be torn down by the authorities.

In the seventh, the prolonged process of legalization leads to the emergence of an informal market, where builders of illegal constructions due to the inability to sell the property through the procedure that law requires, sell the building through written agreements between them, without notarial act. [3]

The eighth, according to the law and the very essence of the legalization process, it isn't recognised the right of reinstatement of the term to apply for legalization by the physical and legal person who has not been able to submit the application within the period of self-declaration assigned by the law. The SC Decision Nr.1478, dt.26.12.2007, asserts that: "the applicant society" X "(limited lianility company), which scope of activity is in the construction field has been given permission for the construction of an object, but this company has built several more floors than it was allowed. With the emergence of Law nr.9209/2004 the applicant was entitled with the right that, within a time limit specified in this law, to request and submit the necessary documentation to legalize the additional surfaces ..Under any provision of the law it isn't provided the competence of the court to reinstate the term to apply for legalization. In these conditions, we are in front of a case that should not have been presented to the court, equivalent to a claim that can't be submitted. "

Ninth, it is noted that the Court has recognized the right of one of the co-owners to divide the common parcel even if there is built over this land an illegal construction by some of the co-owners, and this building is under the legalization process. The SC concluded in Decision no 430, dt.10.12.2009, that the trial for the division of the land should continue and the case is under the judicial jurisdiction and not under the administrative one, although the building built on the land is under the legalization process.

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[1] The number of criminal cases relating to 'charges of committing illegal construction "in the District Court of Tirana remains low. In 2010-6 issue / issues 2011-8 / 2012-5 issues/2013-3 issues. For 2014 there were reviewed 19 issues, of which 11 were punishment decisions. http://www.gjykatatirana.gov.al/

[2] With regard to the right of the owner of the land, expropriated during the legalization process, to appeal the decision of ALUIZNI, the Albanian Constitutional Court affirms in the decision Nr.35. Dt.10.10.2007: "In Article 18 of the Administrative Procedure Code it is provided that in order to protect the constitutional and legal rights of private persons, the administrative activity should be under audit by the courts, in accordance with the provisions of the Civil Procedure Code. This means that the relevant decisions of ALUIZNI can be appealed in court. The right to appeal in court is a constitutional right that is sanctioned by Article 43 of the Constitution, so as long as according to Article 4/3 of the Constitution, its provisions are directly applicable, although the law has not explicitly accepted, not denying the individual right to appeal in court for any aspect of the law, which may arise disputes between interested persons. "www.gjk.gov.al/

[3] Decision of Tirana District Court, Nr.300, dt. 24/02/2014

Legalization Process in Balkan Countries

Generally speaking the dwellings built without permit in Albania, as in all countries of the Western Balkans, are buildings in a good quality and very good living conditions. "In many cases illegal construction in Europe is well built and can be considered as "affordable housing" rather than as "slums."(Un-Habitat, 2010). The main causes of illegal buildings in the western Balkan countries are different. "In Albania, for instance, the largest number of informal settlements occurred in the 1990s after the previous system collapsed; in Republika Srpska, and specifically in Prijedor, they have emerged as a result of the war, and in Macedonia the informal settlements were largely a result of the village-town migration during the 1970s."(NALAS, 2009) The legalization problem is serious across the Balkans and the figures are alarming "nearly 780, 000 structures await legalization in Serbia, 1 million in Greece, 200, 000 in both Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH) and 100, 000 in Montenegro."[1]

But what is common for all of the states is their government's attempt to give a final solution to this problem. This is noticed in the legislation passed in 2011 in Macedonia and Croatia, Kosovo adopted the law on legalization in 2013 and Montenegro in 2012. Further on we will dissect some Balkan countries specifying their similarities and differences to and between our country.

Let's take Greece first. The beginnings of the informal structures are ancient, since the end of World War the Second."There was a lack of affordable housing, and general social and economic conditions in Greece were bad. Between 1945 and 1966 an estimated 380, 000 informal houses were built around Athens and Thessaloniki. This is called the "first generation of informal settlements." (UN- Habitat- 2010) The first step of legalization was undertaken in 1956 by legalizing all the illegal buildings existing when "The revised General Building Code legalized." was passed. Although since 1956 several initiatives regarding the legalization legislation, yet in 2014 the illegal buildings are a problem for the Greek state. Just like in our country, "Many informal developments in unplanned areas are of reasonably good quality."(UN-Habitat, 2010). Also Greece is making serious studies and is reviewing the legal framework for the process of legalization. But still there isn't full co-operation and the administration has many difficulties in implementing in practice this process. " A cadastre is crucial for monitoring the development of informal settlements. Low political commitment and administrative capacity are obstacles."(Montealegre, 2010)

Unlike Albania, legalization is a very complicated process "The planning laws and regulations are not clear to the citizens who must hire professionals to support the process." (UN-Habitat, 2010) For many years the Greek government left the legalization process treatment in the shadow." Only in 2008, in an effort to improve real estate market due to EU harmonization framework, the government started investigating procedures to legalize the planning and building violations (permit exceeds) that exist in the planned areas (like the build-up of semi-open areas of the buildings)."(Potsiou, 2012) Unlike the Albanian practice, legalization is estimated to last at least 30 years "Law allows the formalization of planning and building informalities, only for a period of 30 years. Within the 30 year period that those properties will be formalized in the non-planned areas, local authorities are expected to proceed with the compilation and implementation of the necessary city plans, otherwise owners of such properties will be asked to pay extremely high penalties in order to "buy" the necessary land and formalize again.(Potsiou&Boulaka, 2012).

Legalization process costs are higher in Greece than in Albania." A rough analysis of the declared informal buildings shows that the majority of those declared are commercial constructions and a few expensive informal residences. This proves that so far only the wealthy owners declare their informal properties. However, the majority of the Greek owners of informal buildings cannot afford to pay fees due to severe salary reductions, increased prices, and increased income and property taxes." (Potsiou & Boulaka, 2012) In Albania, the properties are registered after the legalization process finishes. Whereas in Greece, legalization is a very lengthy process and the registration of land, on which the illegal construction was built, is done before the legalization process. This is done for the purpose of having the allotment free in the civil circulation.

Regarding Bosnia-Herzegovina, as all Balkan countries, this state is facing the problem of illegal buildings "Between 200, 000 to 400, 000 illegal structures, inhabited by up to 1.2 million. (Monetalegre, 2010) Just as in Albania, in Bosnia the process of restitution of property has hampered the implementation of the legalization process. "The focus on return of property and the related application, hearing, decision, and execution process makes it difficult to establish title to many parcels, and execution of decisions by municipal governments has been slow." (USAID, 2007). The process of legalization is dependent on the fact that who is the owner of the land on which the building was constructed. The legalization process, is seen as a competence of local government bodies, which have the primary responsibility for this process. "Towns and

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[1] http://www.setimes.com

municipalities are introducing urban plans to regulate the presence of buildings that were illegally built.If a building is allowed to remain according to the urban plan, there is a procedure for legalizing it."(BPRI, 2014). Also it is provided the offense "illegal construction" as an attempt to stop and prevent illegal constructions. "Today, new regulations criminalize informal buildings, and a program for demolishing illegal buildings is in place." (BPRI, 33) Unlike Albania, the main causes of illegal buildings have been socio-historical conditions in which Bosnia has been found: "There is also an existence of partially illegal settlements that have established themselves with the migration of large groups of people as a consequence of war (NALAS, 2009).

In the completion of the legalization process, an inhibiting factor has been the lack of ownership Registers, damaged during the war."BiH has had a framework in place for land titling and registration since the 1930s, implemented by the Austrians. Although land registers exist across BiH unbeatable 30 Percent of the registers were destroyed in World War II and many were not replaced." (USAID 2007).

We can see that the unlawful buildings are quite problematic even in the newest state of the Balkans, Kosovo. There has been no special law to treat the unlawful constructions issue up to 2013. Indirectly this has stimulated the increase in number of such buildings. The figures are alarming. "It was difficult for municipalities to manage this situation and as a result it has been (unofficially) estimated that the proportion of new buildings without a building permit could be as high as 50%." (WB Kosovo, 2013) Up to 2013, it was the duty of the local government to identify and give a solution to the unlawful buildings. "Due to the lack of such a law, several municipalities over the past few years have adopted local regulations on the legalization of informal buildings. Owners who can proof land ownership and meet safety standards can apply for the legalization of their buildings "(BPRI, 2014) Only according to the new Law "On the treatment of illegal buildings" in 2013 it is finally foreseen a unique treatment in the entire territory. Every building set up before 30 August 2013 will be legalized, but it isn't estimated the social and economic cost of the buildings that were built after this date or that are still in process of construction. Efforts should be made not to make the same mistakes as the other states of the Balkan have. The latter, have postponed the legalization term many times. The new law that was approved will be in power only for 3 years from the moment it was passed. This is different from our country where differently where legalization law has no deadline for legalization, but it is the government which based on the recommendations of the European Commission, sets deadlines for this process. The adoption of a law with a strict term can be seen as an attempt to speed up the process. It will be seen with the passing of time how fruitful this will be.

As far as Macedonia is concerned, only in February 2011, in the Parliament, "the Law on the Treatment of Unlawful Constructions", was passed. It will in operation for a 5 year period. Until this moment, informal settlement were considered as illegal, and should be demolished by the authorities. The number of self-declarations of 353.800 made within 6 months from the entry into force of the law shows the gravity of the situation.

The main cause of illegal buildings has been the population shift towards urban centers and conflicts in neighboring states. It is noted that there are more illegal buildings even after the adoption of the law and the process of legalization is proceeding slowly. The Legalization law was drafted having as the main focus the vulnerable groups "The goal was to create simple and short procedures and at the same time to make as attractive as possible to the citizens. That is an example of good practice."(Potsiou, 2012) Even the people who receive social assistance will not pay any fee for this process. The legalization process is very decentralized but central authorities carry out frequent checks on the way the local authorities are operating "Given the high degree of decentralization in the implementation of the law, the Ministry of Communication and Transport imposes strict deadlines and demands quarterly reports on progress in the legalization from each municipality. "(BPRI, 2014). This practice should be followed by Albania facilitating sharply the control of this process and will boost its acceleration.

Even in Serbia the phenomenon of illegal buildings is widespread. "About 1 million illegal units nationally, approximately 500, 000 in the Belgrade metropolitan region." (Montealegre, 2010) But the process of legalization has been even slower because of the situation in which the system of properties administration system is found. "Property rights and land administration in Serbia are under stress, owing to the country's dynamic and turbulent history." (USAID 2007) Just as in Albania, the main cause of illegal buildings has been urbanization and unplanned displacement of population from rural regions. "the large number of illegal settlements in the countries of former Yugoslavia were constructed in the 1970s when the process of industrialization caused mass migrational movements from the villages to the towns." (NALAS, 2009) Just like our country the legalization process has not been efficient because while this process continues, there continue to be constructed buildings without permits. This is the reason the self-declaration deadline has been postponed several times. "The new law adopted on 31 October 2013 provides a 90-day deadline to submit self-declarations. But this has hindered the application procedures requiring more detailed documentations from applicants. "The previous law required more limited technical documentation in the form of photos and an expert's technical report about the structure's condition,

whereas the Owners must now submit a full project for the constructed building, which must be certified by an architect." (BPRI, 2014)

Finally, regarding Montenegro, being a country that has gained independence from Serbia only 8 years ago, through the referendum of 21 May 2006, his process of legalization has been influenced by the policies of the Serbian state.There are not to be found fully accurate data about the number of illegal buildings. Official data are much lower than those which foreign studies declare. "According to the official data from the cadastre, on the territory of Montenegro there are 39.922 illegally built structures, of which the largest number is in the capital city of Podgorica, 16.430 structures. "(Potsiou, 2012) Meanwhile, a UNDP study declares their number is estimated to be almost three times the official figures." 100, 000 informal the structure in Montenegro Which is approximately one third of the total housing stock in the country."(Helleren, 2011) It is to be noted that until 2012, the process of legalization has been different in each municipality. Only in September 2012 a bill was drafted by the government. In 2014 it is still in the final stages of discussion. The prolongation of its approval shows a lack of political will. Just like our country, Montenegro is a coastal state (called "Ecological country" in its constitution).Consequently legalization is crucial for the development of tourism. Most of the illegal buildings are of a very good quality. The prolongment of the return and compensation process is one of the causes of illegal buildings. "In 2004 a Law on Restitution of ownership rights passed in Montenegro but its implementation is doubtful" (Potsiou, 2006). As in all Balkan countries, corruption is one of the main reasons that has led to difficulties in administering the land, which is prompted more by a lack of expertise by administrative bodies. Just like in our country, illegal construction is considered as a crime since 2008. "Since 2008, illegal building has been considered a crime, but prosecution has been delayed for small primary residence." (BPRI, 2014).

But unlike Albania illegal constructions are a phenomenon that emerged in the period of communism because of non adequate housing policies. Only after the declaration of independence, the causes of illegal buildings have changed: some of them are the poverty and internal migration. The legalization process is quite complicated, with not a very low cost and is highly centralized although according to constitutional principles it should be as decentralized as possible. "The planning procedure and construction permitting is being compiled in two levels (Construction permitting Responsibility is shared between the central government and the municipalities); in general it is still highly centralized, expensive and inflexible, except some special cases. "(Potsiou, 2012). The law tends to protect vulnerable groups, providing that if the illegal building is demolished, the state provides to the individual a house, if it was the only house where his family lived. "The draft law states that people living in illegally built primary housing that will be demolished due to the law, must be provided with an alternative housing solution by the municipality."(BPRI, 2014)

We can see that all Balkan states have positive elements to be considered as an example, but in general all of them are far behind in this process, and much work still remains to be done.

Recommendations

(a) The category of persons who have built property which are in the legalization process must join together in associations. This interest group needs a single voice in front of the state bodies, because at the moment is quite fragmented. 1A positive example is the joining of the former owners' interests who are united in the Association "Property on Justice.". Its field of activity focus is the protection of the interests of the former owners, who are deprived from ownership through nationalization, confiscation and in other forms by the totalitarian regime. This association is quite active in the public's eye and in its initiatives.2 Only by being united the subjects affected by this process, they can have a stronger influence on the legislation drafting process. (B)The prevention of illegal buildings in the future. Despite the fact that the Albanian government has set this among its main priorities of judicial reform "3, from 2004 illegal constructions continue to rise." With the persistent legalization challenges, the consequence of the widespread inability to enforce the laws in the Western Balkans region (ie, authorities' failure to prevent illegal construction or evict illegal residents) is a continuation in illegal construction." (BPRI, 2014) (c) Setting realistic deadlines for the government to complete the process of legalization. The tendency of the Albanian government is to set unrealistic limits and which do not have a real possibility for implementation. For example, this deadline specified in DCM Nr.405, dt.27.06.2012 was 2013 "100% finalization process

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[1] In May 2014 the Roma minority submitted before the President of the Republic of Albania a petition with 40,000 signatures, asking the president not to enact changes in the Law for Legalization.

[2] In 2007 this association asked the Constitutional Court to declare the law of legalization as unconstitutional, claiming that the law violates the rights of former owners. This request was rejected by the court decision no. 35. Dt. 10.10.2007.

[3]CMD, no. 405, 2012 "Preventing of illegal new construction will be based on completion of regulatory plans and more open and more efficient procedures for the issuance of permits, including a special register in RERO office for the registration of building permits and the strengthening of control and demolishing process. ", page 18

by Aluizni of the legalization process of 270, 592 illegal construction by 2013". (d) To be facilitated the legalization process, minimization of procedures, required documentation and decrease of the cost of this process, and accelerating the whole process. The vulnerable groups must be more in focus (especially Roma), offering them free assistance during this process and facilitation for the payment. This is also the attitude the Albanian Ombudsman has had in his report of 2013 year "Recommendation for speeding and simplifying the procedures for the legalization of informal settlements, as well as urbanization and integration." (AO, 2014). (e) Better cooperation by all state agencies and stakeholders and an increase of the public awareness for the importance of this process. (f) The process of legalization, expropriation, and the restitution and compensation of property process should have a better intertwining between them. "None of these processes (first registration, legalization, restitution, or compensation) has advanced substantially in terms of-implementation, largely due to incoherence among policy initiatives in these areas." (WB, 2012) In connection with the performance of the ALUIZNI, Albanian Ombudsman in its report of 2013 stated, "the activity of this body leaves much to be desired in its functioning since 2006. There is a lack of effectiveness and cooperation of Territory Councils, County Councils, with other bodies local Government and local Real Estate Registry Office. "(AO, 2014) (g) Greater protection for the holder of the illegal buildings in the legalization process if this building will be expropriated for public interest.(i) While the construction is under the legalization process there should be greater control have to impede the subject to demolish the building that is being legalized or to construct extensions without permission. (k) There should be paid special attention toward the urbanization and integration process, which comes after the completion the legalization process. There should be taken effective steps that immediately after the legalization process, the process of urbanization and integration can have a full legal preliminary framework applicable in practice. (l) the need for a greater decentralization of powers of the local government during the legalization process. (m) There is a need for serious studies on the advancement of the process of the legalization which should be made before the changes on law. These changes should have as the main focus the particular characteristics of Albania. (n) Compensation of property owners over which are built illegal construction requires a concrete planning and realistic projections for its fulfillment, "the payment of compensation for expropriation due to legalization remains insufficiently funded. AKKP reports that neither ALUIZNI nor the state budget has provided the 4.5 billion Lek needed to pay the compensation called for the legalization decisions submitted by ALUIZNI. There is a risk the failure to compensate expropriated owners could cause expropriation decisions to be declared invalid. "(WB, 2012). (p) Development of a database with all the data derived during the process of legalization, starting from the self declaration phase and progress of the process. This database must be accessible by all stakeholders and researchers in relevant issues. (Q) Prosecution of illegal builders of constructions must be performed only when, at the end of the legalization process, the legalization permit is refused by a decision of ALUIZNI. (r) Low cost and simplification of the procedures to obtain a building permit. Often it is cheaper to legalize buildings than to construct a building respecting the laws in force. (H) A full analysis is needed from the Albanian state in order to acquire the best experiences from other Balkan countries. Although the Stability Pact and the Vienna Declaration have laid the foundations of a regional cooperation, still remains much to be done in this field. A regional structure (independent of the European Union) created especially by the Balkan states, which will be focused only on solving the problem of legalization, exchange of best experiences and, creating a database of data for all Balkan states would be mitigating for all stakeholders in this process.

By the end we can say that the legalization process and its application, must be adapted to the characteristics of each country. This is very important, because: "When Countries are not able to integrate informality into the formal economy, they will be doomed to muddle along" (Soto , 2000)

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Measuring External Complexity of Complex Adaptive Systems Using Onicescu's Informational Energy

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Abstract

During the last decades the complexity theory of complex adaptive systems has captured the attention of a plethora of people, ranging from scientists and to the general public, through its discussions on emergence, behavior, self-organization, computer simulations and so on with a strong emphasis in the globalization context. The intuitively given explanations about produced phenomena are hardly accepted, by regular people, without giving them scientifically proofs with some measurements and figures. Thus we are forced to find new measurements and analysis tools or to adapt the existing ones, for better understand those systems. The social systems and economic systems become more complex and unpredictable and necessitate the use, among other things, of the acquirements of social psychology to better understand and monitor them. Having a large number of mutually internetworked and interdependent parts the complex adaptive systems are hard to model and understand, so that any theory or practice defined/ applied to reduce the area of the analyzed complexity and making analysis, modeling and simulation feasible is welcome and useful. The analysis of both, external complexity and internal complexity of complex adaptive systems, as defined by Jüergen Jost, become a starting point. The external complexity addresses the volume of inputs (as information/ energy), from system's environment, that the system is capable to manipulate or to process, while, the internal complexity is a measure of input representation by the system, in fact, the model complexity. For both categories the existing model uses entropy, or other formulas based on, to measure the system. This paper introduces the usage of Onicescu's Informational Energy theory and measures, based on frequencies used in statistics, to approximate the measurements of external complexity. The aim of the paper is not to use a technology instead another, but a way to simplify and express some measurements in terms of normal frequencies, the general people encounter daily and better understand, and not in terms of probabilities that requires mathematics skills and, maybe, sophisticated computational tools from the normal reader part, for better understanding.

Keywords: External Complexity, Complex Adaptive Systems, Informational Energy, Entropy

1. Introduction

The presentation in this paper was oriented to an easy formal style and, for that reason, the introduced concepts have a surname given as a single letter used later on to define mathematical models and their computational formulas. The systems can be broadly defined (Avram&Dodescu, 2003) as sets of functionally inter-correlated elements (E) that acts to achieve specific goals (objectives, one or more). The elements are described by properties and behavior, specific and/ or common to all. Systems are combinations of elements including all or some of the sources: objectives (Z), inputs (X), outputs (Y), processes (P), and other internal relationships (dominant; collaboration; prediction), and a boundary with the rest of the universe, or system's environment. The way the system reacts to changes (generally on inputs) forms the system behavior. The systems are artifacts created by humans to facilitate communication, abstraction and, analysis and they simplify the explanation of phenomena that appears complex and unrelated. If the artificial systems are fruits of human thinking, the natural ones have an objective existence (they exists independently of human concern, as the solar system, for example). A system is characterized by its status (S) dependent, as a rule, on inputs and represented by any well-defined conditions or properties that can be recognized as such if again appear. If the status of the system changes the system categorized as dynamic, otherwise as static. A system is said adaptive if depending on its status and the status of its environment can act differently to attain its objectives or even can change those objectives. If a system realizes exchanges, as inputs and outputs, with its environment, the system is open, as opposite for lack of those exchanges, when closed. The elements of the system are the smallest parts that can be used in system description and modeling. An element belongs to a system if and only if it contribute to the system's activity. The elements can form distinguishable parts to the

system, and these, in turn, can participate to form larger (aggregated) parts (parts from parts, recursively) to the system. The elements and parts are coupled together to form a whole. If the parts inside system have the characteristics of a system in fact they are systems in their own right and they are called subsystems. Each element influences the elements to which coupled by influencing the input of those elements or, generally, the environment of those elements. The complex systems have a large number of mutually internetworked and interdependent parts and, at least for this, are hard to model and understand. Formally, two elements (or parts) e1 and e2 can be coupled in one of the ways:

- e1 is coupled with e2 so that it influence e2 and e2 has no influence to e1. We can say that e1 is dominating e2 (is a normal unidirectional communication channel or is a feed-forward/ prediction link);

- e1 is coupled to e2 so that both coupled elements reciprocally influenced. We can say that between e1 and e2 we have a feedback (the value of this can be positive or negative and the result is called collaboration).

1.1. Complex Systems

"Complex systems consist of many interacting components and many hierarchical layer and, in general, it is impossible to reduce the overall behavior of the system to a set of properties characterizing the individual components. The interaction between components is able to produce properties at the collective level that are simply not present at the component considered individually. (Moffat, 2003)" Heylighen shows in (Heylighen, 2008) that the complex systems "components are in the same time distinct and connected, both autonomous and to some degree mutually dependent". In simple words it means that the properties and behaviors at the whole system level (its higher hierarchical level) are not a summation of properties and behaviors at lower, or generally base level. In a hierarchical organization of the system, each layer, at a higher level in the hierarchy can have properties and behaviors unfound at lower levels of its base hierarchy.

Between coupled elements take place communications, of different natures, that send (outputs) and receive (inputs) messages or signals containing messages. In simulations and models of the systems we can focus our research and analysis on that type of communication but we must have in mind the strong link with (or determination of) the material or energy flux taking place in parallel or sequentially, on the same channel. The system achieves its objectives by the process of converting inputs (information, transactions data, raw material, parts, electrical pulses, light, water and minerals etc.), that supplied by its environment and crosses the boundaries to become parts of the system, into outputs (decision and control information, finished goods, parts, or any other kind of output such as carbon dioxide, urine and feces, common for living organisms) that crosses the systems boundaries to become parts of the environment. Not all kinds of elements of a system must be present to a concrete one, for example, inputs and outputs are missing for closed systems (they do not exchange any kind of inputs and outputs with their environment).

"The social systems are different in many aspects of most other kinds of systems in the way the elements belong to the system or not. The system do not "die" if one (or some) of its members eliminated from the system. The social systems implies individuals and their relationships to form groups and to interact with other individuals, groups, and institutions. As members of different forms of social organization they obey to laws and rules of that. The individuals can participate in the same time in many different groups and generally can quit a group by different reasons (can migrate in another group, can die etc.). In such systems applied the large numbers low: we can eliminate/ add individuals/ groups from/ to the system without affecting the whole system. Consequently the subsystems of social systems are very hard to be precisely delimited by the nature of their boundaries. Thus, the social systems become more complex and unpredictable and necessitate the use of social psychology to better understand and monitor them. (Rizescu&Avram, 2013)"

1.2. Complex Adaptive Systems

As starting point, here are accepted the complexity sources and characteristics as outlined by Fromm (2004, p. 23): "Complexity emerges from the clash of opposite forces, and is characterized by consonance in dissonance, regularity in irregularity, cooperation in separation, integration in differentiation, order in chaos, simplicity in intricacy and unity in diversity". The complexity is considered as being situated somewhere between order and disorder and the complex systems are not neither, regular and predictable and, nor random and chaotic (Heylighen, 2008). The complexity of a system is the amount of information needed in order to describe it which, in turn, depends on the level of detail required in its description (Bar-Yam, 1997).

The complex adaptive systems (CAS) are dynamic systems able to adapt and change within, or as part of, a changing environment (Moffat, 2003). The components of complex systems are most commonly modeled as agents (for example, people, firms, animals, cells and molecules, neurons etc.), usually are goal-directed (try to maximize individual fitness,

utility or, preference) or, if not goal-directed follows a cause-and-effect or condition-action logic, their number is variable (they can multiply or "die" within the system) and, the environmental conditions to which an agent reacts can be affected by other agents (Heyligen, 2008). The complex adaptive systems have three basic characteristics: adaptation, self-organizing and emergence (Heyligen, 2008). The self-organizing is a characteristic given by the system's structure, by its internal processes and, represents the tendency of the larger dynamic systems to organize them itself in a critical status of high organization (perfection). The emergence (from Latin "emergere") defines a qualitative change in the system behavior when changing its observation scale, such as from one element scale to group of elements scale. Emergence is a common characteristic of complex adaptive systems for which the behavior of the whole is more complex than the sum of behaviors of its elements and parts. The emergent properties have two important aspects: they lose when decompose the system in its component parts and, when a component is eliminated (detached) from the whole this one loses its emergent properties. We can say that the system (the properties and functionalities of) is always more than the sum of its parts.

The study of complex systems and their parts, of interaction among them and of behavior, cannot be always done on the system itself. The common scientific way is to ignore some system details and to find a higher level abstraction of the system as a model that can permit realizing simulations of the studied system. Miller and Page defines in (Miller&Page, 2007) a general model (or modeling) of a system characterized by a set S of different statuses and a transition function (a collection of processes, procedures, functions) F(S) that maps a given status at moment t into a new status at moment t+1. If the dimension of status space is too high this one can be reduced by generating few equivalence classes (mapping) E(S) which maps a subset of real world statuses S into a model status s and, in this context, finding a transition function f(s) useful for modeling. In a cybernetic context (here introduced as described in Avram&Dodescu, 2003), the inputs X are transformed by processes P inside of the system to obtain the results (outputs) Y and we can express that by a generic equation of the system that can be written as Y=P(X). Most of the time between the outputs and objectives we have some differences that can be expressed as Z#Y. For that reason, it is necessary to correct this differences by intermediate of a regulator R (a feedback processor) that corrects the inputs by an average value ΔX (that can be positive or negative feedback) and the generic equation can be written as: Y=P(X+ΔX). This describes in a simple way an adaptive system.

The general approach in studying and simulating on computers of complex adaptive systems is realized by iterating some simple rules locally in an interacting agent population which generate in turn complex global phenomena. The usual representation of elements and parts of a complex system together with their internal relationships (and dependencies) is in a shape of complex networks. Examples of complex networks are neuronal networks, social systems, social networks, neural system, economic systems etc.

2. Methodology

Initially the developments and conformity checks realized on some dependant characteristics about Internet infrastructure represented by the server operating systems and webserver software used. The results are very satisfactory from many points of view, but, since data collected and based only on online surveys the proof of the validity of proposed formulas for the measurements must be realized on an incontestable trustable source. To find the circumstances and ways to replace the difficult computations, such as conditional probabilities, here used the statistics data obtained by 2011 census in Romania (Romania Census, 2014) and selected the repartition of population on age categories, genders and area and, adapted as notations to the needs of the mathematical models, as shown in Table 1. The columns in the table represents the events categories and they are mutually exclusive. The data inside table refers to (calculated based on) grand totals at country level. For columns and rows used letter characters as an alias of that used, later on, to express the computational models and to evaluate them, for conformity checks of the theoretical findings.

Table 2 is a sample randomly selected (by generating of two random numbers, one indicating the age and the other the number of the detail line for area) taken from similar data in the 2010 Romanian Statistics Anuarry (2011:1) at detail level (population on age groups, counties, cities and, gender). The sample (excerpt) is shown in Table 2. The total population was taken 1000 for the sake of simplicity in mental computations and is not computed as for statistical surveys. When we want to make a specific research, for a specific target population, these aspects will have their own importance and accuracy, as required.

Tables 1 and 2 used to show how to compute both, entropy and informational energy on data refering to total population (Table 1) or to samples from that population. If you compare the tables you see that the probabilities associated to corresponding categories are closed while between the corresponding absolute value do not exist a vizible common rule (such as division, multiplication or other kind of formula) to determine the excerpt value from its corresponding total value, this poofing the validity of the selection realized randomly.

Table 3 contains processed from data taken from the 2011 Romanian Statistics Anuarry (2011:1, 2011:2), Chapter 2 Population and Chapter 3 Labour Market. It shows the structure, as absolute values and frequencies/ probabilities, of two broad categories of population defined depending on their participation on the labour market mainly, active population and non economically active persons, distributed by group ages. For the active persons are indicated the common characteristics for different input model structure in the Labour Market (sub)system, by {γ1, γ2, γ3, γ4, γ5, γ6}, as designators for the age categories. These characteristics are common for every reporting year.

Table 4 shows the retirement age combinations, for both sexes, male and females, used in Romania after 2001. These combinations affects the γ5 and γ6 categories in Table 3, so we consider having different input models for labour market, denoted in the table by the column θ (for which all entries having status "current" covered by ninth entry in table).

The tables and the evaluations of different formulas are realized in Excel 2013 and imported in this document.

3. Representing System Statuses as Weights

Every kind of system, either natural or artificial, is individualized by some qualitative and/ or quantitative characteristics related to their inputs, outputs, internal relationships etc., defining its status. The status, when represented by energy or information, can be revealed by related weights or ratios. The most common way to determine that ratios or weights is as frequencies or as probabilities. Consider a system characterized by the statuses s1, s2, ..., sn having the corresponding associated weights w1, w2, ..., wn with respect for the constraint $\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i = 1$. In Table 1 the statuses denoted by γi (they are the si equivalents, the notation in table having importance for the correlation coefficient of Informational Energy and for extended input of external complexity) are represented in absolute value on column "Total Population" (or T) and as and as frequencies (in that case as probabilities too since computed on entire population) in column wi. Both, probability and frequency, uses a similar formula, and we can say they are the mathematics of chance. The difference is that they address to different sets of population (or different scales): the probability request measurements on the entire (whole) population and, the frequency request only representative excerpt (or sample) from the population (a small percent from total population). If sk is an event (or status) that can occur in a population having n members (k=1, 2, ..., n) then the frequency (weight, in the context) is $w_k = \frac{frequency\ of\ s_k}{sum\ of\ frequencies}$ with respect of constraint $\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i = 1$. For our case in Table 1 column 2 these are {0.0505, 0.0491, 0.0516, 0.0563, 0.0803, 0.0752, 0.0827, 0.0776, 0.0811, 0.0566, 0.0688, 0.067, 0.054, 0.041, 0.0435, 0.0331, 0.0206, 0.0109} and their sum is 1.

For the entire population (or statuses) the frequency of sk is exactly the number of times sk occurs within the population over the sum of frequencies that is the total number of population n and the frequencies equals the probabilities. It is intuitively clear that observing and measuring excerpts of a population is easy than do the same for the entire population.

All the measurements realized are helpful, from a point of view, to understand the system status and maybe to predict its next behavior. Not all the time, the measurement of the different statuses taken in isolation, are helpful in understanding the observed phenomena. In real world contexts and systems the statuses depends one of another due to the multitude of relationships between the system's elements that they characterizing. Thus if we want to measure or to know the probability of a status sk, in correlation with all its influencing statuses to which related, the computation formula for the probability is changed. We must compute the so called conditional probability: it means the probability of the random variable sk conditioned of the knowledge of all other random variables on which depends. In other words, to compute the chance of a status, we must know the chance of all other related statuses. We give down here a very simple expression of computation formula as given in (Beisbart&Hartmann, 2011). Let's S and T two events for which we assume that the probability of T is non-zero, P(T)≠0. The conditional probability of S given T, denoted by P(S|T) is the probability of the joint occurrence of S and T (it means S∩T - what they have in common), divided by the probability of T, $P(S|T) = \frac{P(S \cap T)}{P(T)}$ and, the probability of the joint occurrence of S and T is $P(S \cap T) = P(T) \times P(S|T)$. The columns 4 (S, Female) and 6 (U, Male) from Table 1 are computed as conditional probabilities relatively to total population.

The complexity of the measurements is in direct ratio with the number of conditionings and becomes harder determined as increases the number of the conditionings. The largest number of dependencies of one characteristic or category on the other characteristics or categories of a system is a specific of the social systems. Concluding, as the number of dependent analyzed characteristics increases, the difficulty in determining them increases too (we can say in an exponential way for the human mind, alone).

In this context the internal probability distribution P(X(θ)) used to quantify the informational value of data in the Jüergen Jost model of internal and external complexity, is in most of the cases a conditional probability. This is given by the intrinsic

dependencies between the inputs (modeled as data representing the volume, the amount) from the environment, each pattern of that being an expression of dependencies in a specific context (such as a time scale, for example), corroborated with the internal complexity as complexity of representation of that data. This can be argued by analyzing the θ input models taken as example in Table 4. The input for the labour market is represented by the same categories, generically named γi in Table 3, but we increase the input amount when we change the retire age for womens, it means we change the upper bound of the last category. When the age is not the same, for Male and Female, we are forced to compute conditional probabilities and to work on a joint data set between the sets associated to each sex, as shown in Table 1 columns S and U. When the age is the same for both genders we can work at a centralized level (as shown in Table 3, column "Total Population") and we reduce the inputs complexity and increase in the same time the amount taken on one input source, it means in the scope of the external complexity model.

4. External Complexity and Internal Complexity

The complex adaptive systems modeled as networks consists of intelligent autonomous agents (as nodes or constituents of parts). By definition an agent collect information about its environment and applies some methods to select a properly action. According to Fromm (2004) based on Holland (1995, 1997) the complex adaptive system (CAS) can be defined as a collectivity of self-similar adaptive agents in interaction and, the multiple-agents system (MAS) as a system composed by multiple agents in interaction. The notions of MAS and CAS are similar, but only apparently and that because they reflect different components of complex systems. CAS is associated with the higher level structures and phenomenon of the system while MAS is associated with the components and elements of base level of that. A complex adaptive system is nothing else than a system that can be simulated, described and explained by a dynamic multi-agent system, and reciprocally, the multi-agent system simulations can be described as complex adaptive systems.

The system's environment is always more complex than the system itself (Jost, 2005) and, consequently never cannot be completely predicted. The system depends on environment regularities in order to maintain its replenishment with the required energy necessary to support (or preserve) its internal structures and processes. CAS try to reduce the internal complexity and to increase the external complexity (Jost, 2005). Jüergen Jost defines in (Jost, 2005), both, external complexity and internal complexity and found a way to model them, as summarized in this paragraph. The external complexity is defined as a measure of the input volume (information and/ or energy measurable by entropy) obtained from the environment and that the system is capable to manage and process: given a model θ the system can model data as X(θ), with X=(X1, X2, ..., Xk) the set of input types. X(θ) introduces an internal probability distribution P(X(θ)), to quantify the informational value of data, so that we can measure its organization using the entropy formula:

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{k} P(X_i(\theta)) log_2 P(X_i(\theta)) \tag{1}$$

in the hypothesis that the system will try to maximize its external complexity. The probability distribution is associated in fact to the partial knowledge about an out from equilibrium system. The system is considered in the equilibrium state when all probabilitie of its statuse where equal. Entropy is maximum for equal probabilities, is unaffected by extra states of zero prbability and, changes for conditional probabilities computed on the same original dataset distributed over dependant characteristics (like total population distributed on age categories and that distributed on sexes, Male and Female, as shown in Table 1 and Table 2). When computed on messages the entropy measure our ignorance about the message in its entirety or, in other words, "how likely the best predictions of the rest of message are to be wrong (Sethna, 2006, p. 88)". The entropy calculated here on data in Table 1 for the dataset in column labeled 2 and is 4.1699 which indicate a highly predictable dataset and is aproximatively 6 times less (read less organized) than maximum entropy 24.2622. When we express the dataset on two broad categories represented by sexes the conditional probabilities associated to age categories are distributed on columns 4 and 6. The entropy computed on these values is 5.0748, increased relatively to the one computed on column 2 but in accordance with its behavior "entropy changes with conditional probabilities". The entropy now is only approximatively 5 times less than the maximum entropy, we can interpret the measured system as a bit more organized. The entropy is now computed on the sample data in Table 2 column 2 and is 4.0627 which indicates, as the one determined for Table 1 column 2, a high predictable dataset. Until now the computations of entropy realized with the scope to have enough examples for comparissons with the informational energy, later on. The inputs for the labour market, in Table 3, designated by {γ1, γ2, γ3, γ4, γ5, γ6}, it means the values {0.0889, 0.2677, 0.2967, 0.1946, 0.1126, 0.0395}, forms a complete system of probabilities and corresponds to nineth θ model in Table 4, {65, 65}. In this context the valuation of the formula is 2.3379 which is approximatively 10 times less than the maximum entropy of considered population (14, 946, 046), it means 10 times less organized than maximum possible (23.8333). This is very good since a low entropy dataset is highly predictable. Thus the internal complexity is defined as a measure of the complexity of the representation

of the input by the system (representing in fact the model complexity). When external complexity measured as entropy this can be viewed as data complexity. The scope of the system is to manage as many inputs as possible using the simplest possible model. The increasing of external complexity is dependent on the time scale involved and the system is considered that has gathered input, noted with Ξ, on a time scale when the distribution of input patterns become stationary. After attaining that stationary state the model should be improved to handle as many inputs as possible, which is defined by Jost with formula:

$$-\sum_{i=1}^{k} P(\Xi_i|\theta) log_2 P(\Xi_i|\theta) - log_2 P(\theta) \qquad (2)$$

where P(θ) is the probability assigned to the the model (dependent on its internal structure). The Ξ = {0.0410, 0.1236, 0.1370, 0.0899, 0.0520, 0.0183, 0.1505, 0.2569, 0.0909, 0.0335, 0.0277, 0.0311, 0.0733, 0.1314}, build by extending the input to the entire population able to participate on labour market (is excluded the category of childrens and the part of retired or too old from the last category). The formula here evaluates to 3.4438 -(-1.1148)=4.5586 and here is an improvment since is only 6 time less than the maximum entropy (28.3839) in that case when population on input increses (18, 141, 057). The determination of this improvment of the system must be realized while minimizing its internal complexity, defined as:

$$\min_{\theta}(log_2 P(\Xi_i|\theta) - log_2 P(\theta)) \qquad (3)$$

an objective function like for the model. The objective function of the model try to minimize the difference between how efficient is the model (the first term) and how complicated is the model (the second term). So, can be considered that the external complexity addresses the volume of inputs (as information/ energy), from system's environment, that the system is capable to manipulate or to process, while, the internal complexity is a measure of input representation by the system, in fact, the model complexity. For both categories the existing model uses entropy, or other formulas based on, to measure the system.

5. Onicescu's Informational Energy

This paragraph is based on the information provided by Onicescu itself in the reference (Onicescu&Stefanescu, 1979) and the presentation in reference (Rizescu&Avram, 2014). The concept of informational energy and associated theory and practical methods developed by Onicescu before the year 1979.

Consider a system characterized by the statuses s1, s2, ..., sn having the corresponding weights w1, w2, ..., wn with respect for the constraint $\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i = 1$. The global information of the system, denoted by ES, can be expressed by the Onicescu "Informational Energy", determined as the mean of weights wi relatively to the individual statuses si, by the formula:

$$E_S = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i^2 \qquad (4)$$

(a sum of squares of weights), with $\frac{1}{n} \le E_S \le 1$.

The informational energy is 1/n only when all statuses have the same weight 1/n (the system's uniformity attained) and is 1 when one of its statuses weight is 1 (and consequently all others 0). For Table 1 the Informational Energy in column 2 is 0.0629 which indicate a relative differentiation from equal chance case (0.0073), and is approximatively 1, 265, 424 times far away of maximum (1). To the same data corresponds an entropy of 4.1699 which indicates a relative differentiation from perfect organization and compared with the maximum entropy of 24.2622 which is 6 times greater. So, both measurements, given to us a similar characterization of the system which is not in its equilibrium state, is not uniform, and not completely disorganized. The informational energy computed now on the conditional probabilities in Table 1 (columns 4 and 6) this is 0.1237, it increases relatively to the one computed on data in column 2. The increase means that the indetermination, uniformity or, disorganization of the system decreases (is a little bit more organized), a similar conclusion as for corresponding entropies. The informational energy is now computed on the sample data in Table 2 column 2 and is 0.0628 which is closed to the one determined for Table 1 column 2 and indicates a high predictable dataset too. Based on comparissons realized between entropy and informational energy we can conclude that the both measurements gives to us comparable information about the system. For Table 2 column 4 and 6 we compute the informational energy values for each one because they are individual complete probability repartitions (the sum of the values in each one is 1).

It was proved that the informational energy decreases in direct proportion with the raising of the systems uniformity, disorder, or indetermination. In other words, the informational energy increases in direct proportion with the raise of system differentiation that is the source of social system existence, for example. The informational energy of a system composed by two or more independent elements (or parts) is the product of their corresponding informational energies. For social

systems (or groups of people or, more formally, agents) and in the context of globalization is difficult to find, in the same space, two populations having nothing in common. Thus is possible to determine the correlation between two population (or groups of, or generally parts of a system) S and T, noted CS, T , having in common the characteristics γ1, γ2, ..., γn with the corresponding weights w1, w2, ..., wn, for population S and, q1, q2, ..., qn for population T, using the formula:

$$C_{S,T} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \cdot q_i \tag{5}$$

The formula (5) permit us to have dependent sets we associate complete sets of probabilities, it means without computing first the conditional probabilities, and to see if between two population is a relationship (like having something in common). The CS, T evaluates to zero (CS, T =0) if and only if all terms in the expression are null (the two parts or populations do not have something in common). The correlation coefficient is applied for data in columns 4 and 6 in Table 2, as separate datasets, and its value 0.0624 is closed to the informational energy for the entire sample 0.0628. The value of the correlation of a population S with itself is his informational energy. The informational correlation coefficient (noted RS, T) of the populations S and T obtained by normalization of the correlation:

$$R_{S,T} = \frac{C_{S,T}}{\sqrt{E_S \cdot E_T}} \tag{6}$$

where RS, T =1 if and only if S and T identical. The correlation and the correlation coefficient can be applied to any number of population having in common the characteristics γ1, γ2, ..., γn by extending the formulas with the corresponding weights.

6. Conclusions and Discutions

When we make use of complex adaptive systems and use entropy to measure and characterize the external complexity we must determine the conditional probabilities, and we can say that this is very hard be realized when the conditioning involves more than two conditioning input statuses. If we have the complete probability system then we can apply the computation formula and see the difference from maximum entropy. The frequencies, determined for the inputs from environment, are used as source for informational energy and correlation coefficient determination. Thus, instead computing the conditional probabilities is easy to determine the frequencies input status and to compute the informational energy and the correlation coefficient.

The – (minus) sign in the formulas (1), (2) and (3) is required to produce a positive value since the logarithm on fraction numbers (as probabilities are) produces a negative value. Because for informational energy we use square values all results are positive. With these considerations, shown here and in the previous paragraphs, the original model of external complexity, described by the equations (1), (2) and (3), based on entropy, can be adapted to use informational energy, by the formulas:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} P(X_i (\theta))^{\wedge}2 \tag{1'}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} P(\Xi_i |\theta)^{\wedge}2 + P(\theta)^{\wedge}2 \tag{2'}$$

$$\min_{\theta}(P(\theta)^{\wedge}2 - P(\Xi_i|\theta)^{\wedge}2) \tag{3'}$$

In the last formula (3') the terms are changed between them because in (3) the first term produces a negative value while the second a positive one, the operation is to minimize the difference between them. For entropies on excerpts the distance between the entropy and the maximum entropy is uncontrolable reduced. For our example in Table 2 column 2 the maximum entropy is only 9.9657 that is too less than the maxim entropy 24.2622 in Table 1 column 2, so we can say the entropy for the sample is not a very good measurement. We can say that for samples, because the number n of counted events is drastically reduced, the maximum entropy computed for 1/n is reduced too and this will influence in direct proportion, we can say, our conclusions. If the entropy is closed on that maximum we can conclude that the equilibrium of the system attained and we must do something to change that status because it becomes impredictible. In reality our system can be highly predictible.

For the same data the informational energies are very closed, 0.0629 and 0.0628 respectively, and they have a comparable distance against the minimum (1/n) and maximum informational energy value 1. The minimal informational energy in tabe is calculated for equal chance associated to measured categories and is the same for both tables (0.0556). The problem, when we use a sample with a reduced counted people the ratio 1/n increases (relatively to the number of entire population) and in this situation we can conclude that our computed value is to closed on the lower bound and the system is highly predictible, in reality, for the entire population, being far away of that. When energy is closed to lower limit we consider the system as disorganized, undetermined and uniform and that situation can make us searching for new ways to change that.

The outlined characteristics shows in fact that informational energy uses as source of data the normal statistical measurements used to characterize the evolution of a society, an economy, a group of countries etc. That is, as the large numbers law stipulates, we can measure only representative excerpts without affecting the real understanding of the behavior. It can be directly applied to measure, similarly to entropy, the disorder degree of a system together with the degree of interdependencies, of its observed parts, by intermediate of the coefficient of correlation.

The informational energy measurements don't exclude or completely replace the usage of entropy and valuation of that for a given system. They can be used together and valuated on the available data source on an efficiency basis and in correlation with the dataset characterizing the observed system. What we can say is that the informational energy can be used for both cases, those of entire population and those of representative sample because a higher lower limit is not so bad (we have a higher energy in reality while mesurements indicates a bit less). The usage of entropy for such samples change the maximum value of that and we can conclude that a system is highly organized and nothing to improve. In this context we can say that the impediments of each one on excerpts can be avoided if we know the total number of population n and we use 1/n in the computation of maximal entropy and as lower limit for informational energy. This replacement allows to increase the accuracy of measurements and the trust in these.

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Tables

Table 1. The Probabilities Associated to System's Characteristics γi and the Conditional Probabilities for S and U Parts of the System for the Same Characteristics (2011 Romania Census)

Characteristics (Age Category)		T (Total Population) {wi}		S (Female)	Probability of S conditioned By T {pi}	U (Male)	Probability of U conditioned By T {qi}
0		1	2	3	4	5	6
γ1	0-4	1045029	0.0505	507949	0.0252	537, 080	0.0267
γ2	5-9	1054391	0.0491	512532	0.0255	541, 859	0.0269
γ3	10-14	1090226	0.0516	530854	0.0264	559, 372	0.0278
γ4	15-19	1108453	0.0563	540381	0.0269	568, 072	0.0282
γ5	20-24	1366374	0.0803	662022	0.0329	704, 352	0.0350
γ6	25-29	1303077	0.0752	636401	0.0316	666, 676	0.0331
γ7	30-34	1522719	0.0827	749707	0.0373	773, 012	0.0384
γ8	35-39	1538897	0.0776	756054	0.0376	782, 843	0.0389
γ9	40-44	1743878	0.0811	856309	0.0426	887, 569	0.0441
γ10	45-49	1076258	0.0566	531963	0.0264	544, 295	0.0271
γ11	50-54	1332266	0.0688	677525	0.0337	654, 741	0.0325
γ13	55-59	1448043	0.067	759139	0.0377	688, 904	0.0342
γ13	60-64	1244286	0.054	671438	0.0334	572, 848	0.0285
γ14	65-69	890340	0.041	497321	0.0247	393, 019	0.0195
γ15	70-74	901370	0.0435	530454	0.0264	370, 916	0.0184
γ16	75-79	729965	0.0331	444583	0.0221	285, 382	0.0142
γ17	80-84	462807	0.0206	292233	0.0145	170, 574	0.0085

γ18	85 & >	263262	0.0109	176199	0.0088	87, 063	0.0043
Total:		20, 121, 641	1	10, 333, 064	0.5135	9, 788, 577	0.4865

	S { wi }		Ξ = { pi } U { qi }	
	Entropy (Maxim 24.2622)	Informational Energy	Entropy (Maxim 24.2622)	Informational Energy
Current (c)	4.1699	0.0629	5.0748	0.1237
Equal chance (ec)	4.1699	0.0556	5.1699	0.0278

Table 2. The Frequencies for the Characteristics γi as for the Representative Sample Data obtained by randomly selecting data from detail reports

Characteristics	S	{wi}	W	{pi}	Q	{qi}
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
γ1	51	0.0448	23	0.0574	28	0.028
γ2	50	0.0449	23	0.0554	27	0.027
γ3	53	0.0487	25	0.0575	28	0.028
γ4	54	0.0507	26	0.0574	28	0.028
γ5	81	0.0721	37	0.0903	44	0.044
γ6	76	0.0741	38	0.0781	38	0.038
γ7	81	0.0819	42	0.0801	39	0.039
γ8	77	0.0741	38	0.0801	39	0.039
γ9	82	0.0799	41	0.0843	41	0.041
γ10	57	0.0585	30	0.0554	27	0.027
γ11	68	0.0663	34	0.0698	34	0.034
γ13	67	0.0682	35	0.0655	32	0.032
γ13	53	0.0565	29	0.0493	24	0.024
γ14	42	0.0507	26	0.033	16	0.016
γ15	43	0.0448	23	0.0412	20	0.02
γ16	32	0.0390	20	0.0246	12	0.012
γ17	21	0.0273	14	0.0144	7	0.007
γ18	12	0.0175	9	0.0062	3	0.003
Total:	1000	1	513	1	487	1

	S { wi }		Informational Energy		CW, U
	Entropy (max 9.9657)	Informational Energy	W	U	
Current (c)	4.0627	0.0628	0.0610	0.0655	0.0624
Equal chance (ec)	5.7958	0.0556	0.0556	0.0556	0.0556

Table 3. Population structure, by participation in economic activity, by age group, sex and area, in 2011

Age Categories	Total Population		Active Population			Non economically active persons	
			Total				
	Amount			Amount		Amount	
Total	21354396	1		9844377	0.4610	11510019	0.5390
< 15 years	3213339	0.1505	-			3213339	0.1505
15-64 years	14946046	0.6999		9460847	0.4430	5485199	0.2569
from which:					pi		
15 - 24 years	2817377	0.1319	γ1 0.0889	876204	0.0410	1941173	0.0909
25 - 34 years	3354614	0.1571	γ2 0.2677	2640081	0.1236	714533	0.0335
35 - 44 years	3516544	0.1647	γ3 0.2967	2925765	0.1370	590779	0.0277
45 - 54 years	2582403	0.1209	γ4 0.1946	1918725	0.0899	663678	0.0311
55 - 64 years	2675108	0.1253	γ5 0.1126	1110170	0.0520	1564938	0.0733
65 years and >	3195011	0.1496	γ6 0.0395	389791	0.0183	2805220	0.1314

	γi		pi	
	Entropy (max 23.8333)	Informational Energy	Entropy (max 28.3839)	Informational Energy
Current (c)	2.7987	0.1445	3.4888	0.1022
Equal chance (ec)	2.8074	0.1429	4.1699	0.0555

HOMELESSNESS WITHIN SOCIAL CHANGE

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Abstract

Homelessness, which is a combination of so many social problems, is one of the important indicators of the tragedy of humanity nowadays. It has become a current social problem again because of some reasons such as urbanization, be refugee status as a result of wars, migrations because of unemployment and poverty, alcohol and drug addiction, mental illnesses, terrorism, domestic violence and natural disasters. Although there are different descriptions of homelessness it is generally the event which some people sustains their lives in public places, parks or streets because they have no shelter of their own. Homelessness is a prism that reflects especially the frustrations of housing, welfare, education, health services and the justice system. This complex social phenomenon opposed to the basic definitions and resists against easy solutions. Homeless are not just the people whose opportunities and options are limited by poverty, but also those who are restricted because of mental illness, drug abuse, physical and sexual violence, ignorance, complex medical problems and getting older. The aim of this research is to discuss the psychological, sociological and economic problems of people who do not have a place for their own to use as a shelter; and to compare the solutions and strategies of some countries for the prevention of homelessness. In the study we focused on identification of the phenomenon of homelessness, the reasons for homelessness and the general characteristics of the homeless people. The sample of study is a social worker working in Istanbul, Turkey Darülaceze (Hospice) Institution and eleven homeless staying there; a social worker working in the city of Kassel, Germany Soziale Hilfe e.V. Kassel Institution and eleven homeless staying there; eight social workers working in the city of Ljubljana, Slovenya Kralji Ulice Institution and eleven homeless staying there; and a social worker working in Shelter Institution.The data were collected using interview, questionnaire, survey techniques and observations were made where appropriate.

Key Words: Homelessness, Social Work, Darülaceze, Türkiye, Germany, Slovenia.

HOMELESSNESS WITHIN SOCIAL CHANGE

INTRODUCTION

Homelessness has become a current social problem because of some reasons such as urbanization, industrialization, be refugee status as a result of wars, unemployment, migrations because of poverty, alcohol and drug addiction, mental illnesses, terrorism, domestic violence and natural disasters. It has increasingly reached a feared significant problem for all countries. Although seen throughout human history, homelessness has not been a living problem in the recent years.

There are 100 million homeless in the world according to the reports of the United Nations (The report on the homeless in Turkey, 2011). These are the people who do not have a place to stay in and live in the streets (parks, under stairs, in doorways, under bridges) or in refugee camps.

Homelessness was seen as a major problem especially in many European Union member countries and developed and industrialized countries of the world and social scientists have done some researches on this issue.

Aim of this study is to identify psychological, sociological and economic problems of individuals who do not have a place used as a shelter of their own or rented; to compare the services for homeless people in Turkey, Germany and Slovenia; and to provide recommendations for the prevention of homelessness.

For this purpose, the questionnaire which was prepared inTurkish, English, German and Slovenian language has been applied to some homeless people living in Turkey, Germany and Slovenia. The questionnaire is limited to a total of 20 questions which eight are open-ended and 12 closed-ended. The data obtained in the survey are shown "findings and comments" section in the tables and comments have been made according to the results.

In this study, some of the non-governmental organizations related to homelessness located in İstanbul, which is the most populous city in Turkey, the city of Kassel[1] in Germany and the capital city of Slovenia, Ljubljana[2] were examined. The study is limited to ten social workers, thirty-three homeless, four institutions, three cities and three countries as total. A social worker working in the city of İstanbul, Turkey Darülaceze (Hospice) Institution and eleven homeless staying there; a social worker working in the city of Kassel, Germany Soziale Hilfe e.V. Kassel Institution and eleven homeless staying there; eight social workers working in the city of Ljubljana, Slovenia Kralji Ulice Institution and eleven homeless staying there; and a social worker working in Shelter Institution. The data were collected using interview and survey techniques and observations were made where appropriate.

1. HOMELESSNESS

Homelessness is the event which some people sustains their lives in public places because they have no shelter of their own. Drake et al (1982) has defined Homeless as "Every single person without his or her home". But Larew described homelessness as "the lack of suitable conditions for settlement and social marginalization," (Türkcan ve Türkcan, quoted from 1996). Under U.S.A. law, homeless is described as the people who do not have a house or a residence, living in the streets and avenues, no appropriate place to sleep at night; the ones who stay at hotels, housing estates, prisons and places for mentally ill that provide temporary living conditions; the ones living in social housing which are under control; the ones living in institutional settings, allowing for temporary housing. Homelessness is described as the status of the process of living such life style (Yağan, 2009). It is known that according to researches, since 1980s in the United States, more than 1.5 million people become to live on the streets, about 3 million people do not have a place to live for, and 13.5 million people living in this country are homeless at some time in their lives (Plumb, 1997).

Homelessness is a prism that reflects especially the frustrations of housing, welfare, education, health services and the justice system. This complex social phenomenon opposed to the basic definitions and resists against easy solutions. Homeless are not just the people whose opportunities and options are limited by poverty, but also those who are restricted because of mental illness, drug abuse, physical and sexual violence, ignorance, complex medical problems and advancing years. When the subject focuses on the studies are examined, it is emphasized that poverty is not the only reason for homelessness. Alcoholism, drug addiction and mental illness are the features which also seen in homeless people. Poverty and inflation, reduction in earning power and opportunities, economic downturn, industrialization and however resulting unemployment, lack of social security policies are defined the main reasons for homelessness (Baum ve Burness, 1993).

Homelessness, which is a serious social problem, has begun to be felt increasingly in Turkey too. Problems such as migrations from villages to cities, housing problem and unemployment have been caused to homelessness. Apart from these, problems such as rapid population growth of cities as a result of migration from villages to cities, unplanned urbanization, lack of appropriate infrastructure (basis/bases), divorces, lack of social security, low income, not to benefit from health services enough, inadequate and unbalanced nutrition, drug addiction constitute a significant social destruction for people. The number of unhealthy and problematic people has been multiplying, in parallel with this; the number of homeless people in the streets of big cities has rapidly been increasing day by day (Altun, 1997).

1.1. Types of Homelessness

Smith (2000), İlhan and Ergün (2010) made three types of classifications about homelessness. These are:

Episodic homelessness: The ones, who are likely to remain homeless from time to time, live below the poverty line and faced with the risk of becoming homeless constantly.

Temporary homelessness: The ones whose homelessness is not a very long time. Unlike the homeless people, they describe themselves as a part of the society. Anxiety, depression symptoms, alcohol and substance abuse can be seen at this type of homeless. Their lifestyles are not accepted. They strive to regain their homes, jobs and social status.

Chronic homelessness: Kind of ongoing long-term or repeated homelessness. They accept to live on the streets as normal and clearly identified as homeless. They are very skeptical at communications with other individuals in the society.

1.2. Reasons of Homelessness

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[1] This section has been prepared basing on my student Selman Bölükbaşı's (Sakarya University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Department of Social Work) final assignment done in 2012 to which I served as a consultant and have directed to study on homeless.
[2] This section has been prepared basing on my student Selman Bölükbaşı's (Sakarya University, Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Department of Social Work) final assignment done in 2012 to which I served as a consultant and have directed to study on homeless.

Homelessness, depending on industrialization and globalization, is one of the major social problems felt in every country in the world. There are several theories attempting to explain the causes of homelessness. These are: systematic reasons theory, personal inadequacy theory, victim model theory, aggrieved model theory.

According to the systematic reasons theory homelessness occurs as a result of inadequate or failed mental health policies, high unemployment rate and lack of opportunities such as inadequate housing. The theory of personal inadequacy accepts alcoholism, drug addiction, and mental illness, lack of social relations, not to take responsibility, laziness or free lifestyles as the causes of homelessness. While victim model theory describes homelessness as remaining of individuals helpless in difficult life conditions (Özdemir, 2010), aggrieved model theory describes as the lack of adequate social support and problem solving skills (Van, 1993).

Roth and Bean (1986) show the causes of homelessness in their studies as in the following:

Deinstitutionalization: The process of reducing a person's dependence on an institutional environment, the practice of moving people (especially those with developmental disability) from mental institutions into community-based or family-based environments. The releasing of institutionalized individuals from institutional care (as in a psychiatric hospital) so that to take care in the community.

Economic factors: Unemployment, poverty, lack of opportunities to obtain suitable housing, imbalances in the distribution of wages and so on.

Social issues: The parents, relatives and friends of homeless would not adapt to them or do not wish to adapt to them, marital problems, previously being lived in a variety of care institutions and so on.

1.3. Shelters of Homeless: Health, Food and Drink and Clothing

During the summer months, many of them stay at parks, gardens, walkways, park benches and streets. However, in the winter months, they will have to find indoor and sheltered places such as ATMs, under bridges, bus and train stations, abandoned houses to avoid themselves from cold and rain. They have been trying to protect themselves from the wind and rain using discarded cardboard boxes or old sponges as beds most of the time.

Generally, they continue their lives with the money and food given by public and the shopkeepers. Some of them eat food collected from the garbage. They wear old clothes. They can not figure out health problems because they have no money and social security. When they are ill, they either wait for self-healing or wait for the suffering end. Due to cold, hunger and inadequate sanitation they face to all kinds of diseases.

2. RESULTS AND COMMENTS

The questionnaire about the homeless in Turkey, Germany and Slovenia was prepared in Turkish, English, German and Slovenian languages. It is limited to a total of 20 questions which 8 of them are open-ended and 12 closed-ended. The data obtained as a result of questionnaire is shown in the following tables.

According to the data Table 1, the highest homelessness rate in Turkey is 45, 5% between the ages 18-30. The same rate in Slovenia is between the age 31-44, and the highest homelessness rate in Germany is 54, 5% between the ages 45-59. When these results are examined it is remarkable that while development levels of countries increases the age group of homelessness goes up too.

The age group between 18-59 homelessness is more in total homelessness. The reasons are the ones who are under 18 can stay in foster homes (orphanage) and the ones who are over 60 can stay in the old people's home and elderly care centers, but there are no special places for accomodation for the ones who are between 18-60 ages.

According to some researches, more than half of the homeless people are men, but according to some researches done in recent years it has shown that the numbers of homeless women are more than men. It is understood that this situation is related to domestic violence and one third of homeless women left their home because of they faced to abuse and they become homeless (Yağan, 2009).

Analyzing the data of Table 2, the distribution of homelessness according to sex it is seen that the proportion of men (78.8%) is more than women. Furthermore, when every country is compared among them it is understood that the homeless rate of men is almost the same but the homeless men in the homeless population are more than women. In my opinion the reason of this can be explained by women can easily find a place for accomodation than men and the number of woman shelter houses are more than man shelter houses.

According to the data of Table 3 it is understood that the rate of unmarried is at the first place and most of the homeless are unmarried. There is no relation between the development level of countries and maritial status. It can be said that not having a continuous housing has affected the maritial status of homeless and made it difficult to have a relationship with the gender.

Considering the number of homeless children in Table 4, it is understood that a large proportion of homeless people, such as 66.7% have no children. And the ones with children only have one or two. In the study, there is no significant relationship between the number of children and the development level of the countries.

Considering the general level of education of homeless people in total (Table 5), it is understood that, 15.2% not have any education, 39.4% graduated from primary school, 24.2% graduated from secondary school, 12.1% graduated from high school and 9.1% graduated from colleges or universities. Although the data show that most of the homeless are graduated from primary school, at the same time the data reveals the fact that higher education graduates might be homeless too.

When the countries compared on the basis of homelessness and education; it is understood that in Turkey the level of education increases, the rate of homelessness has decreased (Table 5). In Germany, the absence of homeless without education whereas people who have higher education are homeless is noteworthy. In Slovenia, there is proximity to each level of education the proportion of people who are homeless.

As it is shown in Table 6; 12.1% of homeless people's parents are alive and the mother and father were married, 18.2% of their mothers are alive, 6.1% of their fathers are alive. 42.4% of their parents died, and 21.2% of thier both mother and fathers are alive, but live separately. According to this result, it is understood that the vast majority of homeless people's (42.4%) mothers and fathers are not alive. This result should be seen as the basic indicator of the family which serves a protector duty in society. It is likely to be homeless when taking any moral and material support from the family. However, in the case of if the father is still alive being homeless rate is low compared to the mother is still alive. This should be regarded as a sign of father who is seen as a source of income in the family and who provides the necessary economic support of the child.

One of the applicants in Slovenia stated being his cause of homelessness as his mother chuck out him of the house. In the EU countries, families cut subsidies due to economic and personal independence of children after 18 years, so this situation can be among the reasons for the high number of homeless in these countries. In Turkey, where the traditional structure is dominated, the children (daughters or sons) are separated from their parents after marrying or starting a business. Even they continue to get the support from their parents lifelong.

According to Table 7, 54.5% of homeless people live alone and 27.3% of homeless people live with friend(s). These two rates are higher than the others and show that homeless prefer to live alone or with close friends and colleagues environment.

When we compare the data by countries, it is seen that as the countries developed, the proportion of homeless people living alone is increasing. In Germany it is seen the highest level. In Turkey homeless people prefer to live with friends and groups.

When we examine how many of those who participated in the study were homeless at what age (Table 8), it is understood that the highest frame rate is 39.4%, with the age group of 18-30; and the other rates are close to each other (15.2% 0-17; 18.2% of 31-44; 21.2% 45-59; 6.1% of 60 or over 60 years old). This shows homelessness starts at any age.

There has not been established any relationship between the development level of countries and homelessness. It is seen that in all three countries, homelessness starts since the age of 18. Another feature of the homeless people is it is their choice to live on the streets. A large part of these people refuse to enter an institution and live under the rules and regulations. It is indicated that homelessness has a cyclic structure; the majority of homeless people left the prevention (housing) system within two years after they are included the system (Karamustafalıoğlu, 2007).

As shown in Table 9 when asked how long they were homeless, according to the study the average 12.8 months in Turkey, Slovenia, 22.7 months and 38.1 months in Germany. The average of the countries is 24.5 months.

According to these data, Turkey is below the overall average, Slovenia is close to the overall average and Germany is above the overall average. So, it can be said that there is a direct correlation between time of being homeless and the development level of countries.

While long-term homelessness is common in Germany, temporary and short-term homelessness is mentioned in Turkey. In the period the questionary was applied it was encountered that there was culture of homelessness in Germany

and some of the applicants have stated that it was their own choices to be homeless. It is possible to show this situation among the long-term causes of homelessness.

According to the data in Table 10, 39.4% of the homelesses never exposed to oppression and violence, but 36.4% of them exposed to psychological, and 24.2% of them exposed to physical oppression and violence. None of the homeless in the survey mentioned that they were exposed to other types of domestic violence or oppression.

In Turkey and Slovenia, while physical pressure and violence leave its place to psychological pressure and violence; in Germany, being more advanced country, physical violence and repression surpassed the psychological pressure and violence. According to the interview results identified, in Slovenia, it was understood that the homeless people were humiliated as the form of "Why do you not work, find a job? Why do you lazy around, dirty guys? Do we have to feed you?" as psychological pressure and violence. The homeless in Turkey stated that they exposed to physical oppression and violence from the thinner addicted individuals.

According to the data Table11, it is understood that 39.4% of the homeless benefited from non-governmental organization or any charity organisations; 21.2% of them benefited from the state and state institutions and agencies, 21.2% of them benefited from religious institutions and organizations; 12.1% of them benefited from other sources.

When these data were evaluated according to the countries, it is understood that in Turkey, the homeless benefited from religious institutions and agencies are in majority (54.5%), while rate receiving assistance from the state is 9.1%. In Slovenia, religious institutions and organizations left their places to civil society organizations and charities (54.5%). In Germany, individuals are both benefited from non-governmental organizations and charities as well as government and state institutions in the same proportions (45.5%) and supported by aid. Thus, it is understood that Germany provides more powerful support to the homeless compared to other countries which constitute the sample.

When the data in the Table 12 are examined, it is understood that 78.8% of homeless people always smoke; 6.1% of them occasionally smoke; 15.2% of them are non-smokers. Accordingly, it can be said that the vast majority of homeless people are smokers; there is no significant relationship between the country's development level and homelesness-smoking rate.

According to the data Table 13, when "yes" and "occasionally" items taken together, it is understood that the rates of homeless who use and not use alcohol is close to each other. When we compare the countries, it is noted that the "occasionally" ratio is equal in Turkey and Slovenia. In Germany the rate of alcohol use of homeless people is less than expected, because beer can be accepted as a traditional beverage and not a sprit. In Turkey, a "yes" can not expressed because drunken people are not welcome to stay or shelter in the state-owned or private institutions.

Information obtained from open-ended questions of the questionary can be briefly summarized as follows according to the countries:

Turkey:

Reasons of homelessness: Earthquake, unemployment, migration, economic, terror, war and conflict.

Result of homelessness: Negative impact on social welfare and community communication, abstraction of individuals themselves from society.

Social security: Most of them have no health insurance; a few of them have green cards.

Health problems: Common cold, pneumonia, cancer.

Whose decision to be homelessness: According to most of them it is not their decision, but they are homeless due to unavoidable reasons.

Demands: They want the state to increase business opportunities and support its citizens.

Advices: Strengthening of social guarantees, to provide home and job opportunities to the poors, to treat patients.

Germany:

Reasons of homelessness: Loss of housing, unemployment, statelessness, economic, freedom, disease and war against capitalism.

Results of homelessness: It does not affect social welfare and social communication

Social security: Almost all of them have health insurance, and most of them Krankenkasse and AOK[1].

Health problems: A few of them are tuberculosis.

Whose decision to be homelessness: According to most of them it is not their decision; they are homeless because of reasons mentioned above; there are individuals who indicates that to be homeless is their decision, those who say they live such a life to lead away from the imperialist world set the culture of homelessness and there are people who have adopted the culture of homelessness.

Demands: More social housing.

Advices: Fight against the homelessness and capitalism

Slovenia:

Reasons of homelessness: The biggest factor is drug addiction, then expel from the family, later immigration, economy and unemployment.

Results of homelessness: Negative impact on social welfare and communication with the community or society.

Social security: Partial health insurance as required by the State.

Health problems: Drug addiction.

Whose decision to be homelessness: Inevitably reasons.

Demands: They want the Government to make more homes and ease of construction policies.

Advices: Never use of addictible drugs.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is understood that, the services offered and the studies conducted on homelessness, which has become one of the increasing social problems in recent years, differ according to the societies. In this study it is found out that the phenomenon of homelessness is not seen as an important problem in Turkey, so the social services and assistance offered by the state for homeless people is not continuous, and the aids made mostly through charitable people and religious organizations (54.5%). This situation reveals the need for non-governmental organizations in Turkey. On contrast, in Germany, the ones who get aids from the state/government agencies and organizations (45.5%) is higher according to the non-governmental organization or charitable institutions. In Slovenia, the number of those who get aids from non-governmental organizations or charities (54.5%) are higher than the others.

It is understood that when the development levels of countries increases, the age of being homelessness increases too. In general, it is found out that the rate of homeless according to gender, men; according to marital status, singles; according to the number of children, people without children were more than. Almost half of the homeless people's parents (42.4%) are dead and more than half (54.5%) of homeless live alone. This situation emphasizes how necessary for human to live under the roof of a family being as a social creature and in need of nursing care (See Tables).

Although the majority of homeless people had low educational level, there are also homeless people who had higher education. There is a direct relation between the development level of countries and duration of being homeless. While the vast majority of homeless people (78.8%) are smoking, the habit of using alcohol is not as high as the same ratio.

As a result, when the state's organizations are not enough in these areas it will be beneficial to the welfare of society to provide service to all kinds of people in need by increasing the number of non-governmental organizations, charitable associations and foundations. Especially in Turkey, it is recommended that governorships and municipalities, particularly in large cities, should establish houses, residences and social institutions which give permanent services to homeless people and citizens; the state should provide economic support to persons that establish such institutions; in these institutions, homeless people's all kinds of needs - material and spiritual- care, treatment and rehabilitation should be provided by the relevant staff; phone service should be provided so that to report the people living on the streets to the authorized persons and organizations; inter-agency cooperation should work in coordination with each other; the donations and benfits which given by the charitable organizations and religious institutions should spread throughout the year; some activities and vocational training should be done for the suitable persons to have a profession.

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[1] Local Public Health Insurance Funds

Briefly, the following can be said about these three countries: The homeless people do not have economic power to provide services to meet their basic needs and self-care. Staying on the streets for a long time and the negativity of living conditions lead to various health problems on these persons (such as schizophrenia, arthritis, pneumonia, drug addiction, etc.). These people living on the streets are faced to all kinds of social danger and risks. Their lives are put at risk by the mafia of organs and gangs of beggars. Therefore, many institutions and disciplines should cooperate with each other when creating services for homeless people. For this purpose, it must be performed that shelter, care and basic needs of homeless people should be provided; health problems should be eliminated; by making home calls, the ones who have family should be ensured to return to their family; and the ones who have no family should be placed into a permanent organization where they can take care and rehabilitation services.

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TABLES

Table 1: Distribution of Age and Country

Age		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
0–17	Number	1	0	0	1
	%	9,1%	0%	0%	3,0%
18–30	Number	5	3	1	9
	%	45,5%	27,3%	9,1%	27,3%
31–44	Number	2	5	2	9
	%	18,2%	45,5%	18,2%	27,3%
45–59	Number	2	2	6	10
	%	18,2%	18,2%	54,5%	30,3%
60+	Number	1	1	2	4
	%	9,1%	9,1%	18,2%	12,1%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 2: Gender

Gender		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Woman	Number	2	2	3	7
	%	18,2%	18,2%	27,3%	21,2%
Man	Number	9	9	8	26
	%	81,8%	81,8%	72,7%	78,8%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 3: Maritial Status

Maritial status		Country			
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	Total
Single	Number	8	6	7	21
	%	72,7%	54,5%	63,6%	63,6%
Have partner	Number	2	2	3	7
	%	18,2%	18,2%	27,3%	21,2%
Married	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
Seperated	Number	1	2	1	4
	%	9,1%	18,2%	9,1%	12,1%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 4: Number of Child

Number of		Country			
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	Total
0	Number	10	5	7	22
	%	90,9%	45,5%	63,6%	66,7%
1	Number	0	3	1	4
	%	,0%	27,3%	9,1%	12,1%
2	Number	1	2	0	3
	%	9,1%	18,2%	,0%	9,1%
3	Number	0	0	2	2
	%	,0%	,0%	18,2%	6,1%
4	Number	0	0	1	1
	%	,0%	,0%	9,1%	3,0%
5	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 5: Status of Education

Status of Education		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
İlleterate	Number	3	2	0	5
	%	27,3%	18,2%	,0%	15,2%
Primary	Number	3	4	6	13
	%	27,3%	36,4%	54,5%	39,4%
Secondary	Number	3	2	3	8
	%	27,3%	18,2%	27,3%	24,2%
High school	Number	2	1	1	4
	%	18,2%	9,1%	9,1%	12,1%
University	Number	0	2	1	3
	%	,0%	18,2%	9,1%	9,1%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 6: Status of Parents

Status of Parents		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Both alive and married	Number	1	2	1	4
	%	9,1%	18,2%	9,1%	12,1%
Mother alive	Number	3	0	3	6
	%	27,3%	,0%	27,3%	18,2%
Father alive	Number	1	1	0	2
	%	9,1%	9,1%	,0%	6,1%
Both dead	Number	4	5	5	14
	%	36,4%	45,5%	45,5%	42,4%
Both alive but separated	Number	2	3	2	7
	%	18,2%	27,3%	18,2%	21,2%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 7: Life Styles

Life style		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Alone	Number	4	6	8	18
	%	36,4%	54,5%	72,7%	54,5%
With friend/s	Number	6	1	2	9
	%	54,5%	9,1%	18,2%	27,3%
With mother and/or father	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
With spouse	Number	0	2	0	2
	%	,0%	18,2%	,0%	6,1%
With boy/girl friend	Number	1	0	1	2
	%	9,1%	,0%	9,1%	6,1%
Other	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 8: Homelessness			Country			Total
			Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
	0–17	Number	3	1	1	5
		%	27,3%	9,1%	9,1%	15,2%
	18–30	Number	4	6	3	13
		%	36,4%	54,5%	27,3%	39,4%
	31–44	Number	1	3	2	6
		%	9,1%	27,3%	18,2%	18,2%
	45–59	Number	2	1	4	7
		%	18,2%	9,1%	36,4%	21,2%
	60+	Number	1	0	1	2
		%	9,1%	,0%	9,1%	6,1%
Toplam		Number	11	11	11	33
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 9: How Long They Have Homeless (Monthly)

Duration	Country			Average
	Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
Month	12.8	22.7	38.1	24.5

Table 10: What Kind of Pressure and Violence They Encounter From Outside

Pressure and violence			Country			Total
			Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
No		Number	2	3	8	13
		%	18,2%	27,3%	72,7%	39,4%
Physical		Number	4	2	2	8
		%	36,4%	18,2%	18,2%	24,2%
Psychological		Number	5	6	1	12
		%	45,5%	54,5%	9,1%	36,4%
Total		Number	11	11	11	33
		%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 11: Resources and Help Places

Resources and Help Places		Country			Total
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	
State/Foundations belong to state	Number	1	1	5	7
	%	9,1%	9,1%	45,5%	21,2%
NGO	Number	2	6	5	13
	%	18,2%	54,5%	45,5%	39,4%
Religious foundations	Number	6	1	0	7
	%	54,5%	9,1%	,0%	21,2%
Red Crescent/ Red Cross	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
Family and relatives	Number	0	1	0	1
	%	,0%	9,1%	,0%	3,0%
Other	Number	2	1	1	4
	%	18,2%	9,1%	9,1%	12,1%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 12: Smoking Rates

Smoking		Country			
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	Total
Yes	Number	7	11	8	26
	%	63,6%	100,0%	72,7%	78,8%
Sometimes	Number	1	0	1	2
	%	9,1%	,0%	9,1%	6,1%
No	Number	3	0	2	5
	%	27,3%	,0%	18,2%	15,2%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Table 13: Rates of Alcohol Use

Alcohol Use		Country			
		Turkey	Slovenia	Germany	Total
Yes	Number	0	3	5	8
	%	,0%	27,3%	45,5%	24,2%
Sometimes	Number	4	4	1	9
	%	36,4%	36,4%	9,1%	27,3%
No	Number	7	4	5	16
	%	63,6%	36,4%	45,5%	48,5%
Total	Number	11	11	11	33
	%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

APPENDIXES

Darülaceze (Hospice) is the oldest institution serving in İstanbul. It was built in 1896 and put into service Sultan Abdülhamit II's (1842-1918) request to gather beggars, unaccompanied children loitering in the streets, lonely people lying in the courtyard of a mosque and diseased people who lived in İstanbul and to make them the chastening of art and in order to have homeless people end their lives in peace.

The purpose of Darülaceze is to serve those who have born and settled in İstanbul, and those who are disabled and incapable for work, those who have no facilities to ensure the amount of gain, and disabled, infirm and elderly people over 18 years old who have no one legally obliged to take care of themselves in İstanbul or in the provinces, and those who have been found on the streets, and underprivileged children in the 0-3 age group and the children under protection.

Hospice which is a compassion home has been serving people regardless of religion, language, race, class and gender differences. Here, all the needs of shelter residents such as clothing, shelter, food, health and care are covered by the institution and the

service continues 24 hours a day. Residents' physical examination and treatment services, preventive health services and acute or chronic illness have being treated, in the situations that require further examination and treatment any medical treatment is implemented by establishing links with hospitals. The places of worship of the monotheist religions mosque, church and synagogue are in a combination in the yard of the Hospice that does not exist any country in the world.

These are the service units located within the institution;

Child Care: It is a unit where 0-3 age group street deserted children's all kinds of needs are met (housing, food, clothing, health care).

Semi-Adequate Male Department: It is a unit where all kinds of needs of male residents who partially remedied their daily living activities are met.

Self-sufficient Male Department: It is a unit where all kinds of needs of male residents who can perform their daily living activities without assistance are met.

Bedridden Women's Office: It is a unit where all kinds of needs of female residents who are bed-bounded and do not fulfill all kinds of activities of daily living shelter, food, clothing, health care) are met.

Self-sufficient Female Department: It is a unit where all kinds of needs of female residents who can perform their daily living activities without assistance are met. It has 96 bed capacities (http://www.darulaceze.gov.tr e.t:.23.06.2014).

Although there are many non-governmental organizations carrying out studies on homeless, the Soziale Hilfe e.V. Kassel we examined as an example in this research has been established on small scale assistance such as aid and housing in 1885. Many voluntary organizations, supporters and sponsors are mobilized support the work of the organization and to improve the status of the city's poorest people. In recent years, it draws attention that the number of young people who want aids has been increasing and the highest rate of them is young women. The actual financing of the organization is covered by Hessen State Administration and the European Social Fund.

The following activities are carried out today in the center of Soziale Hilfe:

Night Mansions: The social services which are provided for homeless not subjected to cold in winter. In cold weather, the accommodation of homeless people at nights is provided with mobile flats or homes.

Panama-Day Accommodation: It is a place where the homeless who have economic and personal problems come to rest and to take counseling/advice. It gains importance especially during the cold seasons. The services offered here include: Lunch is € 1.25, while fruits and tea are free of charge. Toilet, shower and bath services; clothing and finery; washing and drying; the health service, luggage room; financial management; various entertainment and cultural educational activities such as newspapers, magazines, and internet; crafts, games and sports activities; social counseling; help for homeless and former prisoners.

Among 4 Wall - Life Women: It is designed for homeless women. The women who are living in unsafe housing, do not have a fixed place at least for two months, released from prison may be substituted for guest houses. The aim is to provide a safe shelter and social issues to develop a personal perspective for women.

Eastern Panama - Regional Office: It helps those who live in Bettenhausen and gives services such as breakfast, counseling, support and leisure.

Kassel Prison Counseling: Every day from 14:00 to 16:00, counseling services are given by social workers for those who are in prison and want consulting.

For Foreigners: It is the assistance provided to special case of foreign prisoners by Hessen State Government.

Studies in Public Places Support Presentations and Street: It is the support which is provided with local authority for homeless people.

Kralji Ulice, which was founded in the capital Ljubljana and continues to serve in an active way today, is the sample of this research. Kralji Ulice, which means "King of the streets" in Turkish, is a non-governmental organization provides services for the homeless.

The beginning story of the Kralji Ulice is described as follows: In December 2004, Professor. Dr. Razpotnik Špela and a group of social pedagogy students decide to spend 24 hours on the streets with homeless people in a cold winter day. During the time they spend together, the people live on the streets help them. Practitioners saw that the people living on the streets are as not as terrible personality as they appear. In the following days they gather various aids to help people who are homeless and make necessary arrangements with organizations. In May 2005, the first number (sayı) of the first Slovenian Street Magazin (Street Papers / Straßenmagazin) related to social subjects with homelessness printed and sold by homeless people. Kralji Ulice charity was established by the homeless in September 2005. In July 2006, Newspaper Distribution and the editorial Center of Kralj Ulice started to give service at Poljanska Cesta 14. In October 2009, it moved to its present location the Prazakova 6. In the Institution, some activities and services such as book reading, information retrieval, talk to social workers and volunteers, keeping their belongings, using computer and internet, eating and drinking something are given for the homeless. In 2008, the Norway model is applied as a pilot project and apartments for the homeless were rented to live in one and a half years. By 2011, there were 5 apartments with this project and 18 people living in Ljubljana.

The following activities are constantly organized at this institution:

Street Broadcast Magazine: The number of 62 published until July 2011and sales reached 10.000 each month.

Street Magazine Sales and Distribution: There have been 300 sellers so far. 80 people sell monthly. Sellers buy a magazine for € 0.50 and sell € 1 on the street.

Under the Stars College: It is a kind of open education planned with limited facilities for individuals who are socially excluded. At this training some activities are carried out such as social organizations, cultural and educational workshops, theater, video, music, language, and computer and so on.

Field Work and Social Work: Healthy vehicles for safe use of drugs and syringes are provided at field works. Within the social works; counseling, monitoring, parity and communication services are provided for homeless people who stay on the streets, unsafe housing, shelters and other institutions and organizations such as hospitals, prisons and so on.

Volunteer Working: A tutorial basic education and social services are given for future social workers. In addition, the opportunity to work as a volunteer with homeless people is offered to students who study in faculty of education and social services.

Empowerment of People Deprived of Social Rights: It is a kind of information point. It comprises the services such as social assistance, consulting, internet and telephone usage, hot drinks and light meals, second-hand clothes, money storage, donation distribution and so on.

Shelter is a special part of the program for the Centre of Social Services in the center of Ljubljana. It is the first shelter for the homeless in Slovenia and the model was the starting point for a network of similar programs throughout the country. There are five staffs; a social worker and four volunteer and another five professional staffs work at the part of the container. Although 86% of financial instruments have come from the city and the other countries, the rest of the tools are provided by donors for users. This institution offers low possibility programs for the survival of people living on the streets. With the efforts of volunteers new conditions have been created for the users to benefit actively from here. People who use containers as shelter were collected in three groups (Kosec, n.d):

Shelter-Residence: It is a program that provides social support and functionality. It provides social services such as accommodation, food, clothing and footwear, maintenance of hygiene for 24-hour. It is reserved for homeless people residing in the community of Ljubljana for the last time. Users from the other communities can provide accommodation only under special conditions. Shelter can not be completely filled in order to help people in need in case of emergency.

Food Distribution: Hot meal is given once in a day. Food distribution is done by approximately 100 people. During visits, if the homeless want, they can be laundered. It is open for the homeless from 11:00 to 13:00 every day and until 15:00 peak days. The highest rate who benefited from the distribution of food is the retired people. However, the other users are young people, alcohol and drug addicts. Most of people who benefited from service have social problems as well as psychic disorders.

Shelter for the night: the program has become operational since 2005. The only requirement to use the service and to be accepted to the shelters is to obey the rules respectfully.

Analysis of Quality of Life Domains in Emergency Hospital Services Personnel. Case Study: ICU Medical Team

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Abstract

Based on the demarcation professional group of which we want to investigate in the sociological perspective, we emphasize that our work is part of a multidisciplinary approach generated by very complex professional roles of the participants in our research. We note that the multidisciplinary aspect is associated with the presence of elements of the sociology and psychology confluence, however, we maintain the appearance of multi-disciplinary research approach towards the conceptualization and sociological operationalization of social relations and psychological impacts in the investigated facts. Medical practice is a mix of relationships, facts, phenomena and socio-medical processes subordinated to a major subsystem of society: health care system. Coming out of the sphere of medical sociology specific topics, we decided circumscribing our research field outside medical social relations such as: socio-cultural determinants of health and illness, the sociological and psychological aspects of the therapeutic relationship physician-patient, medicine as a social institution, social aetiology of disease, etc. We restricted the research to a well-defined social environment: hospital emergency medical clinic called ICU and specific issues arising from professional roles of social actors (doctors and nurses) working in this area. More specifically, we wanted to investigate sociological and psychological aspects of these roles in interaction with specific professional environment, from a dual perspective. First, we have investigated an objective perspective of medical team: access to professional development, access to socio-emotional leaders with recognized medical skills, access to medical information technology and performance, and in terms of factors (professional activities / relationships) that are specific to generate satisfaction of medical practice in the Intensive Care Unit. Second, we have investigated a subjective perspective: interaction of personality traits with job satisfaction and individual system of reference values. The investigation carried out on the two social groups- physicians and nurses- have the form of a qualitative research through interviews and questionnaires, on a small sample of subjects, and is a preliminary testing of a comprehensive future research. This paper is made and published under the aegis of the Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy as a part of programme co-funded by the European Union within the Operational Sectorial Programme for Human Resources Development through the project for Pluri and interdisciplinary in doctoral and post-doctoral programmes Project Code: POSDRU/159/1.5/S/141086.

Keywords: Emergency Medical Services, Professional Development, Medical Leaders, Professional Activities / Relationships, Medical Practice Satisfaction, Personality Traits- Job Satisfaction - Reference Values System, Interviews

Introduction

This paper is made and published under the aegis of the Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy as a part of programme co-funded by the European Union within the Operational Sectorial Programme for Human Resources Development through the project for Pluri and interdisciplinary in doctoral and post-doctoral programmes Project Code: POSDRU/159/1.5/S/141086.

ICU (gr. "therapeia": to heal, to care") is the specialty of intensive medicine in which the patients in a very severe state are permanently assisted by medical staff in special wards ("resuscitation"); considered medical departments of maximum emergency. The patients admitted are patients with altered vital functions or damaged organs which put their lives at risk (life-threatening) and who require continuous medical monitoring and/or support of vital functions.

From a functional and organizational perspective we note some distinct characteristics of the medical environment in the Intensive Care Unit: complex, invasive and rapid medical techniques, modern medical technology, mechanical support of human vital functions, very little communication time with the patient, fast medical maneuvers, high risk of therapeutic maneuvers, patients with significantly impaired functional autonomy, high and permanent turnover of the number of clinical cases, medical casuistry with a high degree of gravity, high number of deaths in patients.

In this functional environment, the human socios has specific characteristics.

a) Quality of life of patients is presented in a clarifying summary: PTSD with prevalence between 17 and 22% among survivors of ICU, according to a meta-analysis (Davydow DS., Gifford JM., Desai SV., Needham DM, Bienvenu OJ., 2008) which took account of studies in the U.S., UK and several European countries. Other studies also consider other psychological consequences (Jackson JC., PsyD, Mitchell N., Hopkins RO., PhD, Criticalcare Database, 2009) of the psychotraumatizing environment of the ICU: delirium 80%, cognitive deficits 70% at discharge, 45% after 1 year, depression 25-50% at discharge, 26-33% at 6 months (a study in 13 ICU units), 58% at 2 years, 37% still taking antidepressant medication 2 years after discharge, anxiety 23-41%, with generative mechanisms: organ dysfunction, medications, pain, sleep deprivation, caused by specific ICU (Intensive Care Unit) treatment, activation of stress by means of the hypothalamic-pituitary axis, hypoxemia, transmission dysfunctions of the neurotransmitters due to brain injuries, especially traumatic stress disorder.

b) Quality of the medical staff's life is related to the activity with the patients, but has dynamic aspects specific to a distinct professional society. The medical doctors are not only social actors who have contact and intervene in man's relationship with the disease, with health, with dead or human suffering. The life of a professional category depends on the functional specificity of the professional environment, on the social mechanisms that intermingle roles and substantiate professional statuses, on the choices and decisions using the contens of the profession, on the values and characteristics of the social group and on the values and personality traits of each individual in the group. All this complex structure comprises multiple domains in which the quality of life can be assessed, measured and changed.

İn research literature, the concept of quality of life involves definitions which present its components and areas of applicability, some of them pointing out the advantage of multidisciplinarity of its content, others emphasizing the dual valence, subjective-objective, of the indicators measured. This concept was the core of political, ideological, philosophical and sociological concerns in Western capitalism in the 60s - 70s in Romania being introduced in the 70s - 80s (Zamfir, C., 1976).

The structure of the quality of the medical staff's life, targeted by our research is based on several main approaches to the concept of the quality of life:

a) A complex and comprehensive definition of the quality of life expresses the determinant-defining elements (welfare, human development, quality of society, social exclusion / inclusion, etc..), which means it will include: physical conditions, social, economic cultural, political, health status and so on in which people live, the content and nature of the activities that they perform, the characteristics of relationships and social processes in which they participate, the goods and services that are available, the consumption models adopted, lifestyles, assessment of circumstances and outcomes of activities performed, subjective states of satisfaction / dissatisfaction, happiness, frustration, etc.. (coord. Marginean, I. Balasa, A., 2005).

From this approach we extracted for this research paper the following social indicators concerned: research subjects' perception on the content and nature of activities, satisfaction with the results of activities performed, social relationships in the professional group concerned (doctors in ICU) peer relationships and relationships with people who can provide support / expertise (group leaders), impact on lifestyle (leisure, time spent on family, friends, their development).

b) Another definition of the concept useful in addressing this research is that of Constanza, R. (2008), according to whom the concept of quality of life is "the degree to which the objective needs of the individual are met in relation to subjective, individual or group perception on welfare". The author describes the objective needs in relation to subsistence, reproduction, security, affection, and so on, while the subjective perception aims at happiness, satisfaction with life and personal utility.

From this approach we extracted for our research work the following social indicators concerned: the social role in the family (type of emotional / financial support assumed), the perceived level of integration, cooperation and emotional support in the professional group, the perceived level of the ability of empathy, of professional stress management, of personal growth.

c) The approach in terms of "capabilities" of the concept of quality of life according to Nussbaum & Sen (1993), expands the content of the concept from resource to its ability to obtain valuable functionality (the ability of a person to gain valuable acts or reach valuable states). In his approach, Sen says that life is a combination of "states and actions" and that the quality of life is measured by, "the capability to obtain valuable functionality". Functionalities represent "parts of a person's mood - in particular, various things that the person succeeds to represent or do throughout their lifetime".This approach in

terms of capabilities and functionalities focuses on individual personality and extends the concent of the quality of life beyond resources, goods, wealth, etc.

From this approach we extracted for this research paper the following social indicators concerned: the subjective social content (eg, job satisfaction, etc..) and the objective content (eg access to medical technology, to educational resources, etc..), motivation, perception on the professional choices and decisions.

d) In continuation of this approach, Alkire (2008) brings on a clarification of the concept of quality of life: the quality of life derives from emotional states, and these states are not limited by material means.

Based on the extension of the concept of quality of life towards individual personality and states of mind, we decided to use variables derived from the personality of our research subjects (personality and temperamental traits) and from their reference value system. The socialization process of each subject formed sets of individual values that will influence the choices and preferences (eds.Voicu, B., Voicu, M., 2008). Thus, the indicators covered by our research are: the level of emotional capacity, the level of activism and the type of reactivity to the environment (primary type vs. secondary type, after Berger's G. typology (1950). From the perspective of the reference value system, we considered individual pro-social orientation focused on humanitarian group values and communion (traditional values) vs. pro-technology, progressive individual orientation focused on individualistic group values and competency-competitive (survival values).

This research has covered the range of areas and indicators of quality of life status by means of qualitative methods. This enabled the development of case studies included to outline the specificity of profession outside and inside the human being (Atkinson, R., 2006) who is committed to practice in a specialty so complex and difficult to describe in universal medical landscape: ICU.

Method: Type of research: qualitative

Participants

Incorporated analysis units: 12 practicing medical doctors in the ICU medical department, aged between 35 and 46 years old, amongst whom 9 women subjects and 3 male subjects. The professional seniority of the 12 subjects is between 10 and 20 years.

Research methodology (data sources and research methods)

1) Interviews - semi-structured, intensive and comprehensive, based on a depth interview guide.

In our research, these interviews had an exploratory purpose. We are currently in the process of selecting a representative sample of the same professional category, the sample within which the problems identified in our series of interviews were structured on specific areas of analysis, so as to allow for the statistical data processing. Statistical reporting (along with the data from our qualitative research extension) is destined for the awareness (Babbie, E., 2010) about the quality of life in the medical profession, for the area of social policies implemented in the medical system and health programs.

2) Observation - direct and participatory

Direct observation protocol included: types of professional behavior and dynamic of roles between social actors in the same professional group, observing the hierarchical relationships and the equal roles, and the implications of social status in the patient-physician-patient's caregiver relationship.

Participatory observation was facilitated by the researcher assuming a functional role within the organization, in this case, the role of psychologists participating in the interactions between the social actors involved: physicians, other members of the healthcare team, nurses, patients and their social or emotional support groups. Another benefit of the participation is the one pointed out by Michael Bloor (1997), in the sense of increasing the research depth over the sociological issues of health and medicine due to the pre-existing relation between the researcher and the practitioners.

3) The testing method – an evaluation test was used to reveal the dominant temperamental traits (Joues, J. P.,2000).

Materials

1) The interview-guide form: it contained items structured on 6 dimensions, operationalized in a total number of 40 indicators of state and level, as following :

a) Socio-demographic data: 1. age, 2. gender, 3. medical specialty, 4. professional degree, 5. work seniority, 6. type of work contract, 7. dwelling house (congruence "residence-place of work", dwelling place level of satisfaction), 8. marital status, 9. role in the personal family system, 10. wages linked level of satisfaction, 11. congruence level between the real and the expected level of remuneration.

b) History and self-perception in the profession: 1. current level of professional satisfaction, 2. another place of work (and the related satisfaction level), 3. the motivation in choosing this profession, 4.key-sources of individual interest and professional attraction in this type of medical specialty, 5. key-sources of individual difficulty and stress in this type of medical specialty , 6. fields of attraction and difficulty at the beginning of the carrier (technology and medical techniques, information, professional regulations and tasks, professional relations), 7. the individual time necessary for the adapting to this difficulties, 8. current perception and affinity/personal abilities for certain fields in this medical specialty (medical technology, professional information, professional expertise, professional relations, regulations and tasks, medical techniques), 9. the impact in time of the profession over the following fields: spare time, leisure time with significant persons/family, duration and quality of sleep, the self-perceived level of the personal health, the self-described level of personal energy, emotional sensibility, the capacity to empathize and the ability to communicate with other social participants (patients, colleagues and significant persons), the ability to manage the professional stress. 10. the perceived current level of these indicators.11. the sign of future professional expectations in the current conditions.

c) Personality self-perception: 1. personal preoccupations and interests, 2. self-described type of personality (introvert or extrovert focusing, emotional or action-driven style), 3. individual strategies to cope with stress, 4. sanogenetic individual behaviors, 5. non- sanogenetic individual behaviors

d) Carrier development: 1. preferred strategies to develop carrier, specific to the field, 2. individual access level to the offer of education services and professional improvement, 3. the level of individual satisfaction for the offer of education services and professional improvement, 4. types of obstacles related to carrier development/professional improvement.

e) The commitment towards the progress and personal development: 1. personal benefits of human development generated by practicing this profession, 2. investments made for the sake of personal progress, 3. types of obstacles against personal development.

f) Individual perception over objectives and values: 1. personality traits that ensure the professional success, 2. the objectives necessary to obtain the professional competence, 3. social and personal values that are associated to competence and professional success, 4. individual expectations over the objectives and behaviors of formal leaders. 5. real level of satisfaction over the goals and behaviors of the formal leaders, 6. personal axiological scale.

The indicators had, from case to case, three types of answers: binary choices, multiple choices or self-rating on the Lickert scale.

2) The G. Berger Character logical Questionnaire is a questionnaire generated by the character logical French-Dutch school:

 a) three fundamental factors of the individual characterial nature (Emotionality vs. Non-Emotionality, Activism vs. Non-Activism and Resonance, expressed as Primarity vs. Secundarity); b) six complementary factors (Extent of the conscience field, Genre polarity, Avidity, Sensorial interests, Tenderness and Intellectual passion).

 In our qualitative approach, out of the 90 items in the test, we used the Romanian adaptation of the 3 fundamental factors (which contain a total number of 30 items):

a) Emotionality vs. Non- Emotionality (10 items) – the level of the psychical sensibility to emotions or interior and exterior disturbances

b) Activism vs. Non-Activism (10 items) – the individual's easiness to act, to swim into action.

c) Resonance (Primarity vs Secundarity) (10 items)– repercussion, the resonance of an event over the individual mentality

 The three temperamental factors (of 10 items each) use the binary rating.

Procedure

Throughout the months of May - June 2014, direct, half-structured and intensive interviews have been performed, based on the interview guide, with an average of 3 hours per subject.

The G. Berger Character logical Questionnaire needed an average of 5-10 minutes to be integrally filled in by the subjects of the research.

Results

The purpose of our research was to cover comprehensive fields of professional activity, interpersonal relational levels and psychic adjusting mechanisms with effects in the ICU socios field. The following manifest "fields" of the life quality were identified and structured:

a. the relation,, factual variables – economical status", b. perceived quality of life, c. work (the socio-functional environment and the participation), d. professional human environment

Findings of ,,Factual Variables - Economical Status"

The level of the economical status is referred to as being higher with the investigation subjects that have a professional activity of approx. 15-20 years as compared to the subjects with a professional activity of 10-15 years.

The marital status and the dwelling place satisfaction do not trigger alone the economic status satisfaction, because the interests for the purchase of goods and other consumption products taking into account the specificity of the age and of personality.

The subjects with small children perceive their economic status as being insufficient.

Another significant aspect is that of the unitary reference by all subjects of the investigation to the level of financial satisfaction through remuneration, as being unsatisfying and incongruent with the quality and responsibility of the work performed.

In what concerns the dynamics of the family roles, the individual assumed support type in the family (mostly emotional vs. mostly financial support) reveals a low satisfaction level over the economical status with the subjects that contribute financially to the family life. The type of emotional support is associated, with the subjects that assumed it in the personal family, with the less important concern and interest for the financial aspect.

Finding of ,,Perceived Quality of Life"

Concerning the life quality in the fields: free time, leisure activities, time spent with the significant persons (family, friends), personal health, emotional sensibility, subjects showed a significant decrease in all explored items, placing the current level of these aspects, with no exceptions, as being unsatisfying.

As a compensation, it was revealed that the subjects perceive a higher level of satisfaction in what concerns the quality of relations with significant persons, the empathy capacity and the communication skills with colleagues, patients and personal family; the more considerable the professional experience and the duration of the work activity are, the stronger the perception of the qualitative increase in these fields..

The extravert vs. the introvert type of personality and the emotion driven vs. the action driven personality types did not reveal influences on the increase in time of the self-perceived level of empathy or communication ability.

Findings of "Work (the socio-functional environment and the participation)"

The research revealed a differentiation of the current level of professional satisfaction referred by the subjects, depending on the motivation in choosing their profession; the subjects that stated a higher level of professional satisfaction being those that chose the profession from the desire to be a medical doctor and to cure, followed by the subjects that chose the profession because their considered it adequate to their own personality.

The subjects with the lowest degree of actual declared satisfaction proved to be the ones that chose the profession as result of significant losses (deaths or severe illnesses in the family) and those that chose this profession in order to "save lives".

The key sources for personal attraction toward this type of medical specialty were "the challenge", "dynamic adrenaline-packed activity"," the complex and difficult casuistry" and "the satisfaction of solving medical cases with low chances of survival". These represented, according to the subject statements, a substantial moral, intellectual and emotional compensation for the unsatisfactory level of wages. This compensation is valued by the subjects with a rational and competitive orientation more than by those with a predominantly emotional orientation and who prefer to work within a team.

The study subjects have considered the level of difficulty and risk of the composing elements of professional environment (medical technology, medical techniques particular to ICU, professional rules and tasks) as a professional stress sources only by those who share the conviction that they do not poses technical skills and who do not have a predominantly rational and competitive work style.

Findings of " Professional Human Environment"

The subjects who proved a higher self-perceived level of integration in the professional group have been identified as those having a rational and problem-solving working style, as well as those who value the extraprofessional areas of life or who invest in personal development (human evolution). The level of integration in the professional group was perceived individually as being unsatisfactory by the subjects who do not invest time in the traditional values (family) and who show an affinity for competiveness and perfectionism.

It should be noted that the subjects who consider the formal leader as being emotionally unsupportive have proven an unsatisfactory level of personal integration in the professional group, if they are centered on emotion, while the subjects who are action oriented are affected only if they feel that the formal leader does not appreciate positively the quality of their work and their professional decisions.

The individual expectations of subjects concerning the objectives and behaviors of formal leaders have varied according to the degree of congruence with the sets of personal values of each subject and with their predominant orientation (traditional vs. progressive values)

Discussion - extrapolations and criticism

 Following the assessment of the data yielded by the content of interviews we consider as important the differences highlighted by the four following aspects: a. the experience and the active time spent in this profession, b. the temperamental traits and the type of personality, c. the intrinsic motivation for choosing this profession, d. the sense and individual meaning of personal existence

The study has exposed qualitative aspects with a descriptive and explicative signification.

An important shortcoming is the lack of statistical power of the selected group, which did not allow a processing which would pinpoint the significant correlations between the explored variables.

The qualitative data of sociologic and psychological type that have been brought forward form - at this point- the introductive and exploratory part of a vaster study and their purpose is:

 a. to allow a comprehensive understanding of the medical field and of the implications of its functional specificity on the social relationships and on the psychism and the behaviours of the social players involved (Goffman, E., 1961a)

 b. to select the relevant indicators.

The replication of interviews on more representative groups can bring about contributions to programs designed to diminish the professional burn-out particular to the healthcare professions and to restructure certain functional and administrative aspects existing in the current medical system.

Another shortcoming of the current level of the study is the impossibility to highlight gender differences. Although the study has also taken into consideration aspects that pertain to the masculine vs. feminine roles, it has not set them as a priority purpose of the research.

Some other areas which were insufficiently explored are those related to the feeling of personal security at the workplace and to the society perception of the role, status and quality of work in ICU.

In conclusion, the professional group of the ICU medical practitioners is faced with specific professional difficulties; it is rendered vulnerable by the intensive type of the medicine they practice and by the psychological impact of the associated medical cases.

Among the primary coping resources the following can be mentioned: a. the type of personality, b.time spent and experience in this professional activity, c. the set of individual values, d. the individual intrinsic motivation for working in this field.

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Living Strategies of Dead Identities: Ideological and Psychological Motivation Behind the Expression and Transformation of Identity in the So-Called (Yugo)nostalgic Genre

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Abstract

Yugonostalgia is a phenomenon that remains vital in the regional (pop) culture and mediasphere, although the Yugoslav state community and its cultural framework, as the source and foundation of the (re) constitutive identity recognition and formation, have broken apart a quarter century ago. Moreover, there is still small community introducing demselves as Yugoslavs and demanding recognition as official minority. Partly comparable with Eastern European Ostalgie as a characteristic manifestation of an understandable identity crisis in a transition period, perseverance and representations of Yugonostalgia reflect the processes of desire for identity and identification through dialogue or debate between the past, towards which Yugonostalgia is directed, and the current time, which through its position and strategy Yugonostalgia not only interprets, but also confirms. After being politically inappropriate in the nineties, and commercialized in the early 21st century, Yugonostalgia in Croatia turns into a social genre through recent publications, responding to effects of global recession and pressures of neoliberal capitalism. All these genre changes of Yugonostalgia signal its continuing ability to revitalize and adapt resources of the Yugoslav imaginarium to identity crises and needs of the post-Yugoslav today to the extent that it would be interesting to estimate/ forecast its effective expiry date.

Keywords: Yugonostalgia, Cultural Memory, Strategies, Transition, Identity

Introduction

According to the Croatian edition of Le Monde, several hundreds of citizens in Montenegro and Croatia have identified themselves as Yugoslavs for the purposes of census in 2011, and in Serbia the number rose up to 23 thousand people (Dérens, 2013). Admittedly, there were those who identified themselves as Eskimo or Jedi as well, so it may be that some of the "Yugoslavs" opted for such identification motivated by the same thing as "Eskimos" or "Jedi". It may have been an expression of subversive opposition to administrative classification and the repressive approach of the government apparatus, and opting against the reductive identity simplification, as well as resistance to the use of identity as a powerful cause of stratification (Bauman, 2009).

However, according to Dérens, there was even an initiative by the Yugoslavs that they be recognized as a minority.

Such a thing is still not within a conceiveable horizon of any ex-yu country's establishment, so the official replies are still categorically negative, followed by more or less reasoned explanations of how debatable the status of "Yugoslav identity" is in relation to the predominant, i.e. the official and nominal definition of the political and cultural identity. Danijela Majstorović (2013) defines the identity policies of the former Yugoslav republics as policies based on ethnic identity as the primary, or even sole criterion of essentialising the community. The ethnos or a nation, Majstorović says, is regarded as the focus of identity and loyalty, and it represents the base of collective actions. Ethno-nationality, she says, is the "organising and legitimising principle in which there are characteristic practices of delegitimisation and relegitimisation, which is manifested through a specific discourse, and through the creation of 'us' and 'them'. Nationalism is instrumentalised through people's fears, and when people have chronic fears, they become extremely vulnerable to authority" (p. 160).

The signifier of "they" changes the signified or the content depending on the movements of daily politics, so "they" sometimes denotes the European Union, sometimes the anonymous globalization forces and the global capitalist elite, while sometimes it denotes the neighboring ex-yu republics (in Croatia's case, those republics are Serbia and Slovenia).

Although analysts and newspaper columnists argue that restoration of Yugoslavia is an illusory and historically superseded idea, an idea that best demonstrates its hopelessness through the collapse of its project, fear of Yugoslavia is periodically restored in the public discourse. For example, when the term Yugosphere was implemented in the discourse (even though the author of the term Tim Judah primarily had in mind the mapping of culturally close areas, and not a political renewal by means of "euphemism"), the voters were intimidated in the democratic election process through rumours of a certain party's "secret project" of Yugoslavia's restoration. The most recent example of the phobia was initiation of bilingualism in Vukovar, when one of the key slogans of resistance was: No to the Cyrillic is no to Yugoslavia.

In short, such an identity strategy is more often than not an explicit political project of tabooing the Other, an accentuated orientation towards identification as a process that is inevitably, at least in some aspect, a differentiation, which ultimately leads to exclusion of the Other (in fact, from the Croatian point of view, the Yugoslav project is equal to the Serbian hegemony and such a rhetoric greatly contributes to reinforcing the animosity towards the Serbian nationality).

On the other hand, the application and manifestations of the "Yugoslav identity" through the (pop) cultural and subcultural genres, as through the phenomenon of the so-called Yugonostalgia, have been present on the territory of former Yugoslavia for the past quarter century. The phenomenon appears in varying degrees and comes from different positions in dialogues and debates, so sometimes, paradoxically, it is even in accordance with the official discourse, so we can often witness the schizophrenic situation of political satanisation of Yugoslav cultural artifacts, at the same time seen as representatives of the Yugoslav idea and the products of media and mass culture (such as publishing of Tito's cookbook, stories of Tito's lifestyle, re-releases of the popular music albums from the Yugoslav period etc).

Therefore the aim of this study is to examine the discrepancy between the attitude towards Yugoslavianism and practices of Yugonostalgia as a form of political and cultural identity. The discrepancy will be examined with regards to the fact that the Yugoslav ideological, political and cultural history on one hand represents a trauma with association to a repressive, (semi)totalitarian and ideologised society (which has, among other things, ended in war bloodshed due to its nature, structure and the identity policy), and on the other hand it is an idealised space of nostalgia for "a better past". The following diachronic analysis of literary texts that, in nominal terms, belong to the so-called Yugonostalgic genre, will show that the representation of Yugonostalgia from one stage to another always serves to a current purpose, being in the role of a diagnostician, i.e. a critic of today, or as a propaganda opium of the dominant order, especially at a time when the post-communist societies of former Yugoslav republics are reaching a phase of legitimising and disseminating of a seemingly disideologised capitalist logic of the system.

Yugonostalgia will prove to be a necessity for preserving cultural memory continuity, and will therefore gradually move from the areas of opposition and subversion and be promoted into a carnivalesque space of permissible excess, which contributes to stabilisation of social order. Ivan Lozica (2007) says: "The truth is that the Carnival is not true rebellion, the truth is that its (always current) social critique does not violate the dominant order directly. Its effects are more therapeutic and conciliatory, and it is a diversion that strives to strengthen cohesion in the community." (p. 203). In fact: "Power always uses art as an instrument, though it is not always clear how it manages to do so, and why. The answer may be provided through comparison with the carnival: is the artistic freedom not merely an illusory diversion, and in reality only a controlled outlet?" (p. 206).

Even though the Yugoslav cultural identity was absorbed and co-opted through genres of Yugonostalgia for reasons to follow, resistance to the "excess" demand that Yugoslavs be recognised as minorities suggests an evident complex with which the dominant order is clearly still struggling. Furthermore, such a demand- given the specificity of Yugoslav history- indicates that there is a process of testing the theoretical apparatus that deals with the phenomenon of identity in this particular instance. In point of fact, the "radical" seriousness of the aforementioned initiative with its expressed degree already reflects the characteristics of a project identity (Castells, 2002), and it represents a public stand, a public intervention of a group that seems to find the identity continuity an insufficient indicator of subject coherence and the coherence of the meaning of life (Kaufmann, 2006) through popular forms of Yugonostalgic culture and other idiosyncratic techniques which an individual uses to "unify a multitude of identification references associated with their personal history" (Kalanj, 2008, p. 60). To conclude that these initiators represent a typically rigid and non-negotiable identity (Bauman, 2009) or to diagnose that their idea is a classic reaction to a situation when "new orders start being considered mere vectors of destabilisation, which implies an even more unrelenting fixation" (Kaufmann, p. 48), goes in the favor of the idea that they should be (dis)qualified as "incorrigible" Yugonostalgics, as those who have dysfunctional ways of handling their identity attributes in relation to the current sociopolitical climate. In other words, it is as if their categorical identification with the culture of the former order were "an imaginary enclave in real social space" (Jameson, 2005), especially if we accept the statement "that the 'here and now' we still have an 'imprisonment identity theory'" (Luketić, 2013, p. 299). Even in the "field (of culture, AN) there is a prescribed level of mandatory unity and a degree of acceptable diversity in a community" because "a culture has the task of presenting the imaginary characteristics of a nation" (p. 275).

Method

Materials and procedure

By using the findings of relevant identity theorists (Bauman, Castells, Kaufmann, etc.), the works of researchers of the phenomenon of nostalgia (Boym, Hutcheon, Velikonja, etc.) and the reactions of the media space, as well as the analysis

of those elements of public discourse that relate to these issues, the study aims to detect the motives of a certain group's request for recognition of Yugoslavs as a minority. Through this phenomenon and in regards to the cultural context of the post-Yugoslav period, its ultimate aim is to bring new insights to the research of identity. In dealing with this form of "Yugonostalgia", the study applies the theories of memory, cultural memory and nostalgia strategies, finally offering an analysis of the inscribed policy of memory and nostalgia in the Croatian literary works that are, theme and genre-wise, nostalgic orientations based on the thesis that the nature of these texts and their mutual differences reveal strategies of identity, as well as the ideological motivation of the system's background. Particular attention will be drawn to the instances when the aforementioned discourses are accepted into cultural industry's momentum or into the discursive repertoire of political action. In the spirit of observations presented in the study Literature through recall (Škopljanac, 2013), a reading of literary examples demonstrates the mechanisms of memory, but also the blind spots of memory, whereby nostalgia is only one form of transforming the authentic past into a subjective experience, through which direction of the said subjectivity often provides an impulse in shape of a contemporary sociohistorical context.

Results

Even a diachronic cross-section reading of the Yugonostalgic genre in contemporary Croatian literature indicates that it is by no means a dogmatic or a conservative discourse, for if it were, as such it would be very short-lived or marginal. Instead, it is a dynamic genre that uses its spectrum of internal differences to show that it is capable of being current over and over by using the mechanisms of the memory industry, all the while detecting the neuralgic points of the social order, but also being prepared in certain circumstances to become an integral, even crucial part of narrative strategies in the process of ideologisation, which serves to constitute and maintain the order. In that, it is actually more important to grasp that the circulation, metamorphosis, adaptability and reactivity of the Yugonostalgic genre explains its vitality, durability, renewability and popularity for everyone who wonders how Yugonostalgia is possible and alive for a quarter century after its stem structure had collapsed. It is possible and vital not only because of the failure to master and dictate the cultural memory, but also because Yugonostalgia of the nineties is not the same as yesterday's or today's Yugonostalgia. It is alive, current and strong, as long as it skillfully recognises and translates relevant contemporary issues into the motives of its genre.

However, recognition of existence of the Yugoslav cultural identity through genres of Yugonostalgia and its political rejection based on refusal of the request that Yugoslavs get minority status, calls for questioning of Wodak's words:

> if a nation is an imaginary community, and at the same time a mental construct, the imaginary complex of ideas that contain at least defining elements of collective unity and communion, borders and autonomy, then this picture is realistic to the extent to which someone is convinced in it, to the extent to which someone believes in it and emotionally identifies with the community. The question is how this imagined community comes to minds of those who believe in it is easy: a community is built and transmitted within a discourse (as cited in Majstorović, 2013).

The fact that new identity constructs, disseminated by discursive strategies and policies of the new elites, nevertheless failed to suppress the "emotional" power and "reality" of the Yugoslav imaginarium in some parts of the society, calls for an identity process re-evaluation in the place of the conflict.

Findings of identity

The request for official regulation of the Yugoslav identity as a minority group is (ir)rational for several reasons. It is rational in the understanding that identity is a socially necessary construct that creates conditions for effective action, and opting for "social anchors" of identity within an imaginary space of the seemingly irrevocably past, but which becomes the source of retrospective construct, active fiction (Velikonja, 2010), even a sentiment. It is also a strong and a logical place of entanglement of individual memory and the cultural memory, personal identity and the once collective identity, it is a starting point of establishing and maintaining identity continuity and coherence. If we have already defined identity work as "that which selects and processes elements which then become active strongholds" (Kaufmann, p. 70), the idea that Yugonostalgic foundation of identity in the vicinity of the aforementioned social climate could serve to such a purpose seems paradoxical, that is, irrational. Even though identity is a (self-)reflective process that destabilises the tendencies of collective identity towards a holistic and monolithic totality, there is a contrast to (self-)reflectivity of individual identity- a collective identity prone to processes of stereotyping and essentialisation is more likely to have its subjects conserved into

a "mimetic nostalgia that is serious, dogmatic, unchanging and explicitly political and continuous" (Velikonja, p. 144), so such an identity strategy could be more or less accurately interpreted as "something backward, static (...), as a mere inertia or a reproduction of the past" (p. 135).

However, seeing identity as a process is in itself a paradoxical act: although the essentialist notion that identity is an entity has been completely disassembled, the fact is that- since an illusion and a narratively established fiction was formed through time- the identity has an eternally temporary status, so that "it is not a thing, but a linguistic description, a discursive structure that changes its meaning" (Kalanj, p. 46), that which "hardened (...) into a 'fact', a 'given' (Bauman, 2009, p. 23). So when Bauman tells us that identity "reveals itself only as a thing to be invented, not discovered" (p. 19), Kaufmann will comment on that paradox of an eternal process and a never completed identity, as well as the opposite tendencies directed towards the static, stiffening with the tendency of achieving a monolithic image of an "assumed I" so the subject could bear disparate meanings of an inconsistent reality, with a rhetorical question : "How can a movement (finding oneself) be induced by its opposite, a fixation (self-image)?" (Kaufmann, p. 80).

 In the case of a seemingly futile functionalist foundation of identity as an experience of the Yugoslav culture and everyday life as a general framework that formed individual biographies, a psychological need for identity reliance as the animating principle of action which would form a meaning that should be attributed to actions, and in the "dual meaning of the word 'meaning': in the sense of significance, and in the sense of movement (Kaufmann, p. 128), the explanation lies in the effort to ensure continuity in biographical duration and to an even greater extent "self-esteem as a necessary energy in action" (Kaufmann, p. 59). Self-esteem should in this context be understood as a resource which the subject feeds on while "resisting (...) criminalisation of the past (...) thus keeping the continuity of identity from historical discontinuity. It preserves the past, which would have been stolen otherwise" (Velikonja, p. 165).

The seeming irrationality of such a strategy is therefore gradually losing the crucial prefix ir-. Even if construction of identity strongholds using the inventory of the past, cultural memory and personal histories is not controversial, it might seem controversial that in the said situation strongholds are not built of any given identity source from the historical and cultural repertoire, but of a specific, particular one. Such a thing happens not only because the individual is "being produced by the history he produces, (Kaufmann, p. 34), but also because he chooses the "troubling past" (Velikonja, p. 145) from the perspective of a legitimising identity which "instills the dominant social institutions to expand and rationalise its dominance in relation to social agents" (Castells, p. 18). So in this case we are facing a conflict between a normative and sociopolitical identity, as well as opposing the fact that "only those who have legitimate authority , the authority that stems from power, can impose their own definition on themselves and others" (Kalanj, p. 53). Heteroidentities, syncretic, dual or multiple identities are, of course, not a problematic category, but an interpreted, accepted and an implied occurrence of individual identity architecture. However, when it comes to an identity that is declaratively committed to the attribute Yugoslav, then this is worth of an observation by Rade Klanja who claims that the problem are dual identities whose "both reference halves are on the same level (...) and that there is no reason why a large number of identification references could not be unified into a single identity, except in those cases where a governing authority prevents it in the name of identity exclusivity" (Kalanj, p. 60).

Findings of nostalgia

Ivica Baković concludes that in the post-Yugoslav society Yugonostalgia transferred "from one constructed political scene (...) switched on (...) the other (popular) culture one", meaning to say that all the Yugonostalgic narratives come from the status of anti-narratives of a nation that (...) interfered with those ideological maneuvers through which the 'imaginary communities' gain an essentialist identity" (Babha, 2002, p. 168) and moved into a seemingly benign field of (pop)culture. Pop culture serves as an area that helps stabilise the order in terms of acceptable ways of dealing with the need for cultural identity continuity, but also co-opting the resistance identity, so much the better if it manages to turn nostalgia into mere retro, on the track of Linda Hutcheon's interpretation in "Irony, Nostalgia and the Postmodern" that describes postmodernism as entirely marked by nostalgia, or more precisely, if nostalgia fails to undergo the strategy of the postmodern narrative, "from media culture to art, which, adding its dose of spectacle and pop, changes the past into an exciting, scintillating, trivial story" (Velikonja, p. 130). In other words, the order replied to appearance of the "nostalgic culture" with the "culture of nostalgia", because according to Velikonja the nostalgic culture is nostalgia bottom-up; predisposition of the audience to feel such a sentiment, while the culture of nostalgia is "top-down", an offer of nostalgic content produced by the culture industry.

A message that clearly reads from the refusal to recognize the Yugoslavs as a minority, with simultaneous tolerance towards former Yugoslav cultural industry contents' consumation, as well as the occasional referencing of the (pop) cultural

products to that "yesterday's world" is that (pop) culture is a ghetto blessed by ranking out of which nobody can step into what is politically sensitive and into the "narcissistic neuroses of a national discourse" (Babha, p. 169).

Specifically, the real political charge and the ideological argument comes not from the invoking of the concept of self-managing socialism and titoism in the "post-communist neo-communism", or in the attempt of restoring the previous regime in its political totality, as a better option than the current social order, but in the fact that Yugonostalgia is a reaction to today's problems. Therefore it can be said that through nostalgic narratives the weak points of the current order and the cracks in its ideological discourse are shown.

Indeed, such a dislocated or transcendent commenting of unsatisfactory present from a perspective of a utopian, nostalgised, and later fictionalised history "which never was", has been interpreted in detail, deconstructed, dissasembeled, and even indicated that there are some constituent defects of such a strategy, in form of discrediting arguments which cause termination of every dialogue and respect for the position it comes from. When summarised, those points are reduced to the complaint of escapism, passivity and submission to simulacrum, and most of all to the seemingly active struggle with the current problems from a hypocritically comfortable standpoint. However, Linda Hutcheon will say "never underestimate the power of nostalgia", Velikonja writes that nostalgia "can also be a strong social, cultural and political force with practical effects in its environment" (p. 32), while Jameson briefly and clearly summarises that nostalgia is always "for the present" (Jameson, 1991, p. 279). Jameson tells us that viewing nostalgia in terms of diachronic comparison "then and now" is a distorted perspective, since nostalgia is more relevant as a critical and commentator statement, reaction, i.e. the result of a current crisis in the relations between synchronic elements (Jameson, 2005). Although nostalgia brings the image of a "better past", that image is installed through the criterion of present. The past is then "articulated in the present, it is nothing but a cultural form of the present" (Buden, 2013, p. 21).

To sum up all possible objections to this genre as possibly escapist and fueling sweet sadness without an object, a quote by Charles Maier can be used: "Nostalgia is to memory what kitsch is to art" (Boym, 2001, XIV). Nontheless, a change in the focus interests of the Yugonostalgia genre, which uses Yugonostalgia as by no means random denominator and a remarkably chosen place of polemics, show that works of the Yugonostalgia genre are not necessarily a fossilization and the continuation of the past. Rather, they are a bi-directional active fiction: towards the past which is being retold or invented as a reductive and selective image that is, with its editing, not correspondent to the historical truth, but is distorted by desire, and equally towards the unsatisfactory present, criticising with the language of nostalgia the missing values of today, and a generally "less valuable present" (Velikonja), as well as the engineering of the identity. In support of this, Connerton says: "Our present world is experienced within a context causally associated with past events and things, and we therefore resource to them when we are unable to comprehend the present. And we will perceive out present differently depending on the different past times with which we can connect the present (2004, p. 6).

Findings of background in yugonostalgic literature

In the "brief" history of the Yugonostalgic genre in Croatian literature, the first major impact in terms of controversy and polemic was caused by a collection of essays The Culture of Lies by Dubravka Ugrešić, a work monumental for its long-term effects. Although it was primarily condemned in the former political climate for its critical view on the so-called tuđmanism, i.e. the ideology practices of contemporary nationalist discourse, in which it indicated the similarity between laws of the nationalist discourse and the socialist ideology, Ugrešić's book had a crucial role in supporting and legitimising the presence of Yugonostalgia in society. It demonstrated Yugonostalgia as a phenomenon that is not a project identity, or a "threatening" tendency towards Yugoslavia's reconstruction, but- since it is directed exclusively to the inventory of former everyday life and fetishising the artifacts of the Yugoslav cultural industry-only represents the need for identity continuity, for a relationship with oneself in relation to the proclaimed identity policy which has sought a radical with the former at every level, including the cultural and memory level.

People "remember (...) the history of triviality. And it is the culture of everyday life (and not a state or a political system), that is the source of Yugonostalgia ", says the author (2002, p. 175).

Nevertheless, it was a time of a discourse that was "at the same time obsessively fixated on society's boundaries and the margins of the text, and unsure about those limits" (Bhabha, p. 163), frequently with such a normative and repressive discourse that "exaggerated ethnic identity (...) ceases to be a tool and turns into a straitjacket" (Devereux, as cited in Kalanj, p. 58), as was the case with reactionary development of odiousness towards vulgar practices and manifestations of empowering a new collective identity as Kaufmann's "increased singularity", "expanded self", or simply "personal enlargement". In such relations and tensions Ugrešić's book had identified and emancipated the culture of memory in

relation to the dictatorship of oblivion, where we should highlight that "it is precisely the syntax of oblivion- or obligation to oblivion- which makes the problematic identification of a nation visible" (Bhabha, p. 180).

This campaign of identity resistance continued with a collection of essays How We Survived by Slavenka Drakulić, which is also a culturally and socially relevant realisation of mirroring and opposition to what Tanja Petrović (2011), using Marija Todorova's term lived communism, describes as "discrepancies between the prevailing 'official' attitudes towards socialist past experiences and the experienced socialism. The first are prescriptive (...). On the other hand, the experiences of socialism by the 'ordinary people' (...) offer a different view of the past and suggest a different hierarchy of values. Personal memories of socialism is very often not in accord with the dominant narratives (p. 427).

Klaus Roth (2012) adds that it was an undeniable fact that people were still integrated into the federal system of the time, where "socialist normality slowly and inconspicuously absorbed most people. Many eventually lost their awareness of the specific conditions of their normality, and this shared experience has created cultural intimacy, Roth points out (p. 33).

However, the key transfer of Yugonostalgia from a declaratively oppositional place to the Croatian literature mainstream was made by Goran Tribuson. He neutralised the explicit subversive nature of Yugonostalgia with his prolific sequence of autobiographical discourse and novelesque productions about a world and the protagnoists that come from a Yugoslav cultural milieu (Bošković, 2013). He had done this from a point of view of an infantile narrator (i.e. free from all the ideological compromising as an innocent object of indoctrination), as well as a humorous discourse which solved the problem of "discomfort" and "recommended consorship" of the Yugoslav past in individual memories. The trouble with those points that are generally the same in anyone's biography as a former shared framework of individual memory was overcome through the procedure of re-structuring it into anecdotes and thus diluting the delicate weight of even the most traumatic places in the Yugoslav history by the emancipating power of laughter.

The past is relived, only this time there are no consequences: not only are there no consequences for the jokes about Goli otok, Tito and other totems of Yugoslav ideology, but there are also no consequences in the current regime. Therefore, the uncertainty of dealing with the newly established "taboos" by the criterion of the dominant order moves to the space of tolerated transgression. Figuratively speaking, the Yugoslav decor in the background of Tribuson's narrative is presented as a photo album over which we laugh at our own "infatuation" with former hairstyles, clothes, trends, lifestyle, (ideologised) rhetoric in general, because we have outgrown them. In fact- as it appears in Tribuson's work- today we can be Yugonostalgic precisely because we are not Yugoslav anymore, and we have drifted away from that "surpassed" heritage.

Tribuson has become unparalleled in this maneuver, not deciding on Kundera's understanding of the role of laughter in society, but on Viewegh's interpretation of a more or less totalitarian period as simply "the wonderful years of lousy living". Thus, when we say that Tribuson has a "warm" humor, we actually mean that the key to his success in legitimising the Yugonostalgic narratives lies in the impression of meekness, rather than the cold official discourse.

By Yugonostalgia entering mainstream and by its de-politisation, i.e. by its acceptance as a legitimate and "unjeopardisable" memory , the ideologisation is not completed, as it starts being colonised by the capitalist ideology. After it was recognised as a market, based on previous success with Yugonostalgic themes, Yugonostalgia will wholeheartedly harness this industry of memories and start a cycle of exploitation of its imagery. One of the initial works that were turned into a consumerist fruitful resource was a multimedia package Happy child by Igor Mirković, supposedly a documentary product on a "renaissance" period of urban culture and a quasi-counterbalance to the revival of turbo-folk, but at the same time it is, and perhaps above all, a representative example of mercandising. Not only does it use the fact that "youth is the golden age of identity creation" (Kaufmann, p. 170) and that the time was a pinnacle of achievement for a significant series of generations, achievement that Bauman interprets with words "We need links, and we need such links in which we mean something, in which we define ourselves" (2009, p. 58), but also it attempts to "evoke nostalgia in consumers for what they have not lost in the first place" (Boym, 2001, p. 38).

It should be noted that Happy child deals with the 80s, a period Ildiko Erdei (2012) refers to as the vestibule of transition. This is due to intensifying of the consumer culture among the citizens which led to the collapsing socialist system not being able to meet and satisfy the citizens' needs, she claims, but her thesis that the mythologised and mystified 80s were a culmination of the "childhood policy" that former Yugoslavia conducted seems even more important. Its goal was to satisfy the needs of a child through material things as well (through toys and other items that feed a child's consumerism) and thus it indirectly ideologised. So many today, in their mature age, remember the candy made in socialist factories with Proustian nostalgia, the candy named after partisan heroes or the key words of "socialist revolution". (p. 73-96).

A perfidious flair of commercial nostalgia is most obviously represented by Ante Tomić's novel "Nothing Can Surprise Us" and the further exploitation of the hit through film adaptation that turned into a regional hit Karaula, directed by Rajko Grlić. It is a product with such conscious commercialism that the development, especially of the film version of the project,

targeted the market of all former Yugoslav republics from the very beginning. The novel was published in 2003, when narration and indirect popularisation of The Yugoslav People's Army truly no longer presented a taboo, nor could any thematic commitment mean a subversive or even treacherous glorification of the "hostile forces". Be that as it may, Tomić and Grlić had recognised the potential demand in the market for "untold stories" in the void of an established regime of "silence" towards this aspect of most biographies, that is, due to the lack of publicly articulated experience of compulsory military service in the subsequently defamed YPA. In it, a multitude of individual stories mirrored and verified itself through the renewed common reference framework, the collective experience, especially since the genre of military stories in YPA still is alive in oral culture.

Petrović succintly explicates that which the authors have recognised as profitable: the potential of military stories to represent individual and collective narratives at the same time and still connect people despite the ethnic differences. The author recognises the right place, the focal point of constituting identity and constructing oneself in this narrative: past every ideological and political perspective, it is a source of representation of masculinity which "should be understood as a memory practice that plays an important role in reproduction of certain types of masculinity" (2011, p. 425-429).

The Yugonostalgic genre is still not exhaused, even in the second decade of the 21st century. Its popularity is not ongoing because the repertoire of the ex-Yugoslav mythemes and emotional symbols in inexhaustible, but because it is a vital genre that rotationally adjusts to the current movements in the market and keeps giving new meaning to the repertoire of the Yugoslav imagery depending on the needs of the moment. Since the "forbidden fruit" of Ugrešić's Culture of Lies over the popular marketing of Yugoslav imagery thanks to the emotional instability of the audience towards the retromania spectacle, Yugo-nostalgia has recently (2013) turned into a social genre through autobiographical prose of Ana Tajder, Titoland. The work quite accurately hits a nerve of a pauperised society that recognises the growing contrast between what it used to have, and a sense that it will never have it again. Here we are not talking about a realisation that we will never again be young, but about knowing that there is no way to enjoy the benefits and the standard of socialist working class again. There is no longer a delusion that the socialist utopia will be replaced in some time with the American dream, and everything will be better again if we only go through the transition, but it is about a growing awareness that the neoliberal capitalism will drain us and discard us on the pile of wasted resources as Baumann's "human waste". In the clear realisation that the future will surely not be better, the image of a better past once again becomes strongly attractive.

Hence Titoland, another individualised Yugo-biography, will be directed towards the current collective sensitivity and it will specifically put emphasis on the social note. Through the description of her upbringing, schooling in anonymising school coats, and through superficial panoramic scanning of the material decor of a socialist bourgeois family, the author will convey the message of a "truly accomplished equality' 'which then reigned, as well as the benefits that have stemmed from it: the lack of crime, lack of consumerist hell of a never satisfied desire, lack of exhaustion and wearing of a man through competition and market pressure, lack of status rivalry, absence of stress over the lack of superhuman performance in inhumanly tight deadlines...

The overall picture of Titoland is fairytale harmonious: everyone had enough of everything, sufficiently enough so that nobody would strive for aggressive and insatiable accumulation. Rather, there was a socially conscious solidarity that had made all the surplus labor selflessly pour into the benefit of the community, which resulted in infrastructure flourishing for all the desire comfort of citizens and the expansion of social services for all conceivable public needs and problems of society members. This is a clearly addressed comment on today's ' privatisation and commercialisation of what used to belong to the sphere of public and social goods. The peak of this idyllic idleness Ana Tajder underlines with the sentence: "those who were lazy, could remain being lazy".

From today's perspective, these images fall on fertile ground and offer themselves as support to existential uncertainties and anxieties of our identity today.

Discussion

Linda Hutcheon, referring to the dual nature of postmodernism as an ironic and nostalgic epoch, asserts that nostalgia is "transideological", which this paper calls into question. When we take into consideration that Hutcheon actually believes that nostalgia is a universal trait of the human nature which is used as a response to passing of time and that nostalgia is one of the dominant characteristics/ manifestations/ genres of the contemporary postmodern "structure of feeling", its "jargon of authenticity" sith regard to the belief in the postmodern exhaustion in relation to antiquated treatment of culture, it turns out that nostalgia is not only a general philosophic problematisation of time, nor a sentimental reaction of the human soul to the imminent passing of time, but it is always concrete. It is firstly concrete with its choice of items of "yesterday's world" for meaningful connotations, but also with the message that it conveys with the gesture of seeming abandonment

of the present. This brings nostalgia to the field of strained turmoil of ideological discourses and in it, it is never neutral nor is it devoid of ideological motivation. Slavenka Drakulić will assess the seeming de-tabooed topics in history and culture of the Yugoslav society in her essay "Cultural Yugonostalgia as the New Cool", not as a sign of emancipation from the burdening ideologised or falsified interpretation of all aspects of the Yugoslav society and everyday rhetoric of "yesterday's" nationalism, but as a moment of entry of the new ideology as a constructor of the ruling discourse: consumerism.

Certainly, the popularity of nostalgia strategies still needs to be read in a wider context, in addition to specifically detected ideological motivation and targets, and Svetlana Boym will say that nostalgia is "a rebellion against the modern idea of time, time as history and as progress" (p. XV), "a manifestation of collateral effects of the progress technology" (p. 10) in terms of traumatising the individual with the dynamic that actually makes a difference with a single constant. In this context Branko Malić (2014) will, in his essay "To Live and Die At the Last Time" analyse nostalgia as the only remaining time we have due to the crumbling of all possible connections, even with those closest to us, as a result of grinding everyday life. Nostalgia is, he points out, a way of feeling that life was once lived, which becomes a particularly understandable strategy in the transitional climate of these areas.

In this region, nostalgia is far more complex and far more conditioned by triviality: "things in post-socialism are very specific because the societies have been through a very disruptive process of different transitions (...), reckless revisiting of closer history, new exclusivist ideologies, planned amnesia- all of this not only causes an identity crisis with humans, but also serious breakdowns in their narratives" (Velikonja, p.30)

However, rejecting a demand for recognition of Yugoslavs as a minority testifies that such a desire for rehabilitation in the identity narrative, out of complex ideological, cultural and psychological reasons, needs and motivations can be tolerated in the field of culture, but it cannot be politically verified into a subject that would in such a way assume a distressing status, although realistically it would not represent a relevant political force. The underlying reasons for such (in)visible prevention as a manifestation of Freudian narcissism of small differences or the fear of small (Appadurai), as well as contact with the zone of incomplete Other (Luketić), to summarise the discussion, we would reach the key fact that Paul Connerton notes, that "social memory control largely determines the hierarchy of power" (p. 5) since "power relations determine which sphere will stand out in the construction of (Petrović, 2006, p. 215), and "to add unto does not mean to count in, but to distort the budget of power and knowledge" (Bhabha, p. 182).

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A Comparative Study on Emerging Modern and Traditional Rich people Lifestyles in Tehran City (Iran)

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Abstract

This study was compiled in measuring method and in the statistical population of all the family guardians of Tehran city residences in districts 1,2, and 3 in year 2010, and in a sample of 397 people, who were chosen in multi-step cluster sampling method, to achieve the purposes of three main and eleven sub theories. The required information was collected using a 59-itemed questionnaire with a proper reliability and validity between 0.72 to 0.79 for the whole questionnaire and its components, while the data were statistically analyzed using the descriptive statistics (frequency tables, central bias, distribution indexes and chart), and inferential statistics methods (Man Whitney). The study findings show that: (1) there is a meaningful difference between the main theories of emerging and traditional rich people lifestyles (p <0.01); (2) there is a meaningful difference between the type of economic structures of emerging and traditional rich people lifestyles (p <0.01); (3) there is a meaningful difference between the type of emerging and traditional rich people lifestyles (p <0.01). Also regarding studies on eleven sub theories it was revealed that: (4) there is a meaningful difference among the level of education, belief in chance, belief in body management, way of passing leisure time, consumption model, and work styles variables between the emerging and traditional rich people (p <0.01); and (5) there is observed no meaningful difference among the taste, religious principles, belief in the position of women, financial criterion, type of clothing variables between the emerging and traditional rich people (p >0.05).

Keywords: *Lifestyle, Socio-cultural Structure, Economical Structure, Emerging Modern Rich people , Traditional Rich people*

Introduction

Lifestyle is one of the discussions which highly focused by the scholars and practitioners during the past couple of decades. It is one of the social phenomena which enjoy a certain position in today's life. Some issues such as fashion, taste, lifestyle are methods which are applied both to make distinction between one and others, and provide one's need for social coping. Apart from their functions in the social classification system, these factors result in social dynamism, by connecting to which one may also promote within the social dynamism (Simmel, 1981, Bourdieu ,1984, Gronow, 1991). Among the respective practitioners, Anthony Giddens more emphasizes on the lifestyle identity giving of the lifestyle (Fazeli, 2003: 110). Gioddens (1999) believes that due to increased communications and personal interests in the modern societies, people choose their certain lifestyles among a variable set of lifestyles, and also the lifestyles visualize for others the certain narration which one has chosen for his/her personal identity for others (Giddens, 1999: 28). According to the Giddens idea with respect to the lifestyle issue, the lifestyle study includes the effort to realize a regulated set of behaviors with action models chosen by people, whose actions in their daily lives are directed by those models. It is important that such choices are available in any level, and no culture would avoid people from their choices completely (Fazeli, 2003: 66).

Style means as the type of doing something (Aryanpour, 2001: vol 1, 103). The word lifestyle indicates various methods of living. Also, this expression may indicate the comparison of the lifestyles discovered among different groups of the society. Also, the word lifestyle as the meaning of "way of living" has been conceptualized. Usually, way of living is realized via values and methods of consumption, which are resulted from the increasing distinction of the developed capitalist societies (Babaei, 2005: 15). The methods of life are in fact the distinct model of communicaing among the people, while people use the concept of lifestyle in their daily lives without considering explanation of their purpose as necessary (Chini, 1996:

4-5). According to personality value viewpoint, Wales and Lycert (1979) believe that the lifestyle thinking is understood as the interfering variables between difficult economical conditions and real consumption behaviors, while considering the lifestyle characteristics as including the activities, interests and beliefs. Also Sobel (1981) believes that the lifestyle and societies social structures are related. However, the options for anybody are highly dependent on one's position inside such structure (Gibbons and Bourimer, 2002: 113). These positions are formed based on the social opportunities structure and public availability of the opportunities, attributive characteristics such as gender, race, age and living change for the people and groups. According to Webber, lifestyle is applied in three meanings: style of life, lifestyle of action, life conduct. Lifestyle of action refers to the options of the people, while living chance is the potential to achieve the options (Dazeli, 2003: 28).

The lifestyle indicates one's actions within the scope of this life. in the traditional societies, the options based on consumption are highly dictated based on class, category, rural or family environments, while in the modern societies after all the people have more freedom in choosing the goods, services and actions which create the social identity (Solomon 1994: 438, quoted by Rasouli 2004: 54). Lifestyle is usually connected to social and economical class and is reflected in one's made image (Asaberger, 2000: 141).

According to Webber, apart from establishing the differences among the groups, the lifestyles explain the superiority of positions and classes. These groups are converted into reference groups via lifestyles and also define the social judgment and ethical assessment criteria. This thought has seriously been followed-up in Peir Bourdieu works (1980). In this regard, Bourdieu has referred seven concepts of field, capital, habituate, practice, symbol, class, taste in lifestyle analysis (Fazeli 2003: 37).

Apart from Robert discussions (1999) and his other supporters, it seems that lifestyle has been regenerated in these years (Rimmer ,1995). The changes made since Marx until today's era in capitalism and passing through the production to consumption step and besides that relative improvement of middle and lower classes in Europe and USA and growth and development of middle class have made a kind of personal independence in practice and personal freedom to choose (Chani ,1996:4). During the recent years, lifestyle is not considered in studies of social classification and as a way to determine the social class, but a modern social formation which is merely meaningful within the cultural changes of the modern era and consumption culture growth and development (Chavoshian ,2004: 6). Today, the concept of lifestyle has highly been changed due to changes of the western capitalist system in the works of the social sciences thinkers, so that from the prestige models which are totally dependent on the economical components, materialistic valu4s and wealth, and study the lifestyles in certain classes to the models based on the consumptions of cultural and art goods and way of passing leisure times and have different shapes in various social classes and groups are included herein (Chenni ,1999: 19).

Various factors affect lifestyle (Moradi, 2004: 229). The lifestyles are considered as a set of actions and orientations which are meant in certain basis and are dependent on cultural states. Lifestyle is a state and way to use the goods, locations, and certain times which identify a certain group. However, it may not express the whole social experience of the same (Chini ,1996: 4,5). In the classi and contemporary sociologists works, the lifestyles with two dependent and independent variables may also be indicated. In the sociology literature in the primary formulation which dates back to 1920's, lifestyle, wealth consumption and social position of people have mainly been used as an index to determine social class (Abazari and Chavoshian, 2002: 6, quoted from Chaein, 1955, Chapman 1935). In second formulation, the lifestyle in the social classification studies is not considered as a way to determine the social class, but is considered as a modern social form which is merely meant within the cultural changes of the modern era and consumption culture growth and development (Chavoshian, 2004:6). In this regard, the lifestyle is a way to define the values, visions, behaviors or identities of people which is of increasing importance for social analysis (Abazari & Chavoshian, 2002: 6).

Whereas theoretically an important part of this study is referred to the emerging rich people, in order to understand the concept of emerging rich peoplees in Iran, the reasons to apply the word is mandatory. In definition of class, Bokhinsky (1995) wirtes: classes are groups of people from whom one may possess the other's job following in his position change in a certain socio-economical system. Kohen et al (1996) state in defining the social class that it is a group who are defined based on their relation with the ownership and control on the production factors and on others' manpower (Rafipour, 1999). These definitions show that classes are in two formats, i.e. are in two distinct groups. Thus, their classification is made nominally. Lipist et al classify all the social class definitions in two groups 1. realistic definitions 2. nominal definitions of the social class. In realistic definitions, they address three major criteria: (1) mutual action (social class as a group who have mutual actions distinctive to other classes members) (2) members class knowledge from the class categorization from the economical and political interests and membership in a class (3) different class culture with a certain lifestyle for each of the social classes, Shumpiter (1919-1927), Makyor and Peach (1949) and Pasovsky (1957) emphasize in these bases (Lipist et al, 2992: pp 130, 131). Also Lensky (1966) has addressed in his studies that due to the limited valuable sources in each historical era, we would like to know why some rich people have more shares in the style of such sources. The

response to these questions and many other questions means talking about the existence and socio-economical, political and cultural results of social class, social grouping, social inequality and their effects on the public actions of life.

Since the beginning, the thinkers have shown certain interest on social grouping and have pointed out the inherent and sustainable features of such conditions while addressing their role in the social life. Aristotle talked about and Plato studies these conditions (Darenbdrov ,1968: 153). Plato addressed the classified society discussion in making his new society based on justice, and internal social stability (Taamin, 1994:25).

Among different groups of people, this study focused on rich people. Here, rich people mean those who have power purchase higher than the costs of the essential goods and issues and comforting needs on their demand, while their preferences are also achieved. Thus, the indexes to be rich are 1. power of buy demands and 2. achieved preferences. The purchase power is analyzed in micro level cultural aspect, i.e. lifestyle. In Iran, rich people include the top and rich middle classes. In this study, the emerging rich people are those who have recently ascended from lower to higher social layers via inter- or intra- generation class dynamism and became rich. That is, they have the purchase power for their various needs and demands.

Tony Fitz Petrick in the book titled the theory of comfort, analyzed and criticizes some five indexes to define comfort in micro level. These five indexes, each of which are focused on certain aspects of comfort, include: (1) happiness, i.e. the satisfaction and happiness due to achievement of wishes. While sometime being rich may result in happiness (2) security, i.e. one benefits from security, income, employment and housing. Security means prior knowledge on that one's life will not be subject to disorder in near future. (3) preference, a person whose preferences are achieved has more comfort than the others. In case I wish to buy a new car and may pay for it, then my satisfaction and comfort level are higher than one who wishes to buy such car but does not have the money. The importance of this definition is its measurability. (4) needs, all the types of needs achievements may not be thought to be equal to comfort according to importance. There shall be considered difference between the needs. a. fundamental needs, b. non-fundamental needs, c. preferences. fundamental needs may be considered to be connected to the comfort. However, the other two classes are not essentially of such position. (5) rightness. Rightness refers to the a balanced point between partnership and reward. For instance, in case I participate double as you in an investment project, then my dividend shall be double as yours. In case I get more than that, it will be injustice against you, and if less, then I will be subject to injustice. (6) relation comparison, in real world, the comfort level of each person is totally dependent on the level of comfort of those of his type, i.e. those to whom he is comparing himself. Comfort is in a way linked to this feature of one who always compares himself with others (Tony Fitz Petrik, 2002: 20-30).

Regarding the positions and features of emerging, Max Webber says: according to the class position, facilities and economical life opportunities, the recent rich are in the same position of the top groups. However, these groups are not totally acceptable of highly prestigious groups. In fact, these groups are acting as trainees to be introduced to the features of high prestigious group. In order to withdraw emerging people, the highly prestigious people uses various excuses. For instance, they state that emerging have not enough education, of low information and knowledge, or that they do not know how to spend their money, or at last but not least they state that their parents are not known (Khodabandelou, 19994: 33, quoted from Henry Menderas 1990).

Lloyd Warner believes that the top down group of people are wealthy, and even often wealthier than the top of the tops class; but they have become rich recently and may even be too recently. They do not have proper family background, these two factors have separated them from top class of the society. According to the income, residence and level of social participation, top-down class are like top of the tops class, but they do not have the proper glory and correct tastes and acceptable social procedure (Adibi 1975, 226, 227).

According to the aforesaid, lifestyle is one of the discussions which have been considered in various fields especially sociology during the recent decades, and some studies have been made regarding the modern and traditional rich people lifestyles, however not enough. Thus, it has been tried to fulfill researching on this issue and clarify the same sociologically. The main question here is that whether there is any difference between the lifestyles of modern emerging and traditional rich classes in Iran, and how it is in their lifestyle, and what is these two classes behavioral model? Is there any behavioral difference between these two groups? How is the clarification this difference sociologically? How is its appearance in their consumption model? What are its aspects and structure? How are its experimental effects?

Method

This study was compiled in measuring method and in the statistical population of all the family guardians of Tehran city residences in districts 1,2, and 3 in year 2010. According to the statistics obtained from Tehran (Shemiranat) Municipality General Administration, these three districts have 21 counties, with a population of 1,646,076 in 485,873 families; a sample of 397 people were chosen as statistical sample in multi-step cluster sampling method, to achieve the purposes of three main and eleven sub theories. The sampling method in practice was so that first of all some of the aforementioned districts counties were chosen randomly and then some of the family guardians were chosen as the statistical sample.

In this study, a questionnaire made by the author was used which contained 59 questions with proper reliability and validity as the information collection tool. In validity study, the same was obtained between 0.72 and 0.79 using the Cronbakh Alpha factor, for questionnaire and its components. Also in information collection, by referring to the houses during 20 days, approximately 20 questionnaires were completed per day (except holidays) by four surveyors, who were scholar master's degree students who enjoyed the required explanations and training to complete such questionnaires and there was no need to give information to them. Also in statistical analysis, the central bias indexes and distribution and indexes and charts have been used in descriptive level; while in the inferential level the Man Whitney test have been used to study the research theories.

Study Findings

The findings of study and testing the theories indicate the following:

(1) There is a meaningful difference between the main theories of emerging and traditional rich people lifestyles ($p < 0.01$; so that it may be said there is differences between these two groups according to the education, believe in chance, body management and way to pass leisure times (Table 1).

(2) There is a meaningful difference between the type of economical structures of emerging and traditional rich people lifestyles ($p < 0.01$); so that it may be said there is differences between these two groups according to their type of consumption model (Table 1).

(3) There is a meaningful difference between the type of emerging and traditional rich people lifestyles ($p < 0.01$); so that it may be said there is differences between these two groups according to their lifestyles (Table 1).

Table 1- Man Whitney Test Results in Main Theories Study

Theory	Compared variable	Rich people	Average rank	Meaningful level
1	Social and cultural structure	Traditional	210.45	.000
		Modern	143.63	
2	Economical structure	Traditional	204.31	.000
		Modern	173.29	
3	Lifestyle	Traditional	202.24	.005
		Modern	183.31	

(1) in studying the first sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding level of education", the results approve the same, so that the level of education of modern group was higher than the same for the traditional group ($p < 0.01$).

(2) in studying the second sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding taste", the results reject the same, ($p > 0.05$).

(3) in studying the third sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding religious principles", the results reject the same, ($p > 0.05$).

(4) in studying the fourth sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding believe in chance", the results approve the same, so that the orientation to superstition of modern group was higher than the same for the traditional group (p < 0.01). (table 2)

(5) in studying the fifth sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding belief on women position", the results reject the same, (p > 0.05). (table 2)

(6) in studying the sixth sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding believe in body management", the results approve the same, so that the orientation to body management of modern group was higher than the same for the traditional group (p < 0.01). (table 2)

(7) in studying the seventh sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding the way to pass leisure time", the results approve the same, (p < 0.01). (table 2)

(8) in studying the eighth sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding the consumption model", the results approve the same, (p < 0.01). (table 2)

(9) in studying the ninth sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding financial criterion", the results reject the same, (p > 0.05). (table 1)

(10) in studying the tenth sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding way of clothing", the results reject the same, (p > 0.05). (table 2)

(11) in studying the eleventh sub theory, as "there is a meaningful difference between the emerging and traditional rich people regarding the type of working style", the results approve the same, (p < 0.01). (table 2)

Table 2- Man Whitney Test Results in SubTheories Study

Theory	Compared variable	Rich people	Average rank	Meaningful level
1	Three- level academic degree	Traditional	167.16	.004
		Modern	135.83	
2	Taste	Traditional	195.24	.097
		Modern	217.18	
3	Religious principles	Traditional	198.17	.194
		Modern	203.00	
4	Believe in superstition	Traditional	200.06	.000
		Modern	170.66	
5	Believe in women position	Traditional	183.62	.106
		Modern	161.62	
6	Believe in body management	Traditional	203.69	.000
		Modern	103.50	
7	Passing leisure times	Traditional	*191.97*	.002
		Modern	*233.03*	
8	Consumption model	Traditional	209.52	.000
		Modern	148.09	
9	Financial criterion	Traditional	179.40	.950
		Modern	180.04	
10	Type of clothing	Traditional	199.75	.722
		Modern	195.36	

11	Work style	Traditional	206.06	.000
		Modern	131.48	

Discussion and Conclusion

The most important findings of this study focused in comparison of the two traditional and modern rich people, indicate the existence of meaningful differences between the socio-cultural, economical structures and lifestyles of these two groups.

In order to clarify these findings as per the reliable sociology theories, it may be said that in fact lifestyles include models for the behaviors which distinct people from each other. Mainly, different life models are positioned in culture expression and also culture may be explained so that it is a set of people lifestyles including their common customs, visions, values and understanding, which link then as a society to another. Socio-cultural structure includes a set of variables such as high education, taste, etc.

According to Weblen, high education was primarily of the tasks of the traditional lazy classes, however, after industrial societies' progress, the orientation with respect to high education was changed. Due to the findings of this study, the modern rich people were more educated than the traditional rich people.

According to Bourdieu, the difference between today and past generation as per the taste criteria is because the economical status has changed; thus, due to the existence of public communication means, there basis to grow taste was developed which is also including various criteria. Due to the findings of this study, even the traditional rich people's tastes are being modernized.

According to Weblen, observation of religious orders is a way of thinking which has certain economical value, and is assessed via the effect of the same on one's profitability and his industrial and production efficiency, which may be different for various classes; however, Due to the findings of this study, the religious beliefs in these two groups are almost the same.

Also Weblen suggests that brilliance and type of clothing indicate laziness, especially for the recently industrialized societies emerging layers, the type of clothing and wearing are important. Due to the findings of this study, we understand that the way of shopping and type of clothing is moving towards modernity among rich people.

"In fact, these groups are acting as trainees to be introduced to the features of high prestigious group. In order to withdraw emerging people, the highly prestigious people uses various excuses. For instance, they state that emerging have not enough education, of low information and knowledge, or that they do not know how to spend their money; or at last but not least they state that their parents are not known "says Max Webebr regarding the position and features of the emerging rich people. Classification of people in prestigious classes is mainly based on their consumption model. Prestigious groups are mainly those people related to the lifestyles and social respect. These people consider limits for their relations with people not belonging to their groups and expect its members to have social distance from those of lower prestige; however, according to this study, the tradition group members are also moving towards modern consumption model.

Due to the findings of this study, it may be concluded that the mental contradiction and gap is one of the Iranian social gaps and contradictions occurred between tradition and modernism. It seems that tradition is under the process of regeneration and that the traditionalists shall avoid some their positions and these people are more modern than their ancestors.

Evidently, lack of cultural integrity is the result of the process and regeneration of a society, which has affected the old values and interests and brings new interests and values.

In the third world societies, the passing era from the traditional to modern society is considered by the sociologists and social sciences practitioners due to their effects on the social structure. In this regard, like many other developing countries, our country is affected by the passing era issues in the fields of culture, values and social structure.

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Exploring Beliefs and Practices among Teachers to Elevate Creativity Level of Preschool Children

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of teacher's beliefs on creativity construction practices of preschool children in class, explore and understand the beliefs of preschool teachers on the concept of creativity, observe actual practices of preschool teachers in the classroom and identify the factors that may influence teachers' practices in the classroom. This exploratory study adopted the use of qualitative method of inquiry to provide an in-depth understanding of the area being investigated. Interview and observation of four preschool teachers were purposively selected from two government schools were used to collected data. Findings revealed that all the teachers in this study expressed their views that creativity is something related to art works. The teachers' beliefs about how best to facilitate children's creativity can be divided into three categories; (a) Teaching methods, (b) Classroom environment and (c) Characteristic of the teachers. The findings also reveal varieties of constraining factors which influence teachers' classroom practices in promoting creativity for the preschool children. The implication of the findings are that further research need to conduct to identify the value in promoting creativity for children through an effective approach.

Keywords: Beliefs, practice, preschool.

Introduction

Creativity can be considered as one of the very complex, mysterious and enticing human behaviour. Every great invention or discovery, including all forms of artistic expression depends on high level of creative thinking. However, before the mid-1950s, creativity does not attract much attention among scholars or intellectuals during that time. From 121,000 list of articles appearing in the Psychological Abstracts (Smith, 1959, in Ruggiero 2004) between 1936 and 1959, there were only 186 specific articles that were related to creativity (Ruggiero, 2004).

Our daily lives are constantly surrounded with various problems that require us to think in finding the best solution. Whether we realize it or not, in our struggle to think for problem saving, creativity plays an important role in helping us to find ways that are innovative and effective. Since creativity can be defined as creating a new idea or concept (Guilford, 1950 Mindham, 2005), divergent thoughts (Butcher & Nice, 2005), innovative (Butcher & Nice, 2005), and seeing things in a new light (Mindham, 2005), it clearly demonstrates that creativity is the key to many things related to daily life.

Diakidoy & Kanari (1991) stressed that every effort to improve the level of creativity in schools, should take into account individual factors by referring to teachers who will realize each objectives contained in the program and the national education curriculum. Stipek et al. (2001) mentioned that teachers uphold something that is reliable, this fact will shape teaching practices in the classroom. Pajares (1992) and Hofer et al. (1997) stated that teacher's beliefs can influence the perception and evaluation on the results of teaching, in addition to the choice of methods and activities. The ministry pays much attention to the development of children's creativity, hence studies that examine the understanding and trust of the teachers on the concept of creativity and the actual practice in the classroom need to be carried out, especially on the broad concept of creativity and multiple meanings, and definition.

Kupari (2003) stated that teacher's beliefs are a critical element in determining teaching and learning process in the classroom. According to Cooney and Lin (2001), every action taken by the teacher in the classroom is the result of the teacher's beliefs. With particular emphasis on aspects of teacher's beliefs, then hopefully it will help the teacher to be able to transform their way of teaching in educating the children, especially on the creativity aspect. This is because the study of teachers' beliefs and practices of teachers in class will contribute as basic knowledge that can be used for us to

understand and develop a more effective teaching practices in the future (Kang & Wallace, 2005; Levit, 2001 ; Luft, 1999; Tsai 2002).

Previous studies found that teacher's characters can influence (Pianta et al., 2005; Saracho & Spodek, 2007; Mashburn et al., 2008), trust (Cassidy et al., 1995; Chang, 2003), and quality of early childhood programs (Burchinal et al., 2000, Bryant et al., 1994; Pianta et al., 2005; Howard-Jones, Taylor, & Suton 2002; Peisner-Burchinal et al., 2001) on the social, emotional and cognitive development. However, there are very few studies that examine its influence on creativity, especially in the early ages of children.

In Malaysia, the importance of development of creative power in early childhood education is clearly stated in discourse of pre-school education curriculum. Among the six components found in the discourse is the creativity and aesthetics component with a focus on developing creative and expressive character through imagination and thinking (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2001). In 2008, the National Pre-School Curriculum Standard (NPCS) was enacted to strengthen the existing curriculum. The goal is to develop the potential of children aged four to six years in a comprehensive and integrated approach to the physical, emotional, spiritual, intellectual and social development through a safe learning environment, nourished through activities that are fun, creative and meaningful (Ministry of Education, 2009) to provide children with basic skills and concepts to prepare them for learning at primary schools in the future. According to Grouws (2006), many studies have been conducted to see the relationship between belief and teaching practice. Therefore this kind of research is highly relevant to be carried out to explore the beliefs and practices of the teachers.

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of teacher's beliefs on creativity construction practices of preschool children in class. The main objective is to:

(a) Explore and understand the beliefs of preschool teachers on the concept of creativity. (b)Observe actual practices of preschool teachers in the classroom.

(c) Identify the factors that may influence teachers' practices in the classroom.

This study provides an avenue for discussions among preschool teachers through its articulation of implications for teacher education and continuing professional development and may indicate cultural differences in the concept of creativity. Furthermore, this study will also provide a basis for judging whether current practice meets the requirement to promote children's creativity. The findings from this study also will be able to determine how teachers conceptualize creativity and what impact their concepts have on their interpretation and objectives more clearly both in curriculum requirements and in professional preparation and training.

Method

Research design

In order to obtain a deeper understanding of teachers' conceptions of creativity and their beliefs about the best way in promoting creativity in classroom this exploratory study adopted the use of qualitative method of inquiry to provide an in-depth understanding of the area being investigated. The use of the qualitative method of inquiry is appropriate for this study because it is an attempt to understand the phenomenon of interest from the participant's perspective, not the researcher's. A qualitative researcher is interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed; that is how they make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world (Sherman & Webb, 1988). Moreover, Burn (1997) asserts that the task of the qualitative methodologist is to capture what people say and do as a product of how they interpret the complexity of their world, to understand events from the viewpoints of the participants.

Sampling

The subjects of this study consisted of four preschool teachers were purposively selected from two government schools. As Denzin and Lincoln (1994) put it, many qualitative researchers employ purposive, and not random, sampling methods. In the context of this study, the said teachers have been purposely selected for the fact that they might show differences in ideas, beliefs and practices because of the different characteristic of their personalities and physical settings.

Data Collection Methods

Data were gathered using semi-structured interviews consisting of open-ended questions and classroom observations. The use of two instruments acts as a data triangulation to increase the authenticity and trustworthiness of the data collected. The data gathered from the interviews and observations were shared with the teachers and discussions were held with

them to find out why they had acted in certain ways during their actual teaching. Data collections was done in three phases as two different schools with different settings were involved in this research. Classroom observation was thought to be the most appropriate means of obtaining information to answer the main questions of the link between teachers' perceptions of creativity and their actual practice in the classroom. The researcher employed non-participation observation technique where he observed the subjects without being actively involved with the activities which left him free to make notes and audio-recording.

Findings

In this study, the analyses provide three broad conceptual themes in attempt to address the research questions. The themes are:

1.   Teachers' conceptions about creativity.

2.   Preschool curricula that could promote children's creative development.

3.   Teachers' priorities for creativity in the preschool curriculum.

4.   The role of classroom environment in facilitating creativity.

Teachers' conceptions about creativity

All the teachers in this study expressed their views that creativity is something related to art works.

"Creativity is something involved with art like pasting small piece of paper on drawing blocks…I meant collage. It is something to do with drawing… other art activities such as colouring, painting or creating something from the clay".

Another teacher expressed her idea of creativity as a way to express feeling. Meanwhile, two teachers conceptualized creativity as the ability to produce something unique or something that is different and unexpected.

"When children can draw something that is unexpected and they can colour it beautifully and we can see varieties of object in their drawing such as tree, animals and another that is beyond our expectation". Teachers also considered creativity when children can draw nicely and with perfection. "When the children can draw a nice picture… for example if he can draw a ball then colour it very nicely and neatly".

Preschool teachers act in the classroom

Having analyzed the responses in the interview, the teachers' beliefs about how best to facilitate children's creativity can be divided into three categories; (a) Teaching methods, (b) Classroom environment and (c) Characteristic of the teachers.

(a)   Teaching methods

All teachers believe that providing enough time for children to engage in arts activities will help to promote children's creativity. Besides that, giving children freedom is another way to facilitate children's creativity. Allowing some choices of their own in learning activities such as the freedom to use of materials and to sing any song are some examples given by some of the teachers.

"Give them freedom…for example they can use any colour as they like for their drawing".

The use of materials in the teaching and learning process is very important to facilitate children's creative development. This was expressed by all four teachers.

"Teaching materials are very important if we want to develop children creativity".

Besides that, the teachers also expressed the need for the teacher to be flexible during teaching as they believed that doing so will help to promote children's creativity in the classroom. Three of the teachers was implied that by giving children the opportunity for interaction between themselves, and asking open-ended questions would also help to develop children's creativity. The teachers also responses that giving the opportunity for children to engage in group work and discussion is another way to promote creativity in the classroom.

(b)   Classroom environment

Facilitating creativity in the classroom requires some commitment to space which

Means being aware of physical space in the classroom and of the ways it may foster children's creativity. All of the teachers believed that classroom environment plays an important role in promoting children's creativity. A classroom that is attractive and well-organized with learning corners can contribute towards children's creative development.

"Making the classroom look attractive is also important. Children like a classroom that is colourfull, attractive, some cartoon, toys like dolls, and things like this can make the children like the classroom and make them more creative".

Meanwhile, two other teachers said that plenty of resources in the classroom are also required not only for learning purpose but children to easily access materials including books, construction blocks and others.

(c)   Teachers' characteristics

All teachers also agreed that teachers' personal qualities that they bring into the classroom are also important in nurturing children's creativity. A majority of the of the teachers mentioned that the promotion of children's creativity requires the teachers themselves to be creative. It was discovered that none of the teachers regard themselves as particularly creative and they are not confident about their teaching quality in promoting children's creativity. The statements below clearly illustrate about teachers' feeling about themselves:

"I am not a creative teacher… I don't think that I am creative and I am not good at new teaching methods".

"No, I am not creative. It is not easy to be creative teachers and I don't even know wheather I have developed children creativity so far."

In order to be creative, the teacher should be a hardworking person in implementing creative teaching and to prepare various creative activities. Hardworking is also one of the teachers' characteristic that the teacher should have to promote creativity in the classroom.

"You need to squeeze you head and think hard to look for new activities and thinking appropriate teaching materials to be included in the activities."

Another characteristic that teachers should have is confidence. This was expressed by two teachers.

"Teachers must be very confident intheir teaching and they must be ready to face any possibilities from the activities that they have planned. Not everythings you plan can be achieved and this applies to creative activities too."

Another important characteristic required to promote creativity in the classroom is that teacher has to be friendly. The term 'Friendly' in this context means that teachers have to be approachable to the children. Teachers should not be very strict so that children will feel free to be active in the learning activities in providing ideas and to participate without fear of making mistakes. Tolerance is another characteristic that a teacher should have to produce stimulating learning process towards the development of children's creativity. To be accepting of children's ideas; to be appreciative of any outcomes or products produced by the children and to be patient are among the criteria that the teacher should also have to produce creative children.

Constraining factors in promoting children's creativity

In seeking to be creative teaching, teachers may often have to deal with what may seem to be rather unsupportive situations, and a number of social constraints. The findings reveal varieties of constraining factors which influence teachers' classroom practices in promoting creativity for the preschool children below:

(a)   Teachers' own pedagogical limitations

Based on the responses from the interviews, most of the teachers felt that they don't know exactly how to implement teaching which specifically promotes children's creativity. Although all of them are trained teachers, they still found it very difficult to implement in the real classroom. All the teachers expressed their concern about their lack of knowledge in implementing integrated teaching and knowledge in mew methods of teaching, especially in math's, reading, writing, courteous behavior, health and safety and play and movement and also how to implement child-centered activities geared toward the promotion of creativity.

"It hard to implement creativity in other subjects especially in basic counting…even reading activities. It is easy to say but hard for me to do it and I don't know how to implement creative activity in my teaching."

(b)   Large class size

Difficulty in managing the children in the classroom because of large class sizes in the classroom hinders teachers from carrying various learning activities in their teaching. The problem of class sizes had all the teachers expressing difficulty to concentrate in promoting children's creativity and providing child-centered activity. Some of teachers' responses are;

"I just felt I cannot do anything better and even to implement teaching activities that are creative and enjoyable. Having too many children in my classroom is very stressful and most of the time is to monitor the children behavior and to keep yhe classroom in control. So I think I better keep to a formal method otherwise the children do not get anything from my teaching."

(c)   The pressure of expectations from Primary one Teachers and Parents.

All of the teachers cited the pressure of expectations from primary one teachers and parents which push them to concentrate more on preparing the children with the three basic skills (reading, writing and counting) rather than promoting children's creative development. One teacher explained in detail how the preschool children's achievements at the end of the year are judged by their ability to master the three basic skills by the primary one teacher.

Two teachers feel threatened by the attitudes of some of the parents they encounter. They feel under pressure to 'teach to please parents'. Parents expecting their children to be able to count and read in short period of time forced the teachers to teach three basic skills and implement teaching in formal manner and at the same time ignore other areas of learning which include creative development. Two teachers describe:

"They think that we should emphasise on the 3M's. If the children are having problems with the 3Ms, we are the one to be blame and considered our teaching is not very effective."

(d)   Lack of resources

A lack of resources in terms or art and play materials are another constrain on the teachers' efforts to implement creative activities for the preschool children. Two teachers who really believe the use of materials is very important in order to promote children's creativity. All teachers stated that the budget allocated by the school is not enough and mentioned that they have spent a considerable amount of money to purchase some of the materials. Although they have a workshops to train preschool teachers to recycle unused materials as their teaching aids, they still need additional materials to make the teaching aids more attractive. Two teachers described their situation:

"I have to plan my teachings according to the resources available. Sometimes I have to change my actual planning if the resources are not enough for all children."

"I have to prepare everythings, even basic equipment like papers and others too such as water colour, crayon. It is very stressful where at the end you have to prepare everything."

Conclusion

It is reasonable to say that creative development is indeed valuable for our education system and that a wealth of benefits for the children can be gained if it is implemented effectively. Teachers are in position to either enhance or inhibit children's creative development, thus they should make an effort to promote creativity in the classroom. Others relevant authorities such as the Ministry of Educations, the Curriculum department and teacher training institutions also play an important role in ensuring that aim of promoting children's creativity can come true. The development of children's creativity needs to be put on the forefront of the agenda so that a more holistic and meaningful development of our children is achieved.

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The Crisis and Spiritual Identity from a Humanistic Approach

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Abstract

Research conducted on understanding of spirituality and identity through faith or religion regardless of their origin or name has been a vast area of academic studies, besides scanted fruitful outcomes are perceived as more studies are inclined towards the subject in recent years. On the other hand, in today`s world individuals are suffering from not only material crisis but also spiritual crisis that are having impacts on identity. The moments of crisis are desperate times that may require desperate measures; however such unwary steps may cause problems on identity, spirit, and self as resulting in crisis on important components of an individual. In order to avoid setbacks and inauspiciousness, faith or beliefs in a divine power are to be studied with their problem solving aspects in moments of crisis. Our perception of psychology and the way we use it in dealing with crisis of different types through generating positive psychology is delved as to understand the new course of psychology in this regard. This study together with literature written on the subject aims to investigate the correlation between crisis and well-being of individuals and their identities as well as the impact of religion on identity in solving personality problems.

Keywords: Spirituality and Identity, Spiritual Crisis, Setbacks and Inauspiciousness, Divine Power

Introduction

Psychology, as a positive subjective experience of science has been -for many years- restricted and described as a devotee of prevention from pathological illnesses, especially when the inquiries for life are arisen together with senses of despair and pessimism, as well as barrenness and meaningless of life. The dominance of pathology resulted in a model of human being that is lack of positive concepts like hope, wisdom, creativity, future mindedness, courage, spirituality, responsibility, and perseverance which are also essential for one`s well-being. Such values were ignored or defined as mere transformations of authentic negative impulses. Thus, in this study it is also aimed to depict the nowadays changed course of psychology in order to understand above mentioned abstract concepts as to find solutions to spiritual problems through the lens of humanistic approaches and religious values that may be of assistance in overcoming with crisis and help individuals to reach psychological well-being.

Generating Positive Psychology

Psychologists, since foundation of APA in 1940 have exclusively scant information on pathology in terms of reaching a life worth of living, but since the inquiry was centered on corporal well-being, they brought up some valuable data in understanding how people can survive or endure adverse conditions. 3 decades of research have shown that an optimistic explanatory style (ie, attributing negative outcomes to factors that are temporary and specific, rather than to factors that are persistent and pervasive) is associated with better mental and physical health, academic achievement, athletic performance, and performance in many career domains (Hershberger, 2005). However, psychologists have very limited cumulative data on how normal people flourish in peaceful, tranquil conditions. "Psychology has, since World War II, become a science largely about healing…"This almost exclusive attention to pathology neglects the fulfilled individual and thriving community." (Seligman at. al, 2000) On the other hand, the aim of positive psychology is depicted as: "… to begin to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from preoccupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities. "(Seligman at. al, 2000)   At this point, we are presented with individual and group level of positive psychology. For individual level, it`s about positive traits as in capacity for love and vocation, courage, forgiveness, originality, future mindedness, spirituality, high talent, and wisdom. At the group level it is about civic virtues and the institutions that move them toward better citizenship. The field of psychology at the subjective level is categorized into three: "in the past, well-being, contentment, and satisfaction, for the future, hope and optimism, in the present, flow and happiness." (Seligman at. al, 2000)

Crisis, Spiritual Identity and Religion

The articles scanted in this study are to serve the same purpose, but with different approaches and methodologies. The question of self in terms of identity through conventional and transpersonal perspectives (Mac Donald, D. A. 2009), complexity of spiritual being or human being, in other words are we spiritual entities wearing the garment of flesh on our bones or human beings with our spiritual entities (Mac Donald, D. A. 2009), conceptual framework is presented suggesting that religion provides a distinct setting for identity exploration and commitment through offering ideological, social, and spiritual contexts (King, P. E. 2003), the relationship between identity and faith development in undergraduates from a private, Catholic university and a public college (Gebelt, J. L. et. al, 2009) are given in the articles either explicitly or implicitly. A very different perspective is given in the article written by Charles W. Calomiris in which the points of intersection between spirituality and financial crises are presented (Calomiris, C. W. 2009).

Two of the studies had their research applied to specific group of people. King`s article is based on the research applied to adolescents and suggests that the religious context promotes a sense of identity that transcends the self and promotes a concern for the social good and that religious institutions provide unique settings for adolescent identity formation (King, P. E. 2003). The other one is applied to a collegiate context, higher informational identity style scores are depicted together with higher normative style scores which indicate different measurements and scales in terms of stronger faith, identity styles, and values of religious impacts through which Identity distress was related to greater questioning of beliefs and expectation of future change in those beliefs (Gebelt, J. L. et. al, 2009).

One of the most striking similarities among the studies conducted on the same issue is that they all value and care about the fact that spirituality and identity have been subject to many researches and more and more studies are emphasizing the importance of religious impacts on spirituality and identity. As a part of the swelling interest, attention to the relation of spirituality to identity and identify formation has also seen somewhat of a rise (Mac Donald, D. A. 2009). Currently within the social sciences there seems to be a revival of interest in religion and spirituality (King, P. E. 2003). From the days of Erikson's (1963, 1968) first explorations of identity, issues of spirituality and/or religiosity have played a central role in identity theories (Hoare, 2002). (Gebelt, J. L. et. al, 2009). The role of faith which has been underestimated for long time is brought to the core of study in Gebelt`s article in which the importance is mentioned as followed: Surprisingly, however, in spite of the theoretical and methodological importance of faith in identity models, faith development continues to be studied primarily as a distinctly separate area of research from identity, though in recent years this has begun to change (Gebelt, J. L. et. al, 2009). King`s article also claims that the role of religion has been neglected and left unexplored as it was pushed behind the curtains by Freud`s referrals. Freud (1928/1961) referred to "religion as a universal obsessional neurosis" (p. 43) and "a mere illusion, derived from human wishes," (p. 31). Although sub-disciplines such as psychology of religion and religious education have developed a substantial body of work, many other areas of psychology, especially developmental psychology, have until recently left religion and spirituality relatively unexplored (Benson, Roehlkepartain, & Rude, this issue; Donelson, 1999; Weaver et al., 1998). This special issue, along with an emerging body of developmental research and publications, suggests that on the cusp of the 21st century, religion and spirituality are recognized as viable domains of study (King, P. E. 2003). On the other hand, Macdonald`s article mentions the function of faith or religion through the definition of identity and spirituality which provides a different perspective on the issue and helps us understand better within four overlapping points of confusion where it starts to get more blur rather than comprehensive. Spirituality, namely (a) its relation to religion and religiousness, (b) its ontological status (i.e., is spirituality real or merely a product of bio-psychosocial processes?), (c) its dimensionality (e.g., is it a single construct or is it multidimensional?), and (d) its relation to and place within personality psychology (i.e., is it best understood to be a part of personality or is it something different?), (Mac Donald, D. A. 2009).

The article written by Calomiris is strikingly different than the others as it is mostly focused on the financial crisis caused by political mistakes on mortgage system that caused great depression on people and seem to be sinking to the bottom day by day, however his direct referrals to the Bible as a holy book in terms of providing spiritual solutions to the financial crisis attracted a distinctive perception on the issue. Crises are moments when circumstances force us to make important decisions. But why should our individual or collective decisions in response to financial crises have a spiritual component? (Calomiris, C. W. 2009). The very fact that other articles are mostly based on scientific measurements on a topic like spirituality and identity is quite interesting as Calomiris` article is mostly the opposite. The Bible, after all, is itself largely a crisis chronicle. It might be best described as a recounting of a sequence of political, economic, and personal crises, which often coincide, and in which spiritual insights or errors prompted people to make important decisions, for better or worse, about their personal and societal futures. Adam and Eve, Moses, Gideon, David, Solomon, Jesus, and Paul, just to name a few, were all faced with crises that they had to manage (Calomiris, C. W. 2009).

The comprehension or definition of spirituality and identity could not be provided without religious impacts on both as it plays a key role in the moments of crisis and personality development through which individual traits may construct a

much healthier society. The studies -contrary to the Freudian and his followers` referrals- are mainly focused on the idea that sense of religion is essential. Even empirical studies conducted by Gebelt on young adults (collegiate context) reflect a spirituality scale with these results: The current study found that identity and religiosity are related in ways consistent with identity theory. As hypothesized, having a more informational identity style related to having stronger faith and engaging in more spiritual questing. Participants with higher informational scores reported more questioning of their beliefs, placing greater value on doubting those beliefs, and expecting those beliefs to change in the future (Gebelt, J. L. et. al, 2009). King`s article is even more devoted on claiming the role of religion. At its best the religious context provides an anchor as an ideological, social, and spiritual community that serves to ground a young person through the sometimes turbulent waters of adolescence (King, P. E. 2003). As Einstein summarizes in short: "Science without Religion Is Lame, Religion without Science Is Blind."

Conclusion

What we may surmise from generally depicted methodologies and practices of positive psychology is that we have quite little knowledge on positive approach and its advantages in reaching achievement in terms of amplified or nurtured talent of the actual human potential. We infer the very essence of the actual potential of human being through comprehension of positive approach in terms of providing concrete solutions to crisis of identities and spiritualities of today`s societies; also referred to as "the science of happiness," positive psychology is striving to be rigorous and evidence based in its endeavor to identify interventions that promote mental health and quality of life. (Hershberger, P. J. at. al, 2005) In our schools we may possibly adopt this approach as it is showing parallel values of enriching individuals, and concentrating on their positive values rather than negativities as they may buffer against mutual understanding, dialog, tolerance, forgiveness, love, and such universal values which are essential in reaching a universal tranquility.

Furthermore, many studies as observed in this article indicate common results; the importance of faith or belief in a divine power is essential in overcoming with crisis. Generating positive psychology in this regard would make it easier to match the need for belief and its contribution to problems of spirituality.

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The demystifying of the European politics on enlargement- the case with the Republic of Macedonia

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Abstract

In the accomplishment of the integrative function of EU, it is very important the realization of its politics which is performed with the agreements of the European Union because in it are incorporated the main aims of uniting, known as the realization of the four freedoms. It means a free movement of the people, goods, capital and services. Even though the agreements are considered as a key determinant for the existence and functioning of the Union, the European practice shows that their influence is not as big as it is usually assumed. As a matter of fact, separate acts of an agreement are not a guarantee for the development of a policy, but it can also be said that the absence of concrete acts from a particular field, can`t be an obstacle for the development of a concrete policy. It actually deals with the realization of the enlargement policy for separate countries in transition as is the case with the Republic of Macedonia. This country is a member candidate for EU eight years, it has five positive reports for its progress in the essential reforms in the political and economic system, despite the bilateral misunderstanding with Greece about the name issue imposed as an obstacle in defining the date for the beginning of the negotiations. It is to be asked if the European enlargement for the Republic of Macedonia has a double standard in the relation of the political conditions which the rest of the countries in the region had, and became members of the union. Or on the other hand the politicization of the question about euro integration demystifies the European policy of enlargement considering its consistency, deepening and functionality. The citizens in the Republic of Macedonia through the national media create an opinion that the actual European public, created by the euro-diplomats and the actual chair-country of the Union, with its different attitudes in not defining the date for the beginning of the negotiations of the country, seem to problematize the validity of the Copenhagen criteria on the behalf of the imposed problem for the misunderstanding about the name issue from only one country- a member of the Union.

Key words: enlargement policy, demystifying the enlargement, demystification, Copenhagen criteria, consistency, functionality.

Introduction:

When we analyze the policy of European Union enlargement, it is hard to put Macedonia aside. The analysis is always concerning Western Balkans, and because of name dispute Macedonia on the first hand may look like an exemption.

Empirically, the public opinion in Macedonia is clear- all public opinion researches shown great percent of support of EU integration[1], but on the other hand the percent drops few stages down if the name dispute would be condition. Political will with all major parties in the country (even there are few political crises) go in the same direction, even declaratory. But it seems not enough!

General condition is that name dispute with Greece is the main reason because Macedonia did not start the accession negotiations, even the experts will add that on the way more problems were tagged in the reports of the European Commission- all that represented with political The way of functioning of the Union and her real- political events are the best way to demystify her enlargement policy by case of Republic of Macedonia, giving a larger frame for Western Balkans.

Formal Aspect of the Enlargement: Who decides and how the negotiations of accession function?

Even before the political dimension of the problem which Macedonia had for process of accession to European Union, we had to see the formal and legal dimension. For all further strategies it is of great importance to determine in which part of the process of integration Macedonia was "stuck" in?

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[1] Institute for Democracy Societis Civilis- Skopje, Perception of the state of conflict of interests and assessment of progress of Macedonia in European 22 May 2014

Accession of new member states is performed only by ratification of all democratically voted governments of member states of EU, which vote together in Ministerial Council of EU. This refers to every stage of the process[1].

When a country apply for accession to EU, member states represented in the Council decide- after they report from the Commission- whether the application is to be accepted and to recognize the country as a candidate for membership. In other words a state which is to access the EU submits the application for membership to the Council, where all the governments of the member states of EU seat. Council requests from the European Commission to evaluate the ability the state to fulfill the conditions for the membership.

If the Commission positively evaluates and the Council agrees of the negotiation mandate, the negotiations formally opened in-between the state candidate and all member states.

Republic of Macedonia is stack exactly on this segment since the negotiations started. Even though Macedonia had constantly received positive recommendations from the European Commission, just because the system of unanimously voting in the European Council, the application could not pass. Of course, this problem occurred because the name dispute Macedonia had with Greece, and many will say that exactly this problem is the only one which is obstacle of not starting the negotiations and not being on a good way to become the part of big European family. This state are partially true because the name dispute is the major reason, but probably there were other problems because EU does not engage enough energy for speeding the process of integration (if we exclude pre accession dialogue, but it seemed that it had vanished after 24 December 2012 and May Agreement).

In similar way, member states decide when and in which conditions the accession negotiations begin with the state candidates by the political areas – "chapters" (35, and mean adjustment of the local legislation of the state candidate with EU legislation).Member states decide then when the negotiations will be successfully completed (if there was a political will, Macedonia would have a right to solve the name dispute by herself and to complete the chapters for this part of negotiations. Every member state has to agree and to sign the Draft Accession Agreement before state candidate to become state which accesses the EU, and just then this Agreement is to be ratified of every member state in accordance to procedure established with the constitutions of every member state.

The European Parliament should agree, too. Its members were voted directly by the European Union citizens. Policy of enlargement of EU proves good managed accession process, so the enlargement gives at the same time contribution for EU and for candidate states, too.

Candidate states should show that they will be able to play their part fully as a members- and that requires great support of the citizens, and also technical and political compliance to the standards and norms of EU. In the process of applying to the accession EU conducts very meticulous approval procedures for each phase. To help countries to prepare for their future membership the pre accession strategy had been issued. Key elements of this strategy included the agreements which determine the rights and obligations (like the Stabilization and Association Treaty for Western Balkans states[2]), and also special mechanisms for coordination like Accession and European partnership, in which the concrete targets for reform were determined- and must be fulfilled by the candidate states and states- potential candidates.

Financial support by the EU is another important aspect of pre- accession strategies.

Accession negotiations

Mainly, it was important to emphasize that the term "negotiations" can lead to wrong way. Negotiation for accession is focused to the conditions and time frame of acceptance, conduction and appliance of EU rules from the state candidate- which is applicable to around 90000 pages. These rules, known as "acquis", (French expression for "agreed"), were not negotiable. For candidate states basically that meant agreeing on that when and how EU rules and procedures would be applied and accepted. It is important for European Union to get the warranty for the date and effectiveness of applying of these rules from the candidate state.

Negotiations were conducted in every candidate state separately, and the speed depended on the progress of the country. Because of that candidate states had stimulus to implement needed reforms on quick and effective way. For some of these reforms very hard and significant transformations of political and economic structures in the country were needed. Hence,

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[1] European Commission, Understanding Enlargement, page No. 9

[2] EU ENLARGMENT: A LEGAL APROACH, EU Enlargement, Alan Mayhew, Oxford and Portland Oregon 2004., page No 22

it is of great importance that the governments inform the citizens on reasons of such reforms. The civil society support is of essential for this process.

The accession negotiations are conducted between candidate states and EU member states. Negotiation sessions are performed on ministerial or deputy ministerial level, i. e. permanent representatives of member states and the ambassadors and main negotiator of the candidate members.

To make the negotiations easier, whole content of European legislation is cut in "chapters", and for each of them represents certain political theme the areas in which the synchronizing of legislation, institutions and practice in the candidate state was needed. As the base for the technical process of the negotiations, the Commission prepared "screening report" for every chapter and every country. These reports were submitted to the Council. The Commission gave the recommendation whether the negotiations for certain chapter are to be started or it was necessary prior some condones to be fulfilled (or "criteria").

Then, candidate state submitted the negotiation position, On the basis of report given by the Commission, the Council adopts joint view of which the opening of the negotiations.

When EU agrees on joint policy of European legislation and the candidate member accepts it, the negotiations for certain chapter are closed- but only temporarily. Accession process to EU functions on the principle that "nothing was agreed until everything was agreed ", so the definite closing of the chapters happened at the very end of the negotiation process.

Demystification of the negotiations: What will Republic of Macedonia negotiate for if she gets the date for negotiations?

Hypothetically, if Macedonia receives the date tomorrow for the start of the negotiations, she will have to open thirty five chapters. These thirty five chapters are only the synchronization (harmonization) of European with local legislation, i.e. our laws should be in accordance to those from the European Union. Looking back, the number of chapters vary from constituting EU up to today, which meant countries entered the EU before should not answer all the chapters.

This is a kind of myth, because in reality not all of the standards are applicable for all member states, and to those who wish to become member those standards are obligatory.

This "not so fair" policy had been justified by the request from the EU a new members to have legal and political system which guarantee stability and is a warranty that the new members will be competitive in social, economic and ecological way with the member states and will contribute and not be a burden for the EU.

This provisionary request was not accurate in the time of big enlargement of EU, at time when Bulgaria and Romania were accepted for only geostrategic purposes, when they did not completed the criteria but were accepted just because the Union needed their geostrategic positions.

Nevertheless, this cannot refer to the all themes from the chapters, so some of the standards are universal and very important even very hard to be obtained. All experts say that the biggest problem is that EU gives more priority to the bringing of new laws and not to their implementation of candidate members which traditionally become labile on this matter.

Chapters[1]:

1. Free movement of goods	18. Statistics
2. Free movement of workers	19. Social Policy & Employment
3. Right of Establishment & Freedom To Provide Services	20. Enterprise & Industrial Policy
4. Free Movement of Capital	21. Trans-European Networks
5. Public Procurement	22. Regional Policy & Coordination of Structural Instrument
6. Company Law	
7. Intellectual Property Law	23. Judiciary & Fundamental Rights
8. Competition Policy	24. Justice, Freedom & Security

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[1] European Commission, Understanding Enlargement, Page No 9

9. Financial Services	25. Science & Research
10. Information Society & Media	26. Education & Culture
11. Agriculture & Rural Development	27. Environment
12. Food Safety, Veterinary & Phytosanitary Policy	28. Consumer & Health Protection
13. Fisheries	29. Customs Union
14. Transport Policy	30. External Relations
15. Energy	31. Foreign, Security & Defence Policy
16. Taxation	32. Financial Control
17. Economic & Monetary Policy	33. Financial & Budgetary Provisions
	34. Institutions
	35. Other Issues

Whether the enlargement is policy of member states or is it a concern of the whole Union?

Mainly this can be seen as a non-important question, but it is of magnificent importance because is wide connected to the authority so therefore with the power.

If we consider the enlargement as part of the foreign policy of EU than that would be portfolio of High Commissioner of EU for foreign affairs (Catherine Ashton), because she is the one who represents EU, and she is president of European Council for Foreign Relations and is one of the vice presidents of the Commission even she is responsible in front of the Council. Having no unity in the diplomacy may be emphasized as a dead end Macedonia is now in, because European diplomacy has no power in solving bilateral disputes, and name problem with Greece is bilateral one.

Even though, the new **European External Action Service** (**EEAS**) helps to EU- which now has the status of legal entity- in strengthening of her position on global level, promotion of her interests and values, development polices, primarily in area of international trade policies, development policies and humanitarian aid, in order to create international standards which globalisation will modify in accordance to the European norms and promote the European model of global rule[1]. Foreign policy of EU is based on principles of international law and respects the values of the United Nations, and therefore Millennium Development **Goals of UN (good governance, human and minority rights, environmental protection and social inclusion) were horizontally included in the developmental help from EU. Relations with the third countries as EU calls them were regulated with cooperation agreements and the financial instruments have geographical scope. Key word in this relations is "cooperation" and not more, and the least "membership".**

On the other hand if on enlargement we see as a internal policy of EU, then this is to be addresses to the Commission and the Commissioner Štefan Füle. In that case European values are generic, foreign policy becomes national policy and the interests of candidate states were identical to member states of EU. EU regulates the relations with the candidate members with special agreements, and the main goal of her financial instruments to help the candidate states to overcome the transition from candidate state to a member state of EU.

Though, candidate states are obliged to harmonise their development plans/ policies with the priorities of EU, because membership into the Union is their primary target. Horizontal issues had been integrated in all national policies and national interests had been protected with the already existing instruments of EU. And also, financing of candidate members per capita costs more than is given to the third countries, what is somehow natural because the Union invests in herself.

It seems that the results were missing in the both way of the policy, global financial crisis had been concentrated in the most the efforts of member states of EU in direction of protection of the monetary union, which can be understood. The only success story in enlargement is the one for Croatia. The crisis already have influenced EU, but had more impact on reform process of countries interested in accession. Lack of initiative of Western Balkan states is obvious, but there is a

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[1]Access to the EU: what will We Negotiate for? FOOM, MCER. Skopje 2010, Page No 9

lack of projects of EU, like visa liberalization which nicely promoted the accession. The strategy of EU for the Western Balkans (PSA) should be revised, and the focus to move from "stabilization" (in fact, limiting and crisis management only) to association (development and reforms).

Investment Framework, WBIF, 21 October 2009), in order to join and coordinate different financial sources and grants and having advantage in getting them for the project which are priorities for Western Balkans, with the initial focus on infrastructure, included social infrastructure, support for MSP, energy efficiency, and other investment sectors. Still the new instrument will give wished results only if the reform process in the region goes forward in timely manner. Successful reforms usually should go hand by hand with the political agenda, and in this case this is accession to EU.

Process of the enlargement is not less attractive, even it became an obstacle for EU and states wishing to became part of it. Some candidate states have an argument that the access can be dangerous if it comes too early, namely because of bilateral disputes in the region, forgetting at the same time that the enlargement policy was exactly the instrument which obtained efficient solving of conflicts and was peace warranty of the region.

EU does not like bilateral problems; therefore Macedonia is in dead end

"Political overviews which were not connected to the real progress made in reforming were not part of the accession process"- this was said several times from the EU officials, members of the European Parliament, political leaders, even political analysts. In its Strategy for Enlargement 2009-2010[1], the Commission clearly states that: "Bilateral questions should not stop the process of enlargement. Bilateral disputes should be solved by both involved sides that had responsibility to find the solution in the spirit of good neighboring relations having in mind the interests of EU".

Macedonia has few bilateral problems(the biggest is with Greece), but after receiving negative vote from Bulgaria in Council of Europe, another one was created- but was eventually slowly cured so far. Western Balkans countries also have their own problems. Positive initiatives from the region are few, including that one promoted from the Regional Council for cooperation and which are mostly "politically lead" not realistic efforts for managing the essential political problems in the region.

Some of the political analysts believe that so called "uncompleted states" from the Western Balkans (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, and so even Serbia to some extent) significantly make hard and even make it impossible the rule of law and performing of reforms.

Evidently EU is not ready to "import" bilateral disputes, but on the other hand she wishes to become the major global player who will be able to promote the European values and standards in future developing events on global level, especially in the field o environmental protection, human rights, and at the end but not less important in the field of safety and security. And therefore this efforts looked a bit confuse.

From the EU perspective as a global player, former Commissioner for Enlargement Olli Rehn, presented his views in his speech in front of European Center for Policy in Brussels on 22 October 2009: "Let me first ask you a question of conscience: Would you elect somebody who has a messy backyard at home to your city council?

Following the same logic, the EU's credibility as a global actor stands or falls by our ability to shape our very own neighborhood."

For illustration, we must see the situation on the Western Balkans: Macedonia has the problem with the name with Greece, also recognition of the church with Serbia; Serbia has the problem with Kosovo; Montenegro and Croatia have the border problem with Prevlaka; Albania has dispute with Greece; Bosnia and Herzegovina and Kosovo have the problem with statehood. All of this disputes and problems are in the heart of Europe and will disappear only of sincere efforts for their solvation will be made. EU cannot delay the resolving of these problems or to try to solve them without "offering a carrot" which in this case is speeding of the process of enlargement.

What will the newest balance bring to the power in the European Parliament?

The last elections for the European Parliament, which took place in May 2014 seemed to bring new political tendencies in the European Union. The results were clear: even the Conservatives won and Social- Democrats took the second place,

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[1] COMMUNICATION FROM THE COMMISSION TO THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND THE COUNCIL, Enlargement Strategy and Main Challenges 2009-2010, 45

European public opinion showed a need for major changes in the philosophy of functioning of the Union. Therefore, not only the ones who wanted the enlargement to slow down got more power, but in the European Parliament powerful became the ones which countries wanted to get out of the Union.

France and the Great Britain were the exact example for this- in France at the latest election won right wing Marie Le Pen and in Great Britain the national party of Nigel Farage who supported secession from the European Union. At the same time in all other European countries the radical parties who were against the enlargement gained a few more parliamentary members.

Not to forget that there were many conventional parties who had hard attitude towards the enlargement. The Great Britain for a long time placed different requests to stay in the European Union. That even more complicated the inner state in EU and contributed the Union to stay busy with the internal affairs and put the enlargement in the second place.

Four scenarios, the conclusion

The Centre for Southeast Europe Studies from Graz, Austria, published the analysis "Unfulfilled promise: Completing the Balkans Enlargement", where in wider aspect the possible scenarios for enlargement of EU in Balkans were analyzed, and therefore we could see four scenarios for Macedonia depending the future attitude of EU in the process of enlargement.

The First scenario[1] so called "Standard approach" means prolonged and slow accession of Western Balkans States to EU and that would mean hard conditions for membership for Macedonia, which would be very hard to obtain, and also prolongation of tolerance of bilateral reasons for blockade of Euro- integration of certain countries.

The Second Scenario[2] was so called "In the footsteps of Turkey", meant extension of the negotiations for the accession but with no significant movements, and by that it would be clear to the political élite and citizens that the possibility for accession was very small . But Turkey succeeded to develop self- sustaining economy, but the states of Western Balkans will be sentenced for setback.

The third scenario[3] meant giving up on EU enlargement and start of new uncertainties in Western Balkans and also for Macedonia, which was called by the creators *The Ukrainian* scenario. Continued crisis in EU and resistance to the enlargement, by this scenario, could engage other global actors to the region, as Russia or Turkey, and by that Balkans can become collateral victim of the competition in world political scenario.

The fourth scenario[4] was the only one predicting EU enlargement dynamics moving to Western Balkans, but that may be possible only with no change in Brussels politics which claims in the moment that there was no obstacle in accepting new members- which was hardly possible. According to this scenario, all states of Western Balkans having ambitions to become a EU members would have started immediate accession negotiations and all hard to be obtained chapters would be removed from the beginning to the end of negotiations.

Exactly from here is the conclusion that demystification of Macedonian case (who represents the clearest case of problematic condition for being in bilateral dispute):

The European Union did not publicly put the enlargement in the second place, but in fact the political situation of the Union and the opinion of some important factors as France and The Great Britain say the opposite- that the EU will not enlarge, and exactly because of this Macedonia will eventually stay stuck in this long process and will live "The Turkish Scenario".

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[1] Centre for Southeast Europe studies, policy paper: THE UNFULFILLED PROMISE: COMPLETING THE BALKAN ENLARGEMENT, page No 7

[2] Centre for Southeast Europe studies, policy paper: THE UNFULFILLED PROMISE: COMPLETING THE BALKAN ENLARGEMENT, Page No 11

[3] Centre for Southeast Europe studies, policy paper: THE UNFULFILLED PROMISE: COMPLETING THE BALKAN ENLARGEMENT, Page No 14

[4] Centre for Southeast Europe studies, policy paper: THE UNFULFILLED PROMISE: COMPLETING THE BALKAN ENLARGEMENT, Page No 18

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Effectiveness and/or equity in the education system in Romania. A comparative analysis

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Abstract

The most importnat objectives of education systems aim to ensure equity and equal opportunities in education for all members of society and the highest level of effectiveness of education. So far no education system can not support it achieved these goals some are closer, others far removed from their achievement. Also, although the ideal would be for a high level of effectiveness is associated with a high degree of equity and equality before education for all members of society, in reality, there are many situations where equity and efficiency not found in the same education system. In this paper we propose to determine the position and situation of the education system in Romania in terms of efficiency, equity and equality in the face of education. For this, we use a set of indicators and results of various national and international assessment tests attended and Romanian students.

Keywords: system of indicators, equity, efficiency, equality, PISA

Introduction

Public education history, is the earth and the history of concerns to find solutions through which education systems to become equity and efficiency for all members of society they belong to. The nearly two centuries of common history have not been sufficient to resolve this problem since no education system can hardly claim has identified a solution or a way to become equity and efficiency for all. On the other hand, as the degree of complexity of the society in general and of the systems of education in particular has increased,   equity and efficiency in education have become two objectives implementation of which seems more and more distant.

Between his satisfaction seeking a "solution-miracle" - democratization of education at all levels - and disheartening conclusion of Bourdieu's - school, place of social breeding (P. Bourdieu apud Mahler, 1975), there are countless theories, perspectives of analysis, proposals for the reduction of disparities between individuals, groups or individuals as regards equity and efficiency in education etc.

According to the context of socio-economic, political, cultural etc. some education systems have managed to achieve a high level of equity and/or the efficiency of while others have still big problems to ensure a minimum level of education for all members of society.

Between inequitable/ineffective absolute - equity/efficiency full, education systems occupy different positions. Setting as much as possible in the position he occupies a system of education in relation to both its own targets and by comparison with the other systems in this range requires an integrated approach developed and complex.

Method

Theme equity and efficiency in education may be analyzed by means of both the call to quantitative methods and qualitative methods. Given the objective set out but also data which we have we will call to the analysis of secondary data.

Secondary analysis of quantitative data is a method of research frequently used and which shall consist of the analysis of the data from previous research which have had their problems in the center of education in general and on the equity and efficiency of education, in particular.

Materials

A number of important institutions, national or international are concerned and shall have the authority to collect and process data relating to education systems: UNESCO, EUROSTAT, Eurydice etc. In the case at hand, in order to carry out

a comparative analysis between the education system in Romania and other education systems from the perspective European equity and effectiveness in education we are going to appeal to the data provided by the OECD by international research PISA (2000, 2009) but also to those published by Eurostat or Eurydice.

Procedure

Setting the level of equity and efficiency in the level of a system of education assumes existence of units of measurement - measurement of indicators of equity and efficiency in education. History of drawing up a system of indicators to measure the equity and efficiency of the education system is one of the more recent but no less complex than that of education itself. Therefore I considered it necessary to a presentation of the main systems of indicators of education proposed by international institutions or the national.

For the systems of education in western societies, the publication in 1973 by OECD of the document "A system of indicators of orientation of education aimed at making public power" (Bottani, 2008:12) is the start of a process developed and time consuming to build a lens system, based on scientific criteria for the evaluation, as possible to be applied as many education systems in the world other than that the structure, organization, context in which activities are carried out etc. In 1992, OECD published first assembly of indicators of of the educational system. OECD publication "Education at a Glace" is the document key of the organization and in the present. First edition of the work, published in English and French contains 38 indicators grouped on the following areas: might drop, context socio-economic costs of education, human resources, participation in education, the system decision-making, students' results, system outcomes, the relationship with the market. Over time, OECD and improved technique for the collection of data, methods of calculation of indicators and continued to publish each year an edition of this report, which includes data on education systems of the Member States of the organization. The best result of the OECD in any steps taken in the course of time to establish a coherent framework, founded the scientific evaluation of the systems of education program is PISA.

PISA - Programme for International Student Assessement - is a program for the evaluation which shall be conducted once every three years, in more than 60 countries of the world. Romania being included in the year 2000 in this program. Evaluation is carried out on a representative sample of students under the age of 15 years, in the subjects reading, mathematics and science.

The results obtained as a result of collecting the data and processing of them let you carry out a

basic profile of knowledge held by students but also data concerning the general situation of the educational system in a country. On the basis of these results a system of education in a country may assess the situation not only by comparison with its own targets, but compared with the situation of education systems in the other participating countries.

OECD this is not the only interested in the evaluation of education systems. Eurydice, UNDP, UNESCO, etc. are also organizations which have developed rating systems complex, from which it is frequently used to analyze the situation of a system of education in a country or in comparative perspective, more as regards equity and effectiveness in education.

UNDP is an organization which published in 1990 a report on Human Development in which are to be found data and about education, which is considered to be one of the factors very important development of all the companies. Between the UNDP indicators used to calculate the index human development include: literacy rate adult; gross rate of poor education, expenditure on education; use of the Internet; average duration of education. (http://hdr.undp.org/fr/statistiques/idh/)

UNESCO is the organization which, since its establishment in 1945, established that education should be considered as priority area. Within the organization there is a Department for Education made up of six institutes and two centers which focuses on this area with the aim of aiding all states to overcome the difficulties encountered in problems related to the education of citizens. The result of this department is concentrated in an annual report - Education for all (EPT) - in which it is assessed the situation of education systems in most countries world. Exception to this are countries in conflict or post where an opportunity to collect any data and their objectivity is very low.In the context of the report there is an emphasis on four issues considered to be of main importance: universalizing primary education; literacy rate of adults (people aged 15 years and over); equality of sex in front of education; quality education.On the basis of these indicators is calculated the index develop education for all (IDE), a composite index that provides an overall picture, objective on the system of education in a country. Index value is between 0 and 1.1 means the making of full four objectives.(www.unesco.org).

Although EU countries are also included in the system of indicators of the OECD but also the drawn up at the UNESCO and UNDP, it is considered necessary to develop a system of evaluation of education in which they are listed first European states.

Eurydice is the description of a dedicated network systems of education in Europe and that its main objective the "providing all the persons responsible for the systems of education or in the area of education analysis and information at the European level to assist in the decision making process"(http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/about_eurydice_fr.php). In 2007 Eurydice is an integral part of the program of action in the field of European education and lifelong learning. To ensure comparability data supplied Eurydice shall cooperate with international organizations, such as UNESCO, OECD but also with other institutions and structures for at the European level. Data about education are grouped into 121 of indicators that cover the following areas:context in which it operates the education system; the structures of the educational system; school participation (participation rate school on different levels of education, mobility educational); system resources education; educational processes; graduates and levels of training. The publication of the reference Eurydice network is "Key data on Education".

In 2005, a multidisciplinary team made up of teachers and researchers from universities and research centers have collaborated to develop an international system of indicators of equity and equality in education systems in the EU, in the framework of a project supported by the European Commission through the program Socrates 6.1.2.(Hutmacher et Bottani, coord. GERESE, 2005)

The project has been carried out within the framework of the Group of European Research Equity Education Systems - GERESE. As we said in the report published by GERESE goal of this project was not only to measure and compare fairness and equality of European education systems, but also to build a useful tool decision makers who are responsible for the education policies of these countries.(Hutmacher et Bottani, coord.2005)

The system developed by the team comprises a number of 29 of indicators grouped on two dimensions. First dimension focuses on individuals between which may occur different forms of inequality in the face of education. For their evaluation have been build 15 indicators which measure differences/disparities between individuals, disparities between groups/categories of individuals and the weighting population located below the minimum threshold of powers. (Hutmacher et Bottani, coord. 2005:9)The second dimension, where are your focus remaining 14 indicators, cover differences which may arise in the fields of education, socio-economic context in which they operate the education system, the process advisory-educational internal results of the educational system and the results of its foreign affairs. Until these indicators system is the first to address problem explicitly equity in education and proposes to a measure of comparative perspective between more education systems.

In addition to international instruments by which it can be evaluated the system(s) of education, many countries have established their own systems with measurement/evaluation. Romania is no exception.

In 2005, a team of Romanian researchers in the area of education has drawn up a national System of Indicators for Education (SNIE) which is compatible with European statistical system built by EUROSTAT. Like other systems, assessment tools, measurement and SNIE, has been created in order to support the authorities in the evaluation of the educational system but, in equal measure, it is addressed to all those involved in the field. The system uses different sources of data - exhaustive surveys on education units, AMIGO, surveys on continuing vocational training (FORPRO), investigation carried out by UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat through a questionnaire UOE representing a system of collection of data from different countries(Bârzea, coord.2005: 14) In 2005, the report on the state of the educational system - document drawn up annually by the authorities in the industry - the use of this assessment tool.

The system is structured on the following components (Barzea, coord.2005): context education ;access and participation in education and training;quality and efficiency of education and training; the results of the educational system, and the results of education and training.

For the purpose of these systems of indicators is to permit comparisons both between education systems as well as inside systems on different components, we notice that the same indicators or the same dimensions are to be found in at least two of them or even in all. The option for a system or another of indicators depends on the lens that he proposes the assessor, the data at its disposal. In this article we will use those indicators which reveals complementary of the two dimensions undergoing analysis: equity and efficiency in education.

In general terms, equity in education is defined as "to give each of them what- must be" (Herbaut, 2011:53). Measurement difficulty equity in education comes from that, it should be laid down which needs of individuals in the field of education.

For the determination of this type the persons responsible for the needs of the education system but also researchers must take into account both of their interests, the possibilities for individuals as well as the current requirements and the prospect of the economy and society. Thus, the interests and the possibilities individuals of education must not be influenced by their social origin, membership of majority or from an ethnic minority, religious, etc. On the other hand, if in a few decades the ability to write and read was sufficient for socio-economic integration of the individual, at present only of holding these powers exposed individuals at risk of social marginalisation. In a society and a knowledge-based economy equity in education tends to extend including forms of continuing education. In other words, equity in education affects both what is going on with the guy inside the system - internal equity - as well as on the edges of external equity.

A equity system of education is considered that system "qui traite tous les éléves comme des égaux et qui vise à favoriser une société équitable, dans laquelle les biens essentiales sont distribuiés conformeéent aux règles de la justice et qui favorise la coopération sur pied d'égalité"(Hutmacher et Bottani, coord.2005:12) To determine how many equitably is a system of compulsory education are used indicators such as: the percentage students located below the minimum knowledge, school participation rate depending on the environment of residence, employment rate of the population as a function of the level of education attained etc.

In the early 60s two economists Americans - G. Beker and Th. Schultz - they've changed definitively perception of education: from consumer, education becomes a good investment. (Becker, 1997) The society but also the individual human being allocated time and money to the school in order to obtain benefits: the raising of the standard of living, improve the state of health and family life, getting a job a better paid job and safer, directing an positions socio-professional high etc. Efficiency of the educational system is, as a general rule, evaluation of the balance between investments of society and the individual and benefits obtained. As in the case of equity and effectiveness of the education system is the internal and external nature. For the measurement of effectiveness, traditionally use the indicators as well as school abandon rate, the rate of transition from one level to another of education, "the effect school" on the results of the students at different national and international testing etc. For external evaluation of the effectiveness of the educational system of attention is focused on the impact on the evolution of social educational and professional, the individual but also of the members of the family, the community to which it belongs: young people who are not covered by any type for education, training or occupation, the risk of poverty, the state of health of the population depending on the level of education, the employment rate, unemployment rate etc.

Results

In this article we proposed that principal objective to identify position it had the education system in Romania, in so far as is necessary to ensure equity and efficiency in education by reference to its own targets but also by comparison with other education systems in the EU. The premise that we are leaving is that equity and effectiveness in education are two dimensions complementary: a high level of equity shall entail and a high efficiency. Although it can be influenced by a number of special features of the education system (its structure, type of organization, the content of education etc.) the effectiveness in education cannot be achieved in conditions of inequitable. With regard to the education system in Romania, we should expect a low level of equity and, consequently, and at a low efficiency of the latter.

Discussion

Complementarity of the two dimensions of the educational system - equity and efficiency - is supported in a first stage of data that must we use to assess:

- data reflecting the results achieved by students in the school to assess internal equity and efficiency;
- data reflecting the impact that it has education on the level of living of the population, the type of occupation, the level of income, socio-economic situation of the household which belongs to the individual etc. to assess equity and external effectiveness of the educational system.

To highlight internal degree of equity of a system of education is the most frequently used the indicator "minimum level of knowledge". In general the minimum level of knowledge means holding those knowledge, skills, skills which not only protects organization/society man which they belong the additional costs, but rather, allow even obtaining positive effects on health, cooperation and cooperation, as regards compliance with the rules, to the standards governing the company etc. (Marinescu, 2001:38) When you discuss minimum level of knowledge to be learned by an individual, GERESE team is of the opinion that "whatever characteristics of the individual or social for a start, education systems have an obligation to

act necessary means to ensure that all to acquire those powers be considered for the development of each and of the company as a whole". (Hutmacher et Bottani, coord., 2005:110)

Table 1. The percentage students located below the minimun threshold of knowledge(%)

	2000	2008	2009
OCDE	21,3	24,1	20
Belgium	19	19,44	17,7
Bulgaria	40,3	51,1	41
Czech Republic	17,5	24,8	23,1
Denmark	17,9	16	15,2
Germany	22,6	20	18,5
Estonia	:	13,6	13,3
Irland	11	12,1	17,2
Greece	24,4	27,7	21,3
Spain	16,3	25,7	19,6
France	15,2	21,7	19,8
Croatia	18,9	26,4	21
Italy	:	:	:
Cyprus	30,1	21,2	17,6
Latvia	:	25,7	24,3
Lithuania	35,1	22,9	26
Luxembourg	22,7	20,6	17,6
Hungary	:	:	:
Malta	9,5	15,1	14,3
Netherlands	19,3	21,5	27,5
Austria	23,2	16,2	15
Poland	26,3	24,9	17,6
Romania	41,3	53,5	40,4
Slovenia	:	16,5	21,2
Slovakia	:	27,8	22,3
Finland	7	4,8	8,1
Sweden	12,6	15,3	17,4
United Kingdom	12,8	19	18,4
Iceland	:	21,5	22,5
Norway	14,5	20,5	16,8
Switzerland	:	32,2	24,5
Former Yug.Rep.of Macedonia	22,1	14,3	15,6
Turkey	17,5	22,4	14,9

Source: Report on education in the EU - the data from the assessments PISA (: no data available)

International program of evaluating knowledge, PISA, uses a scale of assessment divided into 7 levels, each level ii corresponds to a specific set of skills, knowledge in which the school is required to deal with it. All those who are located at level 2 or below this level are considered as students who do not have the minimum level of education, powers enabling them socio-professional integration.

From the point of view of PISA, this category of students should represent an alarm signal for the school system and to the society which they belong because they do not possess those powers enabling them in the future to participate in a manner efficient and productive in the life of society (PISA 2009:40).

We notice that the best results are recorded by the education system in Finland and the lowest by the education system in Romania. (Table 1). This means that a significant part of pupils in Romania will not be able to meet requirements of society and the economy if leave the education system it is essential to complete the compulsory education.

Table 2 Young people not in employment and not in any education and training by educational attainment (%)

	2007	2013
EU-28	13,2	15,9
EU-27	13,2	15,8
Belgium	13,0	14,9
Bulgaria	20,3	25,7
Czech Republic	11,6	12,8
Denmark	5,3(b)	7,5
Germany	11,6	8,7
Estonia	11,5	14,3
Irland	11,9	18,6
Greece	15,5	28,9
Spain	13,1	22,8
France	12,6	13,8(b)
Croatia	12,8	20,9
Italy	18,9	26,0
Cyprus	10,3	20,4
Latvia	13,7	15,6
Lithuania	10,1	13,7
Luxembourg	7,3	7,2
Hungary	15,3	18,8
Malta	13,7	11,1
Netherlands	4,9	7,1
Austria	8,9	8,3
Poland	14,4	16,2
Portugal	12,7	16,7
Romania	14,8	19,6
Slovenia	**8,2**	**12,9**
Slovakia	16,9	19,0
Finland	8,4	10,9
Sweden	7,9	7,9
United Kingdom	12,9(b)	14,7

Source: Eurostat, 2014 (b- break in time series)

The result of the test PISA confirmed in the medium and long term, the adverse effects of low level of internal equity of the educational system: students who are not to be found in the system of education and training but not on the labor market is one of the highest in Romania. What's more, over the period of time that has elapsed since the economic crisis start in 2007 and last year the share this section of the population has increased by almost 5 %. In Member States where the

education system is characterised by a higher level of internal equity, this percentage has remained the same (Sweden) or increased less than in the same period of time (Finland, for example).

In any society there are differences between individuals with regard to the level of income, living conditions, the type of occupation etc. These differences must, if not removed by school, then reduced influence school on the progress of their students. Upon completion of any level of education to the individual's social origin should not influence its chances to integrate social and occupational. We are talking in this case about the ability of the educational system to prove effectively - external efficiency.

Table 3 "The effect-school" on students' performance variation(%)

	Variation in inter-school students' performance	Variation in intra-school
OCDE	**41,7**	**64,5**
Belgium	61,7	55,8
Bulgaria	74,1	74,3
Czech Republic	49	51,1
Denmark	13,1	69,4
Germany	68	44,9
Estonia	18	64,6
Irland	32,4	80,4
Greece	54,8	64,2
Spain	19,5	69,8
France	w	w
Croatia	46,7	51,6
Italy	77,3	47,2
Latvia	21,5	59,9
Lithuania	16,1	60
Luxembourg	61,6	79,7
Hungary	67,5	33,7
Malta	59	32,3
Netherlands	64,5	51,4
Austria	18,3	79,3
Poland	29,6	59,9
Romania	**46,8**	**44,2**
Slovenia	47,8	35,8
Slovakia	34,5	52,7
Finland	7,7	80,7
Sweden	21,7	95,7
United Kingdom	32	77,2
Iceland	15,6	94,5
Norway	10,1	87,7
Turkey	75,4	37,5

Source: PISA 2009: 187 (I have selected only the data for the countries States UE) * w=no data available

PISA data shows that, for more than half of the students school of learning proves to be of great importance in the evolution of their education. At the level of all systems of education in the EU this type of factor - "the factor-school" - he didn't make their presence felt but act differently. In some states is even stronger among the difference between schools (Belgium, Bulgaria, Austria etc.) while in some of the others differences in the same schools are increasing concerns (Iceland, Finland, Luxembourg etc.) In the case of Romania, the differences between students are picked out at inter-school than intra-school. But,regardless of the situation - either that we are talking about the differences within the same school or differences between schools - conclusion is that education system in which this type of variation is high is a system with a low internal efficiency.

Between the level of education reached by a person and the level of education of the latter has always been a direct relationship: the higher the level of education is higher the chances of having an occupation which is safer, more well paid, with a level atfrom prestige are larger. On the other hand, it is also one of the main reasons for which individuals allocate time and money education.Such investment requires and risks: the diplomas, even when evidence testify to the completion of a high level of education, does not guarantee than access to competition for employment, not to get him.

Table 4 The employment rate on the basis of the highest level of education reached(%)

	ISCED 0-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-8
Eu-28	43,9	67,9	81,7
EU-27	43,8	67,7	81,7
Belgium	37,5	65,3	81,0
Bulgaria	27,8	63,6	80,7
Czech Republic	22,0	72,4	82,5
Denmark	54,3	77,2	86,1
Germany	53,2	76,9	87,5
Estonia	35,5	69,7	82,3
Irland	35,4	60,7	79,2
Greece	38,9	46,9	68,2
Spain	43,2	55,2	74,1
France	42,9(b)	66,3(b)	81,4(b)
Croatia	42,2	62,6	75,7
Italy	25,6	51,9	74,2
Cyprus	40,5	62,4	76,2
Latvia	31,7	65,6	84,2
Lithuania	17,1	63,0	87,6
Luxembourg	43,2	65,3	82,9
Hungary	27,2	63,7	78,9
Malta	48,8	68,3	86,6
Netherlands	58,1(b)	76,9(b)	87,4(b)
Austria	48,3(b)	77,1(b)	85,9(b)
Poland	22,4	61,6	82,3
Portugal	55,2	64,6	76,7

Romania	42,1	64,0	81,7
Slovenia	33,7	62,9	82,4
Slovakia	15,8	64,6	74,7
Finland	39,7	65,6	83,8
Sweden	45,5	80,3	87,3
United Kingdom	53,4	71,7	83,9
Iceland	71,5	83,8	90,0
Norway	44,0	52,4	73,7
Switzerland	62,6	80,0	88,8
Former Yug.Rep.of Macedonia	56,1	79,5	88,7
Turkey	28,4	52,4	67,5

Source: Eurostat, 2014

Eurostat data shows that in all the countries in which they have been collected data, persons who have a high level of education have a rate higher than employment compared with people with low level of education. This means that education systems are characterised by a high level of foreign equity. Difference between states in terms of employment rates depending on the level of education achieved is due to the special characteristics of the educational system in terms of the mode of organization, structure, content type etc. but and the extent of socio-economic development. But, even under the conditions in which the level of socio-economic development of Romania is much lower than that of Germany or Great Britain, for exemple, we notice that the level of education achieved is as important and for Romanians and Germans or British.

Occupation it is very important not only for an individual, but also for the household which he/she belongs to that means a source of income by which it cover expenses with different services between which and education.

Table 5 Risk of poverty rate by level of education(%)

	ISCED 0-2	ISCED 3-4	ISCED 5-6
EU-27	15,0(e)	7,9(e)	3,7(e)
Belgium	15,1	5,6	2,1
Bulgaria	35,5	6,4	1,7
Czech Republic	9,5	3,5	1,8
Denmark	9,4	3,5	4,8
Germany	23,5	10,5	6,8
Estonia	17,8	11,6	1,7
Irland	-	-	-
Greece	16,5	7,7	3,6
Spain	12,3	8,2	6,2
France	-	-	-
Croatia	-	-	-
Italy	15,4	7,1	2,3
Cyprus	19,0	3,9	0,8
Latvia	15,4	8,9	2,0
Lithuania	11,1	6,1	3,7

Luxembourg	8,6	4,3	1,2
Hungary	14,2	5,8	1,0
Malta	12,9	6,6	3,0
Netherlands	8,4	6,1	2,3
Austria	13,0	4,1	2,9
Poland	17,5	9,9	1,6
Romania	12,8	6,8	2,4
Slovenia	28,5	10,0	0,7
Slovakia	15,5	6,2	1,2
Finland	15,9	5,3	2,8
Sweden	16,0	8,3	2,1
United Kingdom	11,0	2,9	2,7
Iceland	11,7	8,4	1,9
Norway	0,6	2,9	(z)
Turkey	10,5	3,1	6,1

Source: Eurostat, 2014 (e: estimation)

It is found that, according to Eurostat data, as well as on the whole, in the EU-28, as well as the level of education is higher, the risk of poverty is further reduced.

In current society, knowledge-based, it is not sufficient to be a graduate of a level as well as higher education, but also requires regular updating of the knowledge, skills, competences. Changes in the level of science and technology are so frequent and is conducted at a fast that what and endorse a student at the beginning of a school cycle, can become exceeded at its completion. Participation in courses of lifelong learning, in the learning process throughout the life is a solution to avoid marginalisation social and economic situation. In these circumstances, the education systems will be required to prepare individuals who possess the ability to learn by themselves, to adapt to changes.

Since 2005 the EU is conducted at the Adult Education Survey (AES) witch took part 20 EU member states, EFTA and candidate countries. EU- wide average rate of adult participation in formal and non-formal education is 34,9%, however, considered separatley, states participating in the survey have from 73% in Sweden and 7% in Romania.(AES, 2011:11) AES date confirms theories of social reproduction: the education level of person is higher the more likely it is to continue educational and vocational training or return to education and training system whernever deemed necessary. At EU-28 level, only 2% of adults who have a low level of education (ISCED 0-2) participating in formal education and training compared to 12% of type in the have level (ISCED 5-6). Such differences are maintained in each country participating in the investigation. In Romania, adults with low education participation records 0,2% the middle level (ISCED 3-4) by 3,5% and those with high level of education (ISCED 5-6) records an attendance of 8,4%.(AES, 2011:15)

All data provided in question and their analysis on the basis of the indicators belonging to various systems of indicators reveal the fact that, for a system of education is fair and a system of effective education. Although a large part of the differences between Member States, both those related to education systems as well as those which affects socio-economic situation, is also reflected on the level of equity and efficiency in education, they do not influence complementarity between the two dimensions. With regard to the education system in Romania, analysis of the data confirmed hypothesis to where we started: the performance educational (internal and external efficiency of the system) are low compared with other EU states-28 and for the level of equity of internal and external system is reduced.

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Homelessness in Romania – Challenges for Research and Policy

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Abstract

The paper is dedicated to the analysis of homelessness in Romania, in its transformations during transition, as well as the dynamic of the set up aiming to tackle it. The wider context of the analysis is twofold: (i) for comparative purposes, the problem of homelessness worldwide is mainly addressed at the level of measurement methods and policies; innovative measurement techniques and programs implemented overseas are mentioned, in order to understand how the Romanian policies and research compare, and to highlight the range of development opportunities ahead; (ii) the various factors contributing to the occurrence of the social problem are put under scrutiny; homelessness is approached as a structural failure of the society, i.e. an extreme limit of the social inclusion and social development strategy, rather than an individual rebuff. The paper offers an understanding of the factors shaping life trajectories of homeless people. Researches show that family events play a prominent role (divorce, separation, eviction by the household members). The loss or inability to procure a dwelling (as in the case of youth exiting the social protection system) represents also crucial personal event, with a major explanatory role for homelessness. These factors are far more important than poverty per se, as many of the studies show. The paper profiles the multidimensional nature of the social exclusion of the homeless: lack of adequate and sufficient food, repeated sexual, physical and psychological abuses, chronic diseases, discrimination and stigma, total lack of access to social services, lack of identity papers and other categories of interrelated problems. Researches suggest that the phenomenon of homelessness has become acute in Romania, reaching at least its second proliferation wave, as some of the post-revolutionary homeless have given birth to offspring of their own, while the institutional capacity has been almost inexistent for a long time and it is still far insufficient, in conditions of uncertainty regarding the real size and nature of the phenomenon. Most of the intervention capacity is shaped as emergency response to crises situations. The "invisibility" of the phenomenon for the society has been increased by the lack of credible administrative data or research estimates. Interviews conducted by the author complement the scarce supply of recent literature on homelessness, in an attempt to bring this social problem into the focus of research and policy.

Keyword: homelessness, measurement method, social policy

Defining homelessness

Homelessness has been acknowledged by democratic societies as a major social problem quite recently, in the late 70s - early 80s (Jencks, 1994; Dan, Serban & Grigoras, 2008). The phenomenon was previously perceived as a marginal one, while the blame for living in the streets was put on the shoulders of the homeless, whom were believed to suffer from personal deficiencies obstructing their normal social integration pathway (Anderson, 1923; O'Connor, 1963; Wiseman, 1970; Cook, 1975; Digby, 1976). The concept of homelessness has gradually widened its significance in the last decades, from its initial meaning of rooflessness to a more comprehensive concept, including the dimensions of unsecure and improper housing (O'Sullivan, Busch-Geertsema, Quilgars & Pleace, 2010). Currently, the European Typology on Homelessness and Housing Exclusion (ETHOS), developed through research of the European Observatory on Homelessness and adopted by the European Federation of National Organisations working with the Homeless (FEANTSA) is referenced in most European countries, and beyond, as the main conceptual tool in defining homelessness, although with various amendments from one study to another. Originally, the research team analyzed homelessness in the framework of three "domains" (Edgar, Doherty & Meert, 2004), i.e. the physical one, which refers to the actual type of housing/living place, the legal domain and finally the social domain (as displayed in Table 1), and integrated in this analyses seven categories of homelessness: rooflessness, houselessness, insecure and inadequate housing, inadequate housing and social isolation within a legally occupied dwelling, inadequate housing and insecure housing. ETHOS was later developed from this model for operational purposes (Table 2) while an even more reduced and simplified version, called ETHOS LIGHT, refined further the conceptual model in order to respond to measurement concerns at the level of the EU countries.

Although the definition derived from this theoretical approach constitutes the mainstream academic perspective of homelessness, and has reached also widespread consensus among policy-makers, the limitations at the level of measurement methods lead to research being confined to much narrower populations (less categories) than the ETHOS

definition would require. For instance, the recommendations of the European Commission and Eurostat for the 2011 national censuses, which were envisaged to include homeless, referred only to the categories of "roofless" and part of the "houseless" in the ETHOS typology, ignoring all the other categories related rather with the risk of becoming homeless. The EC guidance (Baptista, Benjaminsen, Pleace & Busch-Geertsema, 2012) highlighted the following categories: (i) rooflessness or primary homelessness, namely unsheltered persons living in the streets and (ii) persons with no regular accommodation or switching accommodations and person benefiting from residential services for the homeless. The recommendations proposed by the UNECE/EUROSTAT report for the 2010 census (United Nations, 2006) are also narrower than the EHOTS conceptual framework. The definition of homelessness refers to people sleeping rough or in buildings which were not designed for human habitation, in emergency centres, or night shelters, in emergency accommodation in hotels, guest houses or bed and breakfast, in hospitals due to a lack of decent shelter or in accommodation temporarily provided by friends or relatives because of the lack of a permanent place to stay. Most of the countries adopted for the censuses even narrower definition of homelessness: while sleeping in the streets or in emergency housing was widely considered, immigrants and institutionalized individuals with no accommodation available were ignored and some countries din not count the beneficiaries of longer-term services for the homeless (Baptista, Benjaminsen, Pleace & Busch-Geertsema, 2012).

Despite delays in adopting ETHOS, national divergences at the theoretical level and differences in the capacity of the statistical systems to estimate homelessness, one could consider this definition as the main reference research-wise. Adopting it in various national contexts does not imply immediate commitment in reporting based on it; the concept of "intelligent segmentation" (Cordray, 1997) could be put to use, i.e. carrying on studies in the theoretical framework of ETHOS while reporting only components of the broad definition of homelessness in order to ensure consistency across countries.

Research on homelessness

The understanding of homelessness has shifted in recent years towards a more structural approach, with individual characteristics being considered as well in order to differentiate among various pathways to homelessness. Most of the research analyzes the phenomenon as a dynamic interaction between individual characteristics and structural change (Cloke, 2010), in the paradigm of what specialists have called the "new orthodoxism" in this domain (Pleace, 2010). This type of balanced approach has become popular with the 1995 research of Avramov who argued that homelessness is associated with monetary insufficiency and lack of access to housing but also triggered in many cases by individual traumatic events.

As in the case of poverty and social exclusion, homelessness needs to be understood in the light of the wider processes in the society and researched as a multidimensional process. The size and nature of homelessness is directly linked with housing policies in at least two ways: (i) the absence of housing policies or their progressive character is likely to boost the number of people becoming homeless (ii) the policies regarding social, transitory and emergency housing directly affect the capacity to alleviate homelessness. Some research (Barlow & Duncun, 1994) has aimed to place housing policies in the wider framework of the welfare regimes developed by Esping-Anderson (1990). Barlow and Duncun identified an additional welfare regime to the liberal, corporatist and socialist democratic one in the original theoretical framework of Esping-Andersen, namely the category of rudimentary regimes, characterizing southern Europe, with limited or no intervention in the housing sector and more likely to promote self-help. The decreasing values of the indicators on social housing, correlated with the lack of other housing policies dedicated to the worst off, place Romania in the category of "rudimentary regimes". Research (Culhane & Byrne, 2011) shows that housing vulnerability has increased in most of the European countries and worldwide during recent decades, as a result of the marketisation of the housing provision, decreased stock of public and social houses. Unemployment, low education and health problems are also strongly associated with the pathway to homelessness. However, less evidence is available on the effectiveness of these services for homeless.

Cross-sectional surveys tend to be the most widespread research methodology utilized in homelessness research. Yet, in the recent years great emphasis has been placed on the need for longitudinal studies in order to understand the pathways into homelessness and also the trajectories into and out of homelessness. In a recent study (Chamberlain & Johnson 2011), the authors identify five ideal typical routs into adult homelessness: housing crises, family breakdown, substance abuse, mental health and young-to-adult. They also argue that people on different pathways deal differently with the fact that they belong to the homeless sub-culture. This dynamic analysis contributes to the understanding of why people on some pathways remain homeless for longer periods of time than others with a different personal history (Clapham, 2005).

Quantifying the homeless

Despite the rich corpus of literature on the issue of homelessness, quantifying the phenomenon remains an important challenge both at the theoretical level and in the practice of most of the countries carrying on systematic assessments of the phenomenon. In the USA, the authorities use snapshot counts in order to determine the size of the homeless population. The authorities (state level or municipality level) use a crosscheck survey including electronic administrative records for people in accommodation for homeless and street counts conducted by outreach workers and volunteers (Homeless Research Institute, 2014). Although variations are observed across communities and over time, it is the most reliable estimate of people experiencing homelessness in the United States. In the 2011 Census, European countries employed different methodologies for counting the homeless: headcounts were used in some of the countries, while in others daytime homeless services provided figures on people living in rough conditions; some countries distributed census questionnaires through NGOs while others combined this approach with direct counting; some countries used the same questionnaire for the homeless as for the general population while others used specific questionnaires.

Theoretically, there are three main instruments used to measure homelessness: (i) surveys, which can sample homeless population, housing needs or other aspects of the homelessness problem, (ii) registers: municipalities, NGOS or other types of services dedicated to homeless; (ii) censuses. In some approaches, the help of specialists is put to use in order to estimate the size of the population while others attempt to produce samples, which can be inferred for the overall population. The main methodological problem is that the homeless are an elusive population. One way to surpass the methodological difficulties and to minimize the costs of large sample surveys is to use the capture-recapture method (Fisher, Tuner, Pugh & Taylor, 1994; Sudman, Sirken and Cowan 1988). The method consists of two or more consecutive or independent simultaneous counts used to infer the overall population from the difference observed in the captures. The method has its own limitations as it relies on a series of assumptions that are difficult to withhold in the case of homelessness, namely the homeless population should remain stable during the implementation of the survey, the probability should be the same for every member of the population and the captures should remain independent (Williams, 2010).

However, in order to find out if the phenomenon has a chronic character for a concentrated population or a temporary one for a wide population, longitudinal studies are required, using panel surveys or retrospective questions.

Intervention models

Worldwide, there are two main perspectives regarding the intervention models best suited for the homeless, (i) one advocating gradual assistance for the integration, starting with emergency health support and sheltering, continuing with transitional accommodation and various service provision and culminating with housing provision and labour market /social integration, and (ii) another perspective promoting the model of abrupt change and immediate access of homeless to more permanent residential solution. The first perspective might be labeled as the traditional thinking paradigm, or linear model of intervention, and was criticized as being too prescriptive in terms of imposing a model for social integration and housing sustainability. The second still struggles to persuade researchers of its merits and has benefited from the experience of limited pilot projects and programs, among which the best known is the Housing First, the USA based program offering permanent, affordable housing as quickly as possible for individuals and families experiencing homelessness, and then providing the supportive services in order to avoid return into homelessness. The three successive Housing First Programs have offered a substantial supply of housing units, have promoted client choice, have complemented housing with a wide range of supportive services like comprehensive mental health services, medication, as well as support for independent living skills and permanent care. Housing first models lead to higher rates of housing retention but are not equally successful in improving the condition of the beneficiaries in other areas like health or occupation and their generalization potential is contested as they involve high management costs (Groton, 2013). The gradual versus abrupt models of intervention has been also called the "staircase" versus "elevator" paradigms (Johnson & Teixera, 2010).

Recent literature stresses out also that increased differentiation among various types of homeless people and homelessness histories requires increasing personalized support, since services can not be equally relevant for all beneficiaries. For instance, the provision of food, clothes, access to clean water and laundry facilities may be valuable for those with no accommodation while entitling homeless to a house may require a different type of services altogether. The growing importance of prevention measures (Pawson & Munro, 2010) leads to an even larger array of measures and services for tackling homelessness. Table 3 offers both a brief account of the typical services employed for homeless people and the logic of intervention in a sequential manner, with ensuring an independent life as the final point. Another classification puts forward the following broad types of services (European Commission, 2007):

- Accommodation for homeless people - eg. emergency shelters, temporary hostels, supported or transitional housing

- Non-residential services for homeless people - eg. outreach services, day centres, advice services etc.

- Accommodation for other client groups that may be used by homeless people. eg. hotels, bed and breakfast, specialist support and residential care services for people with alcohol, drug or mental disorders

- Mainstream services for the general population that may be used by homeless people, eg. advice services, municipal services, health and social care services

- Specialist support services for other client groups that may be used by homeless people, eg. psychiatric counselling services, drug detoxification facilities.

One theoretical flaw of all the models of intervention is that they insufficiently deal with invisible /hidden homelessness. There are several evaluations stressing that homeless people often do not access or leave local authority offices without receiving meaningful advice and assistance (XXX). It is not clear, for instance, to what extent a "hidden homelessness" is present in Romania, namely people who are not registered in the records of the police (and part of them will not appear in the records of the census as well) and may not even be listed in the records of the relevant NGOs.

The selection of beneficiaries for integration services – housing, employment, education and, in some degree, health services and counseling services – does not focus on the worst off the homeless but rather on the better off, regarded as having a higher potential for moving towards more independent living (Johnson & Teixera, 2010).

Homelessness in Romania

Homelessness became chronic over the last two decades in the context of marginalization by policy makers, lack of research data and solid analysis. New mechanisms for the abandonment in the streets have emerged, like exiting the child protection system, restitution of nationalized houses or homelessness as a result of real estate scams. For other types of pathways into the streets, such as family breakdown or domestic violence, solutions for the prevention of homelessness have not been provided. Some studies talk about the emergence of a generation of children born in the streets (according with a 2014 Save the Children research, almost 1/3 of the adults living in the streets have a more than 10 years long history of homelessness – they are the former street children). Both the public welfare and NGOs have a reduced capacity to intervene on the issue, most often focused on emergency aid.

In Romania, there is a serious lack of statistically robust quantitative studies. The few studied carried on are not based on survey data with statistically representative samples. There have been several attempts to offer estimates of the size of homelessness in Romania, usually based on figures reported by the local authorities, with no real control of the researchers over the method used in this purpose by each municipality (Dan, 2007). A series of approximations carried on in 2007, using this type of research design, estimated a number ranged between 11,000 and 14,000 homeless at the national level. Other estimates, exclusively from administrative sources (Ministry of Regional Development and Public Administration, 2008), suggest a much lower figure, about 4,000 homeless people in the country in 2008. While the census has collected information on homeless, with the help of the police as well, it is expected to return much lower estimates than the real situation, as it was done with the support of the coercive institutions and it was not designed specifically in the purpose of estimating homelessness.

Most homelessness is concentrated in large cities. An estimate for Bucharest widely quoted during the last 15 years has been issued by the Medicines sans Frontiers Romania (1998), - later on Samusocial -, using a type of count-recount procedure and refers to 5,000 homeless people only in the capital city. The registers of the same Samusocial NGO include more than 4,000 individual beneficiaries of the day care services for homeless in Bucharest since 1997.

There are no official figures on the number of children and young people living on the streets. In 2009, an estimate of the homeless children and youth in, Bucharest, Brasov and Constanta, three of the largest cities, has been released (Lazar & Grigoras, 2009). The number of children and youth identified amounted to about 1,400. The vast majority of these children are in the capital city, more than 1,000. Less than half are children (0-17 years), most of them being young people aged 18-35. Children and young people living with family and working on the street is only about one third in Bucharest, while in other cities this category is overwhelming. Effectively living on the streets for long periods of time seems to be a rather specific situation for the children and youth in the capital city.

Various estimates show that the vast majority of homeless people, i.e. more than 80%, are men, which is consistent with findings in other countries. The level of education is low: almost half have completed at most lower secondary schools and vocational schools. A large part of homeless have medical problems but access to health services is low. In the 2008

research (Dan, 2008), post-institutionalized children and youth were among the largest group of homeless along with children exiting the system (23.4%). A common homelessness trigger were family events such as divorce, separation, arguing with family members, parental abandonment, evacuation by the family of the husband / wife after the death or expulsion of a family member (29.2%). Selling the house and spending money afterwards was also a quite prevalent situation (15.3%). Other mechanisms more often mentioned for the loss of the house were the restitution of nationalized houses and dispossession by scam (about 5% each). One can distinguish two main categories: (i) young people exiting the institutions of the special child protection system and (ii) individuals/ families in the streets as result of a major negative personal or family event or direct loss of the house.

Life on the street is associated with serious health problems, chronic malnutrition, school dropout and illiteracy (about 50%), physical abuse and sexual abuse (usually beginning in the family and continued in the streets), stigma and discrimination, limited access to social services (education, health, social assistance), use of drugs or chemical solvents (Dan, 2008). Among homeless, chronic diseases and mental illnesses are more common than among the overall population. Homeless people have sporadic access to food and water. Lack of identity papers is a common problem. The prospect of employment or even work by the day and is very low due to poor hygiene and social networking capabilities. Research has consistently shown that homelessness often has detrimental effects on both physical and mental health and well-being. There is also evidence that the life expectancy of single homeless people may be significantly less than people who have never experienced homelessness.

The in-depth interviews conducted over 6 months in 2013 by the author with 23 homeless people receiving the support services of the Samusocial center revealed that:

-Many of the interviewees come from residential centers or from socially disorganized families

-For the interviewees growing up in families with no major social vulnerability, there is one crucial event triggering the trajectory leading to homelessness: sickness, divorce, loosing the house as a result of the restitution of the nationalized dwellings, scamming with houses etc.

-The better off layer of the homeless population, i.e. those accessing on regular basis the scarce offer of social services dedicated to this social category, usually resent night shelters and access them only as last resort facilities, on account of reported violence and thievery

-Even the "better off" more active homeless population does not access social services they are entitled to, such as social aids, free of charge health services, pensions etc.; even though these are individuals who manage to restrain a certain degree of social autonomy, as a result of small occasional incomes and relying on NGO support, they do not equally profit from the mainstream social services

-All the interviewees declared that it is impossible for them to find steady formal type of work; this finding is also supported by the fact that the representatives of the NGO hosting the discussions were able to identify only a few cases of successful labour market integration among their beneficiaries over time a long period of time – 5-10 years; this is to be interpreted with caution, as the Samusocial workers were fully aware only of the beneficiaries with whom they had a closer and repeated collaboration; the number of successful employment stories might be slightly higher among the thousands of people accessing the NGO services over time

-There is a widespread sense of personal freedom, which more integrated citizens might label as misperceived "freedom" which the homeless associate with their "lifestyle" and which is an important challenge for any intervention model

-Homeless people who are not in the streets stay in temporary accommodation – night shelters, private entrepreneurship initiatives for the accommodation of poor population, hostels, shared rent in low value areas such as ghettoes - as long as possible in the absence of more long-term residence; there is a tendency for this shelters and other transitional services to become almost permanent accommodation

-Some of the homeless people have experienced emigration episodes – contribution of remigration to homelessness in the recent years might be a valuable research topic for the future

The "Survey of defining socio-demographic indicators of the homeless people" (Badea, 2008), in which the content of the Samusocial files of 1054 homeless was evaluated during three years - 2006 – 2008), found that:

-73% (770 cases) of the respondents are male and 27% (284 cases) were female.

-69% (727 cases) of the subjects had their last home in Bucharest and 31% (327 cases) of them are from other localities.

-52% of the analyzed group is the people in the age range 30-49 years (30-39 years - 24% and 40-49 years - 28%).

-65% (680 cases) of the subjects did not have identity documents, being practically unable to access certain minimum rights of social protection (social dining, income support, health care).

-A wide range of options are used as overnight accommodation venues, the most important being: staircases - 19% improvised shelters - 18% regularly hosted knowledge - 12%, stations - 9%, parks - 8%.

-The main financial sources of income are the occasional (undocumented labor, "black"), begging - 12% pension - 9%. There are people who say they have no source of income - 13% and 2% of subjects (16 cases in 1054) said they are lawfully employed and have a monthly salary.

-37% of subjects had secondary education and the same percentage is also found for those with primary education

While homelessness has become chronic, solutions are scarce. For instance, at the level of the country, there are only 14 available services for homeless children and youth (day-care centers, day and night shelters) with a capacity of 142 places, located in several cities: Brasov, Cluj, Bucuresti, Alba-Iulia, Constanta, Arad, Galați.

Areas for improvement in Romania

Policies and research related to homelessness in Romania are critically underdeveloped. In the first post-communist years, the novelty of the phenomenon and the relatively low number of individuals living in the streets have contributed to the marginal interest shown by the decision-makers in the alleviation of the problem. Not much improvement has been achieved since, despite the considerably larger incidence reached by the phenomenon.

Research

Assessing homelessness at the national level and in major cities is needed, in order to start shaping adequate policies. Although homelessness is elusive to measuring, comprehensive information systems can be built on multiple data sets, extracted from registries and surveys. Creating a system for recording and monitoring homelessness requires collaboration between public institutions and NGOs. In Romania, for the moment, solid data sources are lacking on all these areas.

Thematic surveys should provide estimates of the number of homelessness and types of homelessness, causes and effects of the phenomenon as well as needs and opportunities for social reintegration.

Dedicated indicators built into monitoring systems at the national level, such as the national social inclusion indicators dataset (Briciu & Grigoras, 2004) has , depend on the availability of data. Research has to provide also a more rigorous answer on the causes of homelessness in Romania, in order to understand which social groups are at risk. Special monitoring indicators should be developed in the area of risk prevention, e.g. the share of poor population spending more than half of the income on housing or share of large overcrowded households with distant relatives and non-family members.

Policies

Homeless people live on the edge of survival, with their fundamental right to life threatened on daily basis. This situation should call for action. The problem of homelessness has reached a critical level due to the combination of its chronic aspect and prolonged lack of adequate support. It is expected that in recent years, during the economic crisis, a higher number of people were thrown into the streets (Samusocial, 2013). The emergency response has an insufficient coverage, in terms of food or emergency shelter, at least in the cold periods of the year (e.g. in Bucharest there are around 1,000 places in shelter while most of the estimates indicate a larger number of homeless). Integrated interventions aimed at long-term social reintegration of homeless are rare, even in the NGO sector, and address a very limited group of beneficiaries. At the same time, there are no programs to prevent the loss of houses by people in extreme poverty or living in dysfunctional families.

A national strategy on homelessness should be developed in order to define the main objectives, like eradication of child homelessness, minimization of the numbers of entries into the homeless condition, granting of full emergency services, re-integration and housing policies in the area and so on. The overall goal should be to build a coordinated system for providing minimum support (food, emergency shelter, medical assistance) while developing response capabilities for social reintegration and early prevention. The anti-homelessness policies should be integrated across strategies and social policies initiated by the Romanian Government; an integrated institutional framework for intervention should be prepared.

Such a strategy should define the baseline situation and establish a monitoring system. Policies can be roughly classified in two categories: (i) policies designed for the prevention of risks, which are missing in the Romanian policy framework and (ii) policies for the alleviation of the phenomenon, which are massively under-developed. In the category of prevention, several types of interventions could be shaped using the limited amount of information already available on the mechanisms of falling in homelessness:

- Cessation of evictions, many of them illegally carried on in the past and without the will or the capacity of the local authorities to compensate the people in question with social housing programs, as required by the legal provisions

- Sustainable solutions for the people at high risk of losing the dwelling: people with no incomes and with high level of arrears for the housing maintenance

- A more responsible inventory and control of the illegal and improper settlements, with compensation measures available in the interest of the people inhabiting them

- Housing solution, integrated in a wider package of social services for activation, for the people leaving institutions like prisons, child-care residencies, asylums, hospitals

- Tackling social pathologies like addictions, juvenile delinquency, domestic violence, insufficiently addressed by the policies at the moment (Child's Protection National Strategy, 2014) and acknowledged in the literature to be some of the most frequent triggers of homelessness, should be carried on with a special attention of the residential status of the people affected by these phenomena

- A stock of emergency social houses has to be available for the people who recently lost their dwellings in order to prevent consolidation of homelessness

- Other areas of policy, like health, education, national and international migration policies or displacements policies have to streamlined with anti-homelessness policies

- Support for vulnerable lonely people, such as the elderly, the physically and psychologically impaired, against frauds and cheating

- In periods of crises, such as the economic breakdown recently occurred, policies should be especially concern with the dynamic of homelessness is often described considered a lagging phenomenon, i.e. it takes time for economic and housing trends to impact trends in homelessness

As far as the alleviation component is concerned, a step-by-step intervention plan would be needed at the national level in order to gradually move from emergency services to long-term integration programs. Services could be classified as emergency services (food, shelter, medical assistance, shelter), short-term services (issuing identity cards, re-entitlement to certain rights such as social assistance benefits, rehab services, reconnection with family members and friends) and long-term (housing, education, employment). Merely granting a shelter / a house creates another poverty trap, as proved by various places in Romania where granting social housing transformed the former homeless in residents permanently menaced with evictions on the grounds of unpaid utilities.

A special effort should be made in order to bring in the attention of the collectivity the phenomenon, gain public support and advocate for the abandonment of harmful practices (begging). The range of actions could cover:

- Increasing the capacity of intervention in the street to meet the basic needs for food and medical assistance

- Creating a network of shelters and emergency housing so that fully covers the needs especially during periods with low temperature values

- Developing of program for social reintegration

- Correlating the services dedicated to homeless in an integrated package: identification and registry, health care, social assistance (allowances), access to pensions, access to shelters and housing, access to education, access to employment opportunities.

- Increasing access of homeless to legal rights provided by laws such as the guaranteed minimum income, social exclusion law, the law of social economy and other legislative provisions deeming the homeless among eligible beneficiaries

Eradication of the homelessness of children should be a top priority in any kind of scenario for intervention.

In the area of housing policies, a reform should be launched. The construction of social houses practically collapsed after 1990 as a result of the massive withdrawal of state from its function of welfare provider. One could estimate that housing were cut down more severely than other social services. While in the 1998-2007 interval around 2,000 social were built per year, in the 2010-2013 only around 200 units were still built. This collapse was registered amid the falling of all types of housing policies.

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Tables

Table 1. Seven theoretical categories of homelessness

Conceptual category	Operational category	Physical domain	Legal domain	Social domain
Homelessness	1. Rooflessness	No dwelling (roof)	No legal title to a space for exclusive possession	No private and safe personal space for social relations
	2. Houselessness	Has a place to live, fit for habitation	No legal title to a space for exclusive possession	No private and safe personal space for social relations
Housing exclusion	3. Insecure and inadequate housing	Has a place to live (not secure and unfit for habitation)	No security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	4. Inadequate housing and social isolation within a legally occupied dwelling	Inadequate dwelling (unfit for habitation)	Has legal title and/or security of tenure	No private and safe personal space for social relations
	5. Inadequate housing (secure tenure)	Inadequate dwelling (dwelling unfit for habitation)	Has legal title and/or security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	6. Insecure housing (adequate housing)	Has a place to live	No security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	7. Social isolation within a secure and adequate context	Has a place to live	Has legal title and/or security of tenure	No private and safe personal space for social relations

Source: Edgar, 2004

Table 2. ETHOS – European typology on homelessness and housing exclusion

Conceptual category	Operational category	Living situation
ROOFLESS	1 People living rough	1.1 Public space or external space
	2 People staying in a night shelter	2.1 Night shelter

HOUSELESS	3 People in accommodation for the homeless	3.1 Homeless hostel
		3.2 Temporary accommodation
		3.3 Transitional supported accommodation
	4 People in a women's shelter	4.1 Women's shelter accommodation
	5 People in accommodation for immigrants	5.1 Temporary accommodation, reception centres
		5.2 Migrant workers' accommodation
	6 People due to be released from institutions	6.1 Penal institutions
		6.2 Medical institutions
		6.3 Children's institutions/homes
	7 People receiving longer-term support (due to homelessness)	7.1 Residential care for older homeless people
		7.2 Supported accommodation for formerly homeless persons
INSECURE	8 People living in insecure accommodation	8.1 Temporarily with family/friends
		8.2 No legal (sub)tenancy
		8.3 Illegal occupation of land
	9 People living under threat of eviction	9.1 Legal orders enforced (rented)
		9.2 Repossession orders (owned)
	10 People living under threat of violence	10.1 Police recorded incidents
INADEQUATE	11 People living in temporary/non-conventional structures	11.1 Mobile homes
		11.2 Non-conventional building
		11.3 Temporary structure
	12 People living in unfit housing	12.1 Occupied dwelling unfit for habitation
	13 People living in extreme overcrowding	13.1 Highest national norm of overcrowding

Source: Edgar, 2009, p.73

Table 3. Harmonised Definition of Homelessness – European Commission

Operational Category	Living Situation	Definition
People Living Rough	Public space / external space	Living in the streets or public spaces without a shelter that can be defined as living quarters
People in emergency accommodation	Overnight Shelters	People with no place of usual residence who move frequently between various types of accommodation
People living in accommodation for the homeless	Homeless Hostels Temporary Accommodation Transitional Supported Accommodation	Where the period of stay is less than one year

	Women's shelter or refuge accommodation	
People living in institutions	Health care institutions No housing available prior to Release	Stay longer than needed due to lack of housing
People living in nonconventional dwellings due to lack of housing	Mobile homes Nonstandard building Temporary structure	Where the accommodation is used due to a lack of housing and is not the person's usual place of residence
Homeless people living temporarily in conventional housing with family and friends (due to lack of housing)	Conventional housing, but not the person's usual place of residence	Where the accommodation is used due to a lack of housing and is not the person's usual place of residence

Source: European Commission, 2007

Negotiating boundaries: Gender and social identities in the Ottoman Christian communities; the case of divorces (1647-1923)

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to identify the negotiation of boundaries between the social identities of gender. This process focuses on the prevailing perceptions of the social role of the man and the woman. It attempts to identify the different reasons for seeking divorce between men and women and the integration of these differences in a social context and determine the qualitative characteristics of the gender ratio of women and men that is articulated by the invocation of divorce. This research has a historical character and focuses on the period from 1647 to 1923 and is realized within the Ottoman Orthodox Christian communities and the divorces issued by these. This study uses content analysis to examine divorces. The most significant source of data collection, for the content analysis, constituted published and unpublished Codes of Metropolises from the Ottoman Christian communities, such as the Metropolitan Codes of: Larissa:1647-1868, Mytilini:1705-1773, Veria:1825-1862, Triikalon:1828-1865, Moglenon & Florinas:1901-1909. The process of divorce was a different function of the Spiritual Courts within a predetermined law. Issues, like alimony after the dissolution of marriage, dowry cases, disputes arising as a consequence of dissolution of marriage or betrothal, are listed in the Codes of the Spiritual Courts. In this study, the gender is used as a social and cultural construction. Also, it is argued that the social gender identity is formed through a process of 'performativity', namely, through adaptation on the dominant social ideals.

Keywords: Divorces, Ottoman Christian Communities, Stereotypes, Gender Identities, Social Identities.

Introduction

The dissolution of marriage from divorces augmented in frequency, since the Restoration until the 20th century. The history of divorce became an issue for international literature (Stone, 1990; Phillips, 1991; Stone, 1993; Seymour, 2006). As Riessman (1990), suggested, gender is linked with different perceptions of what a marriage should provide and differences on reasons of divorces. In this study, gender (Mpakalaki, 1993, 1994 & 2013) is seen as a social and cultural construction (Rosaldo & Lamphere, 1974; Leacock, 1978; Ortner & Whitehead, 1980; Papataxiarchis & Paradellis, 1992; Skouteri-Didaskalou, 1991; Evans, 2003; Maruani, 2005; Kantsa, Moutafi&Papataxiarchis, 2010). At the same time it asserts that gender converses with the concepts of class, race or ethnicity (Lord, 2005; Moore, 2006) and that the sense of social gender identity is formed through a process of 'performativity', ie adjusting the dominator in given society ideals (Butler, 1997). Specifically, the aim of this study is to evaluate, within the specific framework of the Orthodox Christian communities of the Ottoman Empire (Papastathis, 1984), and with field focus the divorces issued from these, the process of negotiating the boundaries between the social identities of gender. A process which takes into account the prevailing perceptions about the social role of man and woman, as members of specific kinds of religious communities, these of Orthodox Christian Communities, as formed and administrated in the Ottoman Empire. For the Orthodox Church, in the period of our study (1647-1923) the legality of divorce is given, if there are specific statutory preconditions allowing the dissolution of the marriage up to two times (Papadakis, 2008; Academic Dictionaries and Encyclopedias, 2014). The legislative framework for the divorces, of the Ottoman Christian communities, is divided into three main periods: 1. Early judicial institutions in privileged communities (1647-1774): in 1453, after the conquest of Istanbul, Ottomans recognized the Orthodox Christian church the privilege of keeping the same law, as well as the judicial jurisdiction, on matters of family and inheritance law

(Paparrigopoulos, 1955: Pantazopoulos, 1947; Pantazopoulos, 1968). 2. Gradual establishment of the bourgeoisie (1775 - 1856): The organization of the ecclesiastical court was not uniform, it varied by district and determined by local customs and Regulations. The Orthodox church, apart from judicial powers, gained, with the passage of time dietary jurisdictions as well, which were recognised indirectly by the Ottoman power. (Pantazopoulos, 1947). In insular Greece, in some cases, thanks to privileges granted by the Sultan 'achtinamedes', Community Courts developed as well. (Siatras, 1997; Bakalopoulos, 1991; Zotos, 1938). 3. Development of the Community institutions and nationalism (1857-1923): The jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts, which were once widespread, limited during the period of Tanzimat, when the power went to institutional organized communities (Papastathis,1984; Theotokas, 1897). Attempts to homogenize the administration of justice by the Community courts occurred during the period of the Ottoman reforms, the General Regulations of the Patriarchate and the Synodical Circulars of 17 January 1891 and 31 January 1891. According to 'vezyriki Circular 17 January 1891' Patriarchal courts, the period of the Tanzimat reforms, were three: Spiritual Ecclesiastical Court, the Holy Synod and the Permanent Gross Council. The provincial ecclesiastical courts were two kinds: Spiritual and Gross introduced at the headquarters of the Metropolis. They judged first instances, the differences of Christians and also, on appeal, the judicial decisions of the first instance court cases, given in the courts of the bishops who belonged to the Metropolis. The courts were located in the headquarters of Metropolis and Bishops were set up in accordance with the customs on site and Regulations. The Provincial Spiritual Courts comprised of between two and four clerics, while the Metropolitan or his Commissioner presided. The Members of the Spiritual Courts were appointed by the on site Metropolitan, amongst the most educated clergy. The Spiritual Courts judged in camera. Their responsibilities were: on the betrothal, on the formation and termination of marriage, alimony after the dissolution of marriage, and on the issues related to marriage. The Gross Courts comprised of between five to six members of the populace and from one or more clerics. The members of the populace of these Courts were elected by the habitants of their region and the clerics were appointed by the Metropolitan and publicly judged the material matters falling under the jurisdiction of the Ecclesiastical Courts. These judicial matters related to wills, votive papers (vakfige), alimony after the dissolution of marriage, trachoma cases and dowry, disputes arising, as consequences of the marriage or betrothal dissolution or, intestate succession cases, demands of the parties, cases of legalization and adoption of childcases, issues of will and codicil, monastic disputes,custody and guardianship issues, issues its own clergy and monks, on the grounds that they were material differences. The divorce proceedings were a separate operation of Spiritual Courts which fell within an identified case, defined by the Circular on divorce of the years 1882 and 1894. The claim presented under Commercial Law (articles 1-2) in which was stated: treatment exposed dispute writings on duty. The jurisdiction of the ecclesiastical courts in matters of divorce included: a) separation from table and bed, b) the sentence of divorce, c) the reconstitution of a dissolved marriage. The separation from table and bed or otherwise, the local dimension of husbands was different from that in force in the Western Church. The Spiritual Court drew the grant within 15 days in order to create the conditions for reconciliation and if the deadline expired without achieving the desired result, the Court imposed 3, 6 or 9 months separation on them, defining the place of residence of the wife and requiring the husband to pay for the amount of time required for maintenance and for the maintenance of their children. The obtaining of the divorce was realised if the woman was invited three times in writing and refused to appear, assuming of course that there were compelling and legitimate reasons that justified the disjunction. In these cases the spiritual court could proceed to the obtaining of the divorce evenin absentia. But it must notify its decision to the woman and indicate that they had the right to request reopening. If they did not, then the divorce was considered intact and valid (Thetokas, 1897). In case of a marriage dissolution at fault with a man, the woman took back her dowry, the premarital donation and part of the estate of her husband, which was an amount equal to one third of the pre-nuptial donation (Proceedings of Holy Synod, 11 December 1869, Proceedings of Holy Synod, 25 October 1871). The laws under which the administration of justice was, were: a) The Rules of the Apostles, local and Ecumenical Councils, b) Roman law, Justinian, in the mean time per Vasilikois and Armenopoulou, c) conditions, volumes, sigils, notes,evidence of the Ecumenical Patriarchate, d) prevailing local customs and traditions and e) Ottoman commercial procedure, Annex of commercial law and the law on the capital of Civil Procedure (Thetokas, 1897).

Method

   As they testify the inquiring questions that were reported, the management of subject presupposes the coupling of two methods: a) the historical hermeneutics (Cohen &Manion, 1994) which develops the sources of the historical period and as well as, b) content analysis (Berelson, 1952; Kyriazi, 2011) of reasons of divorces that is included in the Code of Intellectual Courts (1901-1909). Tables developed for a more detailed and systematic presentation of quantitative data (Bell, 1993). This historical research was based on a random sample, determined by already existing data (Cohen & Manion, 1994), as a consequence cannot be evaluated as reliable (Bell, 1993) as to capture the whole picture of divorces of Orthodox communities in Ottoman Empire. This study, even without generalizable results, is a first attempt to approach

the issue in a wide geographical and temporal context. Also, research can reliably provide us important information about individual study areas.

Research subject

Particularly extensive is the geographical boundaries of research, designed to study exclusively Orthodox communities of the Ottoman Empire. Specifically, the study includes areas: a) insular Greece and specifically the area of the Aegean (Mytilene), b) from central Greece (Larissa and Trikala), and c) from Macedonia (Florina and Veria). These geographical regions of the Ottoman Empire, were divided into two categories: a) those who finally were included in the Greek State and are studied on the issue of divorces the period before their integration in Greece: Larissa (1647-1868) and Trikala (1828-1865) which were included in Greece in 1881, Mytilene (1705-1773), Veria (1825-1862) and Florina (1901-1909) included in Greece in 1912 (History of Greek Nation, 1977), and b) those who finally were included in Turkey as Adrianople (1856-1923), which is studied on the issue of divorces until the dissolution of the Ottoman empire and the establishment of modern Turkey in 1923 (Fragoulis, 2012), in which eventually forms the city. The period 1647-1911, which was chosen to study the divorces, spans four centuries, from the 17th century until the 20th. This period was divided according to distinct historical sections, on subperiods: a) 1647-1774 season early judicial institutions unprivileged communities, b) 1775 – 1856 period the gradual establishment of the bourgeoisie, and c) 1857-1911 after theTanzimat period of growth Community institutions and nationalism.

Materials

Research was based on primary sources of data, published and unpublished: a) unpublished: 1) Code of Daniel (1825-1862) Veria, 2) 'GAK, ABE 27 ΣΑΕ 198', Code of Decisions of Spiritual Court 1901-1909. His title is: 'Codex of Decisions'. 3) GAK, Historical Archive of Macedonia, GRGSA-IAM_REL003, Holy Metropolis of Adrianope [1856 – 1944]. Retrieved fromhttp://arxeiomnimon.gak.gr/. And b) published: 1) Spanos, A. (2006). Codex A´ of Holy Metropolis of Mytilene (18thcentury.). Mytilene: Publications of Holy Metropolis of Metilene, 2) Kaloussios, D. (2009). The Codex of Metropolis of Larissa, EBE 1472: 1647-1868. Larissa: Thessalian Calendar, 3) Nimas, Th. (2013). The B´ Codex Trikkis (Trikalon) or Codex Barlaam, number 287, The religious, social, economic and educational history of Trikala from 1828 to 1865. Trikala: Literary Historical Association (F.I.LO.S.) Trikala.

Results

The main aim of this study was to evaluate if divorces are an attempt of a renegotiation and reconstruction of gender identities and for this reason the examination of those divorces in the codes of the Metropolises is of exceptional interest. Inindividual research, goals attempted: a) the identification of different reasons for seeking divorce between men and women and the integration of these differences in social context, and b) the mapping of the qualitative characteristics of the gender ratio of women and men which was articulated by the invocation of the divorce.

Findings of Bishops

Divorces recorded in Codices:

1. Metropolis of Larissa (1647-1868):The total number of divorces in the code is 21 and extend over a period of 221 years (1647-1868). The average ie the submission of a recommendation for divorce is 0,09 a year.

2. Metropolis of Mytilini (1705-1773):The total number ofdivorces in the code is 28 and extend over a period of 68 years (1705-1773). The average ie the submission of a recommendation for divorce is 0.41 year.

3. Metropolis of Veroia (1825-1862): The total number of divorces in the code is 56 and extend over a period of 37 years (1825-1862). The average ie the submission of a recommendation for divorce is 0,66 year.

4. Metropolis of Trikkis (1828-1865): The total number of divorces in the code is 8 and extend over a period of 37 years (1828 to 1865). The average ie the submission of a recommendation for divorce is 0.21 year.

5. Metropolis of Moglenon and Florinas (1901-1909): The Spiritual Courts functioned from 1901 in Florina on Metropolitan Ioannikios ('GAK, ABE 27 ΣΑΕ 198', Code of Decisions of Spiritual Court 1901-1909. His title is: 'Codex of Decisions'), while the community (Iliadou-Tachou, 2003-2004; Iliadou-Tachou, 2004; Andreou & Iliadou-Tachou,2007) had already

established in 1905 on Metropolitan Anthimos (Iliadou-Tachou, 2001). The decisions of Spiritual and Gross Courts were recorded in the Code of Spiritual and Gross Courts of Metropolis Moglenon and Florina ('GAK, ABE 27 ΣΑΕ 198', Code of Decisions of Spiritual Court 1901-1909. His title is: 'Codex of Decisions'),The total number of divorces in the code is 32 and extend over a period of 9 years (1901-1909). The mean ie the submission of a recommendation for divorce is 3.55 year. The number seems excessive, not in proportion to the polulation (The Greek Orthodox community of Florina consisted, in accordance with the electoral list in1914-1915 in many communities: the population group was superior to that of Muslims who accounted for 54.2% of the total population, second largest religious group was the Christians who accounted for 42.8% of the population. The point, however, must be stressed that the group was split into the Orthodox community which recognized the jurisdiction of the Bishop Moglenon and exarchate community which was under the jurisdiction of the Bulgarian Exarch, although exarchikos Metropolitan did not exist in the city, but in relation to the cultural context of the region which distinguished: a) the asymmetry of gender relations, b) for the dominant discourse of the Church, which viewed divorce as a threat to the existence of society, and c) for traditional power structures within the family.

6. Metropolis of Adrianople (1856-1923): The total number of divorces in the code is 20 and extend over a period of 67 years (1856 to 1923). The average ie the submission of a recommendation for divorce is 0.29 year.

Finding on dissolution of Engagements

In Larissa we have a dissolution of Engagement (1752) due to the abandonment of fiancee. The dissolution was a request of the fiancee due to four year abandonment (Kaloussios, 2009).

In Mytilene we have a dissolution of Engagement (1759) due to the abandonment of fiancee. The dissolution was a request of the fiancee due to three year abandonment (Spanos, 2006).

In Florina we have a dissolution of Engagement (1907) due to the will of fiance. The dissolution of engagement was judged against the fiance,becauseof false accusations against the fiancee ('GAK, ABE 27 ΣΑΕ 198', Code of Decisions of Spiritual Court 1901-1909. His title is: 'Codex of Decisions').

In Adrianople we have a dissolution of Engagement (1893) due to will of fiancee (unknown reason), (GAK, Historical Archive of Macedonia, GRGSA-IAM_REL003, Holy Metropolis of Adrianople [1856 – 1944]. Retrieved from http://arxeiomnimon.gak.gr/).

Discussion

According to table 2, the gender distribution on 165 requests of divorces examined, suggests that the common request of divorce accounts only a percentage of 16,38%. It is clear that divorces were probably result of contest, in a percentage of (83,63%), between husbands. Furthermore, it is indisputable that on the one hand women represented the main percentage of requests, almost one to two requests (56%), and on the other hand men account for almost one per third of requests (30,30%). The percentages, of the 'gendered' requests of divorces, allow us to identify the divorces as 'female' and 'male'. However, the quantitative dominance of 'female' requests of divorce, against 'men' requests, does not allow us to identify divorce as feminine. Although, even the approximate equivalence-of-'female' and 'masculine' divorce, is given, it requires interpretation. We made the hypothesis, that could be interpreted on the basis that the man has a greater interest in preserving marriage, than the woman after marriage and we focus in this context in the spearhead of gender imbalance and with the institutional imposition of male hegemony. In contrast, the 'female' divorce predominance over the 'male', which should be mainly attributed to a dire relationship of women in this cultural context, is not necessarily attributed to a dynamic awakening. It is interesting to examine the main reason of a woman siking divorce. The main reason for woman divorces was 'abandonment' of the wife by the husband (37,50%), while 'abandonment' of the wife represented only the 16% of husband requests. The most common reason of 'female' divorces are dropping of women by their husbands, mainly due to migration, which is in line with the socio-cultural context of space. It is also interesting that abandonment of fiancee seems to be a significant reason for betrothal dissolution. Even so, the ratio of 'female' divorce indicate a female attempt to rebuild the social contexts within a new marriage after the 'abandonment'. The implementation of the provision of the Spiritual Courts, lies in the existence of a significant social need: the pursuit of a second marriage from the women's side, in order to survive. It is therefore obvious that the marriage which demonstrates the magnitude of asymmetry of gendered identities, serves in this case as a life boat for the weak social woman, which after the divorce, falls to new forms of dependency. Reasons for women seeking a divorce are usually due to: wife abuse (10,23%) and husband's inability to provide basic everyday expences (13,64%). Generally in divorces, it is seen that low living standards, renders unrealistic the establishment of alimoni, allowances etc. for the satisfaction of women persecuted, while it is clear that some of the

compromises that men accept, should be attributed to their inability to pay their own expenses, or alimony, due to a low social - economic status.The reasons for men seeking a divorce differ to those that women seek a divorce. It is also very important that men, in their turn, when requests divorces, use the social construction of gender in order to make sense of realities of gender relations in their daily life and to enhance their hegemony. Men claim management of the sexuality of women, denouncing adultery (24%), as well as their ability to perform housework (8%). Another parameter in 'male' divorces is the impossibility of childbearing women (10%). Having children is connected with the idea of masculinity, as this is perceived in specific cultural contexts. It is also, worth mentioning, that the religious differencies (Orthodox-schismatikos) act decisively: the 'female' divorces are easier when directed against schismatic spouse, something laid down by the case law, namely that the change of religion, and the accession for example in the exarchate of one of the spouses after marriage, is a cause for divorce. A general onservation would be that during the procedure of divorces the intervention of priests and notables is allowed, intervention is a kind of public opinion with witness features on outcome of the divorce. Neighbors finally function as witnesses and their opinion is weighty. The intrusion but the above mentioned, not only contributes to the fragmentation of the dominant discourse and the creation of alternatives, but borrows the same cultural components and replicates the hierarchy gender identities in the communities.

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Tables

Table 1. Number and requests of divorces

Metropolis	Years	Number of divorces	Average per year	Request of divorce		
				Husband	Wife	Common decision
Larissa	1647-1868	21	0,09	6	10	5
Mytilene	1705-1773	28	0,41	10	14	4
Trikkis	1828-1865	8	0,21	1	0	7
Moglenon & Florinis	1901-1909	32	3,55	12	19	1
Andrianople	1856-1923	20	0,29	8	12	-
Veroia	1825-1862	56	0,66	13	33	10
Total		165		50	88	27

Table 2. Percentages of the number of requests of divorces

	Number of divorces	Percentage of Divorces
Husband request	50	30,30%
Wife request	88	53,33%
Common decision	27	16,36%
Total	165	100,00%

Graph 1: Number of requests of divorces per men, women and a common decision
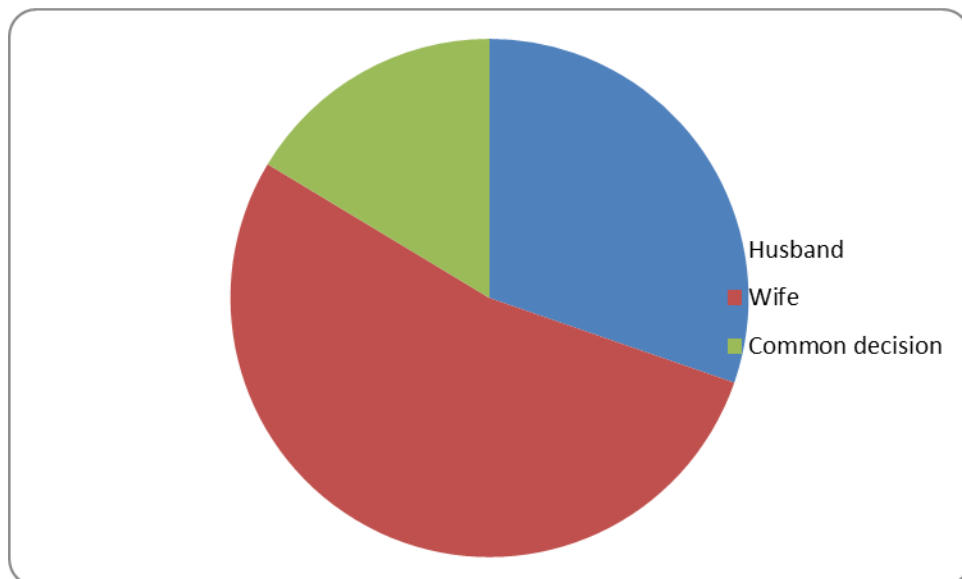
Multi-layer Aspects of Information Manipulation in the Intercultural Area

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Abstract

The reflections focus on various aspects of manipulation taking place in the cultural borderland between the majority and the minority. Information manipulation has been subject to exploration from two perspectives. On one hand it concerned activities of the minority trying to take advantage of the majority's lack of knowledge of the minority culture. Such situation combines lack of intercultural education with issues tackling international laws that provide protection for cultural (and religious) diversity. For this purpose, the analysis embraced results of research carried out within execution of Polish law procedures of dealing with imprisoned foreigners. In such circumstances the prison service staff are obliged to respect cultural (and religious) diversity. Nonetheless, the question to what extent they are familiar with the specificity of the foreigners' (for instance Muslim) cultures remains open. The second aspect of the analysis considered the opposite, i.e. when public authorities such as media manipulate the social majority in order to shape their opinion on diverse culture, consequently discriminating the minority. Islamophobic content promoted in public discourse often serves as tool of discriminatory practices, generating deformed image of the "other". Manipulating with islamophobia provides another perspective of this issue, hence the media content concentrated on islamophobic discourse on TV or Internet constituted the second aspect of exploration. The analysis embraced content that – relying on stereotypes and misconceptions – builds up distorted image of a cultural difference exemplified by Muslims.

Key words: interculturalism, intercultural education, manipulation, islamophobia, media, the prison system, prison

Introduction

The quality of social relations at the meeting point of different cultures remains a challenge for research in various fields of science. Moreover, it constitutes an essential area of generating new knowledge and experiences of the citizens of Eastern Europe, where migration processes are dynamising integration, legal and educational policies. USA or the countries of Western Europe display greater experience in establishing areas for diverse cultures, as a result of longer tradition of multicultural societies, to recall consideration for the integration efforts undertaken in France as early as in the 1930s (The League of Nations considered French policy as a modern role model at that time). Yet, despite number of such positive experiences, discrimination against various representatives of diverse cultures is palpable, although the conflict does not result from different approach to activation models but concerns integration policy (Kymlicka, 1995). For instance, British scholars emphasize the significance of this problem, hence according to A. Bloch assimilation of immigrants (including Muslims) by the British society in the 1970s backfired, as the culturally diverse not only opposed this process, but became subject to volunteer marginalization. Thus, in order to protect own diversity they failed to follow administrative efforts of assimilation, generating the source of racism symptoms as a result (Bloch, 2002).

Mutli-aspectuality of intercultural education in this regard is reflected in various scientific publications as well as quantitative and qualitative research projects. Therefore, economy, for instance, focuses on the issues of understanding American, European or Arabic world of business with paramount importance drawn to cultural factors, rather than accessibility of communication channels. It stems from the idea that synergy and understanding predominantly contribute to business efficiency and stability (Kung, 1997). Correspondingly, ethics of intercultural business and administration does not result from the quality of applied language, but from its culturally determined specificity and functions, particularly if

such diverse cultures as the European and Muslim are taken into account (Caputo & Heather & Crandall, 2012; Rubin 2011). Likewise, searching for intercultural synergy intersperses the world of global fashion, indicating changes in traditional Muslim clothing, as reflected in the fashion magazines such as „ELLE" or „Arabian Woman", mirroring the tendency of a specific evolution in fashion industry following interpenetration of Muslim and European traditions (Kilicbay & Binark, 2002).

Yet, European educational area seems to provide potentially conflict-generating discourse in terms of schooling, symbolism (such as the issue of religious symbols in Europe) and social power, to recall the case of banning hijab in France, Islamic education in Western Europe, or etc. (Shadid & Van Koningsveld, 2008).

The issues of intercultural relations are also reflected in the area of law and system of justice, which remains particularly precarious and conflicting as it entails the clash between trends of repressive versus educational policy towards prisoners (Werner, 2007; Pratt & Brown & Brown & Hallsworth & Morrison, 2005). It is even further challenging as far as culturally diverse foreigners breaching law are concerned. It is therefore worth to analyze the situation in cultural borderlands (intercultural areas) in the context of total institutions, as it then concerns not only formal or legal issues, but the procedures of dealing with foreigners subject to international and domestic legal regulations. This, however, does not imply that the practices and interpersonal relations (particularly in total institutions) follow these directives, involving not legal, but social problems. Legal guarantees for the protection of cultural identity, religious freedoms and customs can therefore bring about a dangerous area of manipulation. The minority, utilizing such guarantees, can take advantage of own cultural diversity to establish a privileged stand towards the majority. Such threat is particularly challenging within system of justice as it consequently rouses opposition towards the privileged position of the perpetrator, if such person demands own protection.

The problem of synergy between the minority and the majority is essential for the social and cultural discourse, although the review of international literature proves the issue of intercultural relations in prisons is rather underappreciated. In most of the international publications the focus of attention is on rehabilitation schemes and widely-perceived education of the prisoners, including juvenile delinquents and women (Baldi, 2009), with lifelong learning in prisons becoming a premise of protection against recidivism (Warner, 2007; Rose, 2004). Nonetheless, little attention is paid to the education integrating culturally diverse prisoners, as there are no publications highlighting the process of establishing an area of understanding between the sentenced and the prison staff. If issues of integration are taken scientifically into account, it is rather in the context of barriers of social assimilation occurring upon the process of readaptation of former prisoners (Warner, 2002). The review of Polish literature on the subject does not provide with such findings either, scarcely admitting that legal procedures are insufficient in this regard. Hence, it is worth to tackle the issue of the image of personal relations of prison staff with the sentenced foreigners. Such perspective shifts the significance from formal and legal aspects to personal experiences and views. Ergo, these factors generate area of synergy versus discrimination, in other words understanding versus mutual distrust. The answer to such question requires launching an in-depth qualitative research, not focused on seeking correlation between objective variables, but analyzing personal experiences and judgments.

Method

Researched Group

The field research has been carried out in two, complimentary panels. Such sequence of research refers to the two-stage process of gathering source data upon qualitative research, as established by J.W. Creswell (2003). The procedure of sequential research is applied when answers to research questions require concurrent general and precise procedures, taking into consideration not only the time of generating data but also the research weighting. The objective of the latter was to reveal the areas of manipulation risk from the cultural minority. However, adopting wider perspective of perceiving the problem the research project, divided in two panels, was subject to Sequential Transformative Strategy (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Consequently, problem areas were generated out of general data (collected within the country) in order to conduct precise, individual interviews. Thereupon, two types of source material were established. The first panel concerned analysis of source, i.e. official documentation gathered in the years 1992-2012. In that period over 190 complaints had been submitted, out of which the exploration embraced 125 complete documentation addressed to Helsinki Foundation for Human Rights in Warsaw, concerning applications sent by those in remand centres or prisons in Poland.

The second panel embraced direct interviews with prison staff officers that work as prison tutors (14 persons). Such selection of the respondent group corresponded to the procedure of qualitative research (the criterion of having experience working with foreigners was predominant).

Source material

In the first panel of triangular research the source material referred to complaints submitted by remanded or/and sentenced foreigners in the territory of Poland. The material consisted of unstructured documentation, i.e. such that had not been generated, but found by the researcher. The complainants were representatives of diverse cultures and nationalities, from 17 countries altogether. Documents were written in Polish, Russian, English, and German. Three of them were excluded from the analysis due to their illegibility and lack of researcher's competence to analyze such text, as it had been, for instance, addressed by an Iranian citizen, whereas documents were prepared in Arabic. The gathered material was collected upon preliminary survey of the archive holdings at Helsinki Foundation for Human Rights in Warsaw, which is an international institution of apolitical character that provides legal assistance in all the cases when the risk of infringing rights of individuals occur.

As far as the second panel is concerned, the material comprised of interviews with prison tutors working with sentenced foreigners, particularly Muslims. The interview discourse was translated into the pattern of mental maps in line with the principles of the research procedures. The map reflected both the opinions on the quality of intercultural relations as well as depicted "negotiating" personal approach towards those culturally diverse.

Procedure

The first research panel provided general information i.e. at national level. Due to the formula of source documents the analysis procedure embraced two levels of personalization of the material in accordance with the strategy of qualitative research. The first stage included working out a set of problem matrix in a table with data collection. The structured matrix provided key tool of selection for the source material, as according to H. Wolcott such proceedings constitute a priority of professional qualitative research (Silverman, 2007). Upon second stage of analysis decoded source material was subject to selection, scaling down the cases to representatives of Muslim culture only. After the second phase 8 pieces remained out of 125 documents.

The second panel constituted an essential part of the research and embraced direct interviews carried out in 5 penal institutions in the eastern part of Poland. In terms of theory while seeking common area of beliefs and convictions the research procedure relied on the assumptions of theory of social constructionism by Kenneth George (2009). Direct strategy of gathering data was subject to the interviews technique of RepGrid, rooted in theoretical foundations of personal construct psychology by George Kelly (1955), whose key theoretical assumption highlights the thesis that people maintain their own interpretation of social occurrences, whereas its quality depends on the gathered life experiences. Moreover, according to Kelly, scientific research shall aim to reveal internal representation of the external world, referred to as a personal construct. Consequently, the standard RepGrid interviews included three following procedures.

The first objective was to depict the situation of Muslim prisoners in Polish penal institutions. It was recalled by the respondents and encoded in a list of adjectives, reflecting their situation in a prison as a total institution. At this level, the respondents were selecting such notions from the list that were in their opinion contradictory or provided polar opposites, subsequently becoming a point of departure for a consecutive interview.

The second procedural element concerned the process of exploring the contents of personal constructs, i.e. information on perceiving mutual, intercultural relations. This stage revealed two additional aspects, as on one hand it embraced formal issues, i.e. interpretation of the quality of intercultural relations with Muslim prisoners according to the official policy, and on the other – facilitated the search for personal perspectives and descriptions of these relations. The qualitative research did not concern the measure of knowledge and professionalism of the state officials, but rather their recognition of own points of view. In this regard the procedure of research corresponding to the RepGrid technique proved to be most effective, as it referred to the assumption that interviews should be conducted not within framework of additional but confronting questions, searching for arguments contradictory to the claimed theses. Thus, the role of the researcher was to explore the respondents' opinions opposite to the one they expressed.

The third element of the procedure relied on the analysis of the mental maps, i.e. the image of the interviews account, depicting contradictory arguments. This level generated personal views and judgments concerning intercultural relations of the prison staff and foreign prisoners. Therefore, it was crucial at this stage to explore the constructs, i.e. to search for the content not directly nor immediately indicated by the respondents (Neimeyer & Anderson & Stockton, 2001).

Outcomes

The outcome of the first panel of the general research embraced information on legal, organizational and social problems occurring within the area of Polish system of justice while dealing with forefingers. The direct result of the documents analysis was structured in matrix depicting the sequence of occurring problems. The results of the second stage of research referred to the practical problems that can bring about the risk of manipulation at the meeting points of cultural diversity. As a result of direct research mental maps for each respondent were generated. Within conclusions it was crucial to set up the image of two strategies of prison tutors' approach towards Muslim prisoners. Such strategies by far result from personal experiences and perspectives, concurrently revealing an interesting perspective between the official legal discourse and personal beliefs. Deliberate selection of respondents was of key importance for the research procedures, as it embraced those individuals who have had few years of experience in working as a prison tutor and have been in direct relations with the sentenced foreigners.

Categories of problems emerging within foreigners' complaints concerning Polish system of justice

It is worth to stress the significant disproportion between the number of complaints concerning the system of justice in case of remanding and sentencing. According to Polish Penal code, foreigners (similarly as Polish citizens) suspected of having committed a crime are subject to remand as a way of temporary isolation determined by the court. In the meantime procedures of gathering evidence are launched so consequently such person can be whether released from remand or sentenced by a lawful verdict. In the latter case, on the basis of final and binding court decision, such suspect is deprived of own liberty, i.e. is subject to regulations concerning sentenced, not temporarily arrested. Disproportion of complaints accusing institutions of the system of justice of breaching human rights was overwhelming within the reported cases of remand. Complaints submitted to Helsinki Foundation for Human Rights from those sentenced and deprived of liberty were scarce (with the proportion 9:1).

The range of accusations embraced generally suspicion of violating human rights, with particular emphasis on the three following aspects:

a) Violation of the right to cultural diversity accusing system of justice officials to hinder or prevent the prisoners from manifesting behaviours adequate to maintenance of cultural identity or own individuality. Within this range accounts made by Muslims occurred crucial due to significant discrepancies between local, European culture and the Muslim customs. On the other hand, the matter-of-factness of these complaints occurred pivotal, as the conflict referred to the lack of understanding of different course and objectives of socialisation and customs. Hence, the accusations that forcing someone to clean own prison cell provides the apparent evidence of violating cultural diversity. This aspect of everyday life reality in prison was most frequently addressed in the complaints by the Muslims, who stressed that socialisation of men in their cultures prepares to completely different social roles than cleaning, what is apparently an attribute of women and found offensive as activity for men. Similar aspect was tackled within complaints about the lack of possibility to arrange own formal issues with men, as women prison staff are perceived as unequal partners in conversations. Justification of this fact also concerned cultural diversity and the fact that Muslim tradition does not grant equal rights to men and women. According to the Muslim prisoners forcing them to clean their cells and unwillingness of prison staff to isolate women from dealing with Muslim prisoners provided key manifestations of lack of respect for the Muslim culture. In this regard Polish prison staff were sued on the ground of violating the law protecting cultural diversity of the sentenced.

b) Violating the right to be treated equally regardless of the origin and race was tackled with regards to the court and prosecutors, accusing these institutions of discriminatory sanctions of remand towards the forefingers. Muslim complainants perceived remand as a result of excessive lack of trust towards them, assuming that in similar cases Polish citizens would be treated with less rigidity. In their opinion foreigners, as "the others", are suspected of wanting to hide out from the police or escape. Similar complaints concerned unjust and excessively procrastinated period of remand, due to apparent tardiness of the organs of state. Indeed, it must be highlighted that as far as foreigners are concerned, significant role is played by procedural aspects of the investigation, particularly within translation of court papers, appointing witnesses, translators or interpreters. Such obligations, resulting from international and domestic law, can procrastinate the proceeding period at persecutor's office. It arises a lot of controversies in Poland, especially in the context of protection of foreigners against unjust treatment by the organs of state. The directives for (not only Polish) courts are vital in this regard, as regulations within anti-discriminatory procedures origin from the indispensible human rights discourse. On the basis of actual verdicts of the Court of Human Rights there are crucial premises of

cautiousness regarding foreigners while approaching the occurrences of remanding, apprehending or procrastinating these procedures.

c) It is worth to highlight insignificant number of complaints (5) tackling direct violation of the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion or belief. The complaining Muslims claimed that upon their remand they had been deprived of their right to contact Muslim clergy, additionally stressing lack of prison staff activity in alleviating conflicts between the sentenced Poles and Muslims. In these cases no evidence was found to confirm such occurrences, as in the first case no such event had been reported, and as for the latter situation it was not grounded in mutual disinclination towards cultural diversity, but had to do with personal features of the characters of the sentenced men.

Perception of intercultural relations by prison tutors

The above-recalled analysis of the general problems in the intercultural area is reflected in field research, accomplished within the second panel. The same problems reported after analysis of complaints were addressed by the researched prison officers. Conclusions from the research highlight, however, more important issue, namely the strategies adopted by prison tutors in relations with Muslims and foreigners on the whole.

Table 1 depicts the strategy of understandings of difficult situation of the sentenced foreigners. Such approach corresponds to the stands of international law within European community, such as Recommendation nr R(84)12, adopted by the Committee of Ministers to member states on the European prison rules concerning foreign prisoners, indicating that the organs of the system of justice are obliged to search for organizational and legal solutions aiming to alleviate objectively more difficult situation of culturally diverse prisoners. Tendency of understanding and support emerged within interviews with younger and less experienced prison staff, aged 25 to 30, with 2 to 5 years of working experience. The procedure of the interviews embraced recognition of the situation of culturally diverse prisoners within a list of adjectives. Nonetheless, personal opinion on the quality of mutual relations came across as of paramount importance, with emphasis on the expectations of the foreigners towards the prison staff, mirroring the area of personal efforts, i.e. on the basis of own interpretations the respondents tried to adapt such a solution that would favor support and assistance. It is worth to mention that as far as Muslims are concerned no information on manipulation from their side was reported. Moreover, within such intercultural relations no situation where it could potentially emerge was reported either. The clue of the discussed dilemma (Table 1) concerned the conviction that respondents should search for such solutions to meet Muslim's expectations within legal regulations and own activity. Such approach explains why prison tutors themselves tried to seek knowledge on the specificity of Muslim culture, particularly tackling their religious rites and customs. The prison staff's personal intercultural education turned out indispensible in provision of conflict-free presence in the prison, protecting from breaching the right to respect religious and cultural diversity.

Yet, another strategy was displayed by tutors with greater experience in dealing with sentenced foreigners, embracing those aged 35 to 45 and with more than 10 years of working experience. The range of qualitative research did not undertake the issue of correlation between working experience and manifested opinions, but it is worth to stress the context that provides justification for different points of view. Namely, in the 1990s there was a massive wave of income of foreign prisoners in Polish penal institutions, thus in the years 1995-2002 their number rose from 1496 (in 1995) to 1550 foreigners (in 2001). Nowadays, the number reached 564 in the year 2012 and 549 in 2013 respectively. Moreover, it needs to be taken into consideration that greater number of foreigners undeniably generated greater area of conflicts involving prison staff. It is possible that such experiences of those with longer working experience created strategies of cautiousness in intercultural relations, what confirms the analyzed personal constructs revealed within the RepGrid interview technique.

Cautiousness tackled the lack of trust and conviction that the sentenced act instrumentally, trying to engage the staff in their manipulating "game", which aim is to gain maximal personal benefits, by taking advantage of own cultural diversity. Table 1 depicts the same issue in relation to Muslims in the first panel of research, including unwillingness to perform daily duties. According to the respondents such game is indeed intricate and risky for the system of Polish penal institutions as intercultural relations can generate dangerous precedence tackling confrontation of formal procedures (such as searching suspects' belongings or a body search, protection of sacred objects, or protection against nudity). Moreover, in their opinion it is truly challenging to make decision in this regard, recognizing which of the Muslim claims are legitimate, and which are a manifestation of manipulation.

The above reflections lead to two key conclusions. On one hand there is a personal conviction that the sentenced want to manipulate the prison staff unwilling to cooperate, what in turn involves staff cautiousness in making decisions concerning foreigners. On the other hand, prison staff seem underprepared for such situations, as they learn about the specificity of Muslim customs and traditions on their own, or simply approach them with mistrust. It therefore highlights the

fact that intercultural areas can provide favorable circumstances for manipulation, if no sufficient intercultural education is applied. Otherwise, the minority can take advantage of the majority's unawareness of cultural differences, opening up the area of information manipulation.

Manipulation in the media

There is also another side of this complex phenomenon, namely information manipulation displayed by the media (representing the majority), distorting the image of the Muslim minority in multicultural (or intercultural) environment in Western Europe. Radio, television, film, and other products of the media culture provide materials out of which individuals shape their point of view on the aspects of life unfamiliar on a daily basis, for example the cultural specificity (customs, patterns of behaviour, set of values, religious rites etc) of the Muslim minority. Thus, the media forge the notion of what is culturally "own", "strange" and "the other", followed by the sense of religion, ethnicity and nationality structuring the social world on the ground of "us" contrasting "them". Consequently, they shape the view of the world of the society members and their hierarchy of values, providing "the symbols, myths, and resources through which we constitute a common culture and through the appropriation of which we insert ourselves into this culture" (Kellner, 1995). Therefore, as the recipients and creators of culture, members of the society are immersed in the media realm and it is essential to learn ways to interpret, understand and - most of all - critically analyze meanings such channels convey. Hence, the media content should not be simply uncritically acknowledged. Otherwise, obeying rules recognized by the majority would entail presenting viewpoints solely in line with the mainstream, favouring the majority discourse and simultaneously marginalizing cultural difference and its representatives.

Nowadays, where the role of the media is fundamental not only in reflecting, but also generating the reality around, the image of the latter can be manipulated to misrepresent not only actual facts but also members of the minority culture. Thus, the representation of Islam and Muslims in the European media are often referred to as the "alien other". Such, as matter of fact, misrepresentation boils down to a contemporary notion tackling racism, i.e. Islamphobia, that stems from cultural representations of the recalled "other" originating from Muslim culture. Although attempts to define Islamophobia have not been entirely successful and no single definition is officially acknowledged, it can be recognized that "Islamophobia groups together all kinds of different forms of discourse, speech and acts, by suggesting that they all emanate from an identical ideological core, which is an 'irrational fear' (a phobia) of Islam" (Cesari, 2008).

For this purpose and in order to convince the culturally insensitive and/or unaware majority the treatment of Islam representatives in the media frequently involves such themes as "threat", "extremist", "fundamentalist", "fanatic" or "terrorism". Of course the approach to Islam varies from one country to another, as much as the extent to which Islamophobia exists. Still, it can be argued that the media in most of the European countries present a somewhat biased view of Muslims and Islam, although differences may lie in various level of acceptance of multiculturalism, manifested in mutliaspectual social discourse or degree of implementing paradigms of intercultural education.

There is palpable reinforcement of the idea that cultural norms are constituted by the majority, thus, consequently, "others" exist on the peripheries of the society's attention. Otherwise, if at the forefront and in the focus of attention, it often takes place in some negative, usually "terrorist-related" context. As a result, such approach reinforces the minority members as "others", thus the majority (the media) hold the assumption that culturally diverse minority members think and act in unified (universal) stereotypical ways. The report on Muslim issues commissioned by Channel 4 Dispatches and carried out by the Cardiff School of Journalism, Media and Cultural Studies provided interesting data in this regard. In their Report "Images of Islam in the UK. The Representation of British Muslims in the National Print News Media 2000-2008" (Moore & Mason & Lewis, 2008) the research team examined 974 stories, revealing that about two-thirds of all "news hooks" for stories about Muslims involved: terrorism (36% of the stories), religious issues such as Sharia law highlighting cultural differences between British Muslims and others (22%) and Muslim extremism (referring to figures such as Abu Hamsa). By contrast, only 5 per cent of stories were based on problems facing British Muslims. This biased approach can serve as an example of how the media shape the image of Muslims by regular and systematic infiltration into regular society, leading to legitimization of the phenomenon of Islamophobia.

Repercussions of such phenomenon are far-reaching. According to the Gallup institute and its report "Islamophobia: Understanding Anti-Muslim Sentiment in the West (Gallup Poll, 2008), Muslims at large do not feel respected by the members of Western societies. Respectively, significant percentages of several Western countries share this stand, claiming the West does not respect Muslim societies. To recall some statistics, 52% of Americans and 48% of Canadians say the West does not respect Muslim societies, with only smaller percentages of Italian, French, German, and British respondents agreeing. Applying various research tools and global polling efforts Gallup has collected a wealth of data detailing public opinion about various aspects of respect, treatment, and tolerance related to Muslims worldwide. The

survey provided data on perception of Muslims as intolerant of other religions, regardless of the fact whether respondents personally knew any Muslims or have had contact with their community members on a daily basis. Such results can, unfortunately, find justification in many aspects of social, cultural and political discourse, including the media. It is therefore explicit that majority of respondents with regard to attitudes towards Muslims (and prejudices within) manifest significantly negative approach, as – for instance – 73% of the researched claim that most Muslims around the world are not accepting people of races other than their own, with similarly high result (63%) in case of the opinion that apparently most Muslims around the world do not want peace (sic!).

Another alarming conclusion can be withdrawn from Gallup data collected in 2008 from representative samples in Germany, France, and the U.K., considering issues tackling social and cultural integration of Muslim communities in these three countries. Paradoxically, despite the fact that majority of adult population in these countries admit that people from minority groups enrich the cultural life of their nations, sizable minorities of these respondents express fear about certain aspects of Muslim culture, including 28% of respondents from the U.K. claiming people with different religious parties threaten their way of life.

The question whether such attitude is a consequence of the negative images of Muslims reproduced by the media remains open and worthy of researching attention. Nonetheless, it must be emphasized that such one-dimensional and monolithic view of Islam does not take into consideration any internal differentiation within Muslim culture and community.

Interestingly, as early as in 1997, The Runnymede Trust report into Islamophobia in Great Britain stated that Islam was inherently seen as being the 'other' to the West, hence reinforcing the 'them' versus 'us' dualism, (Runnymede Trust, 1997). In 2004, after 9/11 and the initial years of the Afghanistan and Iraq wars, The Runnymede Trust produced a follow-up report in 2004, founding that the aftermath of the terrorist attacks had deteriorated the quality of British Muslims' life due to reinforced prejudices and stereotypes of Muslims functioning in the media (Runnymede Trust, 2004).

By consuming the media content society members identify and associate themselves with basic approach towards culturally different individuals. Consequently, individuals justify their actions, beliefs, values and perception of the world with reference to the constructions presented by various mass media forms. Unfortunately, such "methodology" may be deceiving as it often makes inequalities such as discrimination of Muslims an inherent part of the cultural and social discourse. To justify such critical approach it is suffice to recall some of the examples of media literally bombarding recipients of the news (often taken out of context) accompanied by images of Muslims burning American flags in rage, women covered from head to toe expressing their anger at military actions in the Middle East in front of US or other western embassies, or Muslim children holding placards bearing the face of alleged terrorists related to al Qaeda in Afghanistan or Pakistan. Such visions are often followed by despicable and sensationalist headlines proclaiming that "This fanaticism that we in the West can never understand", "experts" claiming that "Islam taking over, Europe soon to be unrecognizable", or Tony Blair warning of "Growing Radical Islam Threat".

Although the role of the media is undoubtedly difficult to categorize and the media cannot be literally and solely blamed for Islamophobia, particularly as far as the translation of attitudes and ideas into incidents and actions are concerned, its role cannot be entirely dismissed either. None of the recalled reports suggested that the media directly caused or, indeed, were responsible for any reported or identified act of aggression or significant change in attitude, nonetheless they play a major role in the formulation and establishment of popular perceptions in the public sphere, also concerning Muslims, hence their role cannot be underestimated in this regard. Moreover, even if some media sectors seek to remain balanced and objective, many are still unlikely to contribute to informed discussion and debate amongst, and about, Muslims (An academic report commissioned by the Mayor of London on behalf of the Greater London Authority, 2007).

On the basis of semiotic analysis of the media content regarding Islam within Western European framework ranging from quantitative content analysis to qualitative study (e-versions of the major newspapers such as the Daily Telegraph, Washington Post, or large international cable and satellite television channels such as BBC, CNN and other news corporations), it was possible to reveal some overall assumptions generated by the media contents. It led to the conclusions that most Western media:

- utilize the 9/11 attack to forge homogenous image of Muslims linked to negative terms like "terrorist", correspondingly depicting Islam as equal to "fundamentalism", "extremism" and "radicalism"; (according to Gallup research significant proportions associate Muslims with terror as 23% of Germans, 25% of the French, and 34% of the British say that Muslims are sympathetic to al Qaeda); respectively reproducing negative and unwarranted portrayals of Islam and Muslims as terrorists, terrorist sympathizers and subversives;

- do not mention or do not give a fair hearing to alternative views, understandings and opinions concerning Muslims;

- seem unlikely to contribute to the process of diminishing levels of acts of unlawful discrimination by non-Muslims against Muslims;

- apply frequently emotive, immoderate, alarmist or abusive tone of language in the context of Muslim/Islamic discourse;

- frequently distort, exaggerate or oversimplify facts while reporting;

- perceive Islam as incompatible with democracy, hence the assumption that there is no common axiological ground for the world of Islam and the West duly imposing the view that there is little if no chance whatsoever to empower pluralism within multicultural societies with Muslim minority;

- find accepting Islamic minority in the societies (regardless of complex social implications) entails apparent loss of the "indigenous" unique identities;

- project the image of Muslims as not loyal to their new homelands, what may be linked to the fact that many Western European citizens tend to avoid having Muslims as neighbours (according to Gallup research between 16% and 21% of people in France, Germany, and the U.K. would not like Muslims as their neighbours);

- consider different Muslim practices and relationships threatening since 16% of Germans, 30% of British, and 39% of French said in the Gallup survey that wearing hijab is a threat to European culture;

- are likely to provoke and increase feelings of insecurity, suspicion and anxiety amongst non-Muslims;

- perceive Muslims differently (unfavorably) from members of Western societies in their level of integration and openness to people of other faith;

- do little to reduce the recurrence of misrepresentations and stereotypes concerning Muslims.

Taking it into account, it can be assumed that the mass media are powerful in shaping, influencing and entailing stereotypes, prejudices and attitudes to "others" by manipulating information, acknowledging the (biased) reality. They are also powerful enough to "instruct" how to perceive cultural difference, resultantly conforming to the dominant system of norms, values and practices. Thus, it is pivotal to gain critical approach to the media content in order to resist the information manipulation in intercultural areas. It is, moreover, equally crucial to analyze information within the social relations and system through which given culture is produced and consumed, bearing in mind that the media articulate dominant values and political ideologies (Kellner, 1995).

Hence, multicultural education provides key mechanisms enabling society members to read and interpret one's culture manifested through media critically, facilitating examinations and critical scrutiny without prior prejudices often conveyed via media channels, generating one-sided orientations to Islam. And although media should help to organize multicultural information and ideas, it turns out that they very often unjustifiably emphasize limited information about a minority group (Keever & Martindale & Weston, 1997), shaping and generating so called "pseudoenvironment", unreliably reflecting the complexity of the social and cultural reality (Boorstin, 1961).

Moreover, since contemporary societies are structured by opposing groups who manifest diverse ethical, axiological and even political ideologies it is important to realize how media culture reproduces certain forms of discrimination against members of cultural minorities. Generated negative perceptions, prejudices and discriminations targeted against Muslims provide the example how lack of essential intercultural skills and knowledge can enable manipulation of information in the media. Therefore, the existence of Islamophobia is something to be addressed, regardless of the degree to which individuals expressing this phenomenon have particular views of Muslims in their communities. It seems that the major challenge today involves getting accurate and verified information, hence it is worth to pose a question how to counteract such unjust vision of the cultural minority that constitutes part of the multicultural area. It is undoubtedly challenging to contradict such power as the mass media, but as far as multiculturalism is concerned, education can provide effective tools of equipping members of culturally diverse societies with skills and abilities to basically "think out of the media box". Therefore, the representation of Muslims in the Western media needs to undergo a significant change, so that Islamophobia could be replaced by the paradigm of interculturalism.

Intercultural education versus information manipulation

Intercultural education displays a real potential of fighting against dominant encoded meanings, producing own critical and alternative readings, contrary to information manipulation generated by the minority or/and the majority, utilizing multiplicity of perspectives and critical methods. Ergo, such education requires a multicultural approach that sees the importance of analyzing

the dimensions of cultural diversity, including approach to Islam, consequently entailing critical media pedagogy that enables individuals to resist the media manipulation and to increase the sense of autonomy of all members of the intercultural area.

Intercultural education can empower individuals in resisting the dominant meanings within the media cultural products, or state policies concerning law, consequently producing own meanings. It can help promote development of more critical consciousness regarding Islamic culture, providing a broad, comprehensive framework to undertake multicultural dialogue, free from prejudice and misconception. Moreover, it acknowledges that all the society members, including Muslims, have the right, ability and even the obligation to participate fully in shaping its cultural and public discourse. It might be carried out by providing with certain perspectives of some social aspects such as cultural diversity, enabling critical analysis and interpretation. Significantly, it does not come down to – as in case of the media – imposing perspectives and understandings of the reality, but to reinforcing the relative, heterogeneous and alternative approach towards this, what is commonly accepted. Therefore, intercultural education can encourage to gain individual and non-biased view on social problems, create new ideas and relate them to own experience within intercultural area, accepting seemingly cultural controversial concepts.

To prevent Muslims from being marginalized, discriminated and excluded from social, political and civic life in Europe intercultural education is essential. Since unawareness of the cultural differences opens up the area of manipulation for those holding power (such as the media or legal authorities), it is worth to address the issue of not only intercultural education, but some crucial aspects within, namely intercultural competences. Such competences should embrace:

 knowledge concerning cultural differences, entailing different behavioural patterns, set of values, etc;

 cultural identity expressed as a behavioural, cognitive and emotionally constructive approach towards own culture (healthy balance between chauvinism and lack of attachment to own cultural roots);

 social initiative (reaching beyond own cultural circles);

 intercultural sensitivity expressed by active attitude towards representatives of other cultures;

 empathy as a key feature of a member of multicultural community, manifested by understanding and reading appropriate context of the emotional and motivational areas of other people;

 open-mindedness towards cultural complexity of the social reality around;

 communication skills including the ability to adjust communication style to other cultures.

Appropriately, an intercultural, competent person - no matter if working in a total institution as prison or being a part of the media world - is able to see the relation between different cultures, displaying the ability of meditation, interpretation, as well as critical and analytical understanding of the personal culture and the culture of "other". Thus, intercultural members of the society do not accept the social reality passively nor take it for granted, but actively participate in the multicultural area exercising the above-recalled abilities.

In order to establish such common ground shared by all the members of intercultural area, some certain criteria should be met, including antinihilistic axiological orientation, dynamism (openness to changes), dialogue and discourse. Only such perspective enhances perception of the intercultural area as a dynamic, inspiring sphere of experiencing diversity not only in the ontological, but also moral context due to the fact that dialogue and discourse allow to broaden and widespread commonly accepted values and norms, to combine points of views and moral stands, as well as to overcome stereotypes and misconceptions. Moreover, such approach avoids the media and legislation trap of universality as only diversity can allow recognition of life orientations. In consequence, the denial of simplified tendency to universalize corresponds with the stages of intercultural learning since such approach does not negate the sheer existence of differences, does not even attempt to join them nor to reduce them to the lowest common axiological denominator, but allows to change the profile of a given culture towards interculturalism. It, in turn, implies the need to work out common cultural ground that would constitute a foundation for the contact in intercultural area, whether in a total institution (such a prison) or within media channels, evoking lasting understanding and permanent, ethically rooted relations that can counteract prevailing stereotypes concerning Muslims. Moreover, in the context of information manipulation, successful intercultural education could prevent from intolerance and prejudices towards Muslims. Yet, in order to implement such idea, systematic and methodical approach is indispensible.

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Table 1. Analysis of the respondents' account concerning their perception of personal relations with Muslim prisoners.

Analysed adjective scale 1	Prison tutors with short working experience					Analysed adjective scale 2
Tiresome New Difficult Stressful Unexpected Educational				🟥		Lost Lonely Distrustful Unrest Pretentious
				🟥	🟥	
				🟥	🟥	
	1 – frequent threat of manipulation	2	3	4	5 – lack of threat of manipulation	
	🟥	🟥		🟥		
		🟥				
		🟥				
	Prison tutors with long working experience					

Legend:

Adjective scale – polar opposites as created by the respondents at the initial stage of the RepGrid interview with scale 1 defining adjectives chosen to depict situation in the prison, and scale 2 depicting general features of the foreign prisoner.

- intensity of the descriptions applied to depict own views on relations with a sentenced prisoner in the course of given stages of the RepGrid interview.

Portuguese Diaspora: Life Stories / Documentaries

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Abstract

The return is a change that is configured at various levels - relationships , routines , roles - and can interfere with the self - concept and the concept that individuals have about the other . (Schlossberg , Waters & Goodman , 1995).The mobility in this case the return is a transition and / or a crisis in that the individual initiates an adaptation process . This process is influenced by several variables , including the subjective perception regarding the event and the different characteristics of the contexts of exit and reception and the characteristics of the actors in this event. (Pine and Ferreira , 2002; Evans & Forney , Guido DiBrito , 1998). If migrations occur regularly , this process can not interferewithf the return movement of the Portuguese diaspora since decolonization that constituted for the Portuguese a transition not expected and , but configuring contexts breakthrough.The intention is to understand the contexts of life of the people involved in the process (rupture, integration , opportunities , etc.) through the documentaries made for the purpose.

Keywords: Return; Portuguese; Diaspora; Self-concept; Life stories

Introduction

Migratory movements have been a constant in human history. In this case Portuguese population mobility persisted for centuries as one of the main responsible for the increasing mixing of cultures.

Associated with the epic of the discoveries, the Portuguese emigration was for centuries characterized by massive outflows of Portuguese population to newly discovered territories (Duverger, 1994). One of the most striking phenomena of the 70s in Portugal was the return of half a million residents in the former Portuguese colonies.

 From a theoretical point of view we find different approaches to the phenomenon of emigration. Thus, a neo-liberal perspective (supported on the assumptions of neo-classical theory of rational individual choice) migratory movements are essentially the result of personal decisions resulting from a comparative analysis of the advantages and disadvantages associated. In turn, from a materialistic perspective, Marx interrelates the role of migration to the phenomenon of population growth, but believes that emigration does not result directly from demographic factors but the unequal distribution of capital.

Regarding the level of integration, Chiswick (2002) suggests that the degree of integration of immigrant in the new society depends primarily on its ability to acquire knowledge putting it at the same professional level of national workers (which in reality does not always happen).

In this study, the analysis is based on interviews with a number of Portuguese who returned from Africa shortly after the April 25, 1974, and to whom the Portuguese society dubbed, so even the "returnees".

The term "returned" appears to refer to those who "return" from the former colonies and encloses a racial criterion in that it refers to the white population of Africa (Pena Pires, 2003:227). From a legal and political point of view, the condition of "returned" is attributed to him that keeping his Portuguese citizenship, has resided in the former colonies.

Although the official number of Portuguese who "returned" from Africa for the former metropolis is unknown, it is expected that it will be between five hundred thousand and one million individuals (cf. Carrington and Lima 1996; Pena Pires: 1984 2003; Rocha-Trindade: 1995).

Given the kind of research we intend to do, it appealed mainly to life stories and collecting photographs since the parallel study being presented here is a video produced to support the interviews being analysed and some images of that period.

A comparison of reports allows us to present these subjects as protagonists of a story with many points in common. The memories that intersect, allow us to associate certain concepts to emigration and how the whole process of Portuguese decolonization was carried out. These commonalities despite different experiences, let us say that this is "a group" that has acquired a kind of identity.

In addition to the identity issues and their intergenerational reflexes, a central issue in this analysis is integration, not only economic but above all social and cultural. Indeed a phenomenon that seems applicant in migration (regardless of destination) is that immigrants, on arrival at the destination country feel as a "strange" element and after the return they have the same feeling about the country they left which is, necessarily, different now.

The social integration of returnees: experiences, representations and identity.

In the years that followed the 25th April 1974 revolution, was recorded in Portugal, an exodus with the arrival at Lisbon an endless number of returnees.

While some of them have made scale in South Africa or Rhodesia or has chosen to take refuge in Brazil, the great majority of returnees chose Metropolis as a destination.

Pires (1984), based on 1981 Census data highlight a set of characteristics of the returned population: nearly two-thirds were from Angola, more than three-quarters were in 1981, aged 15 years old and natural colonies, about half of them were aged between 15 and 39 years old, 60% born in Portugal, the majority was natural urban centres of Lisbon or Porto and Northern or Central interior.

Literature stresses the importance of second-generation returnees because cultural differences seem even more evident. Another important aspect relates to the fact that the colonies attract people with higher qualifications in contrast with the European migration. There are indeed significant differences between the Portuguese emigration to Europe and the former colonies particularly with regard to how the Portuguese saw the return to the home country. One respondent refers precisely this difference noting that "We were some gentlemen who lived well there, with five set to make the bed, the other five for the garden, and those who went to France went to work on building ... so it is the big difference "(...)" to Angola and Mozambique emigrated not only very needy people, not only workers ... who emigrated ... the great impact of our emigration to Africa was given by major economic groups." (E1).

About the resident population, we don´t knew almost anything. This lack worsened the relationship between the two groups and contributes significantly to the deterioration of the image of the "returned" that in the field of social representations, now, in many cases, be seen as a threat to economic and social conditions of those who have always remained in the country.

Social representations refer to knowledge or common sense theories. Its spread in the media, in familiar conversations on the Internet, provides a collective or social character, as Moscovici (2001) says. At the same time, presenting a mixture of images and concepts are merged, inaccurate and without much coherence or rationality (still arriving even to the point of evoking a presumed scientific). However, as the author points out, the communities do not work without social representations. They guide the behaviours and confer legitimacy.

However, even though the word "returned" shut itself a stigma, the integration of these persons unless exceptional and dramatic cases of non-integration was relatively easy because even most adults returned were from Portugal where they held family. So maybe also the most common is the return "to their homeland", which is why most returnees have returned to areas where they were born and / or where their families lived.

This does not mean, however, that the criterion for inclusion / non-inclusion in the labour market has not been important in fixing. Pires (2003) also puts forward another possible reason for the relative ease of integration of returnees in Portuguese society: this is to be processed during a period in which they occurred in Portuguese society several economic and cultural transformations that may have favoured the integration professional returnees and provided a climate of greater cultural openness.

Since the object of this study are " the returned" from overseas colonies and the main objective is to analyse how they have done their integration in the Metropolis (detecting particular intergenerational differences), we analysed four interviews (a significantly larger) group in order to collect the experiences of individuals who, by their experience of life, participated in the story which we intend to present now.

The comparative analysis of the interviews shows individuals protagonists of a story with many points in common and therefore with a kind of self-identity.

The identity is defined from the multiple interaction and social relation and is deeply marked by social context. Thus, an identity presupposes always a time and a space, while an opposition in relation to other identities. It is, as stated by Berger and Luckmann (1999) and Cabral (2003) for reciprocal recognition between the individual and society that refers to the interdependencies between individual identities and social identities.

Method

Aiming at a better understanding about the return of Portuguese immigrants from former colonies overseas breaks, this study reconstitution of pathways of life of a group of people, of different ages, who returned to Portugal in the period following the democratic revolution April.

With the "compulsive" return, the general feeling is to be suspended life interrupted, a breach of such a profound way that will require a new beginning in their life journey.

Given these characteristics we think that this study is particularly suitable for analysis based on oral nature, either for its contemporary and accessibility of their sources is its relationship to minority or marginalized groups or by the fact that this methodology allows us to recover a set of memories that, otherwise, would not have access.

It should be emphasized that the Oral History, is both a research method and the basis for the creation of historical sources from the interviews.

The statement does not reflect an easy process but it is true that, due resistances and preconceptions of traditional historiography, oral history has achieved increasing importance worldwide.

It should also be noted that, on the one hand, its production oral history necessarily presupposes historical reflection that lies in the dichotomy interviewer / interviewee. Moreover, oral history can and should be supplemented by other sources. These equation supplies oral / written sources can allow access to a collection of information that otherwise would not be accessible or at least would not be identifiable and / or unintelligible.

But, accepting the importance of oral history, whether it takes the form of thematic history or life stories (or both because they do not mutually exclude) implies accepting a supposed subjectivity and fragility resulting from individual memory. This subjectivity however does not mean that the oral historiography dispense inherent to the work of the subject of knowledge in general procedures: search accuracy and closer to the truth. In addition, there is a whole prior work seeking knowledge of the themes, through all available sources, selection of informants and the themes and contents to be addressed in order to produce documents that will allow us access to different experiences and points of view.

Perhaps because of this, there is someone who presents oral history as "another story" either by its innovative nature or by the special attention it tends to give the "dominated" the silenced or excluded.

Another interesting aspect that arises from oral history, including stories of life, is that legal perspectives give rise to individual pathways that later in many cases, allow for the identification of common points, creating new networks of collective identity here, the group.

According to Bourdieu (2002), is this individual that gives cohesion to the stories of life and so it is also a central element in the production of narratives that result from life stories (which, however, for that author are mainly a result of the social context in issue - the habitus).

The use of stories life in this study, also in the belief that the testimonies of people about how they face or faced certain questions allow us to identify and better understand possible intergenerational differences.

The interviews were semi-structured, were held to four individuals, two female and two male, who returned from overseas ex-colonies after April 25, 1974. What are the experiences we seek to reflect these particular subjects and how these experiences translate, or not differences in how, forty years later, they see the process of (re) integration in the Metropolis.

To this objective, the interviews were recorded on audio-visual support, fully transcribed and subjected to content analysis. Authorizations for the use of such testimony were requested.

Results

After the adoption of a set of procedures: a brief description of each case definition of categories and subcategories, definition of thematic structure (for easy comparison), analysis of certain passages considered fundamental, built up the table that follows presents with in order to clarify the results obtained from the life stories analysed.

Interview 1

Male, resident in Lisbon. Married, with two children and two grandchildren.

Lived several years in Angola (the wife was a native of that country) worked there several years.

Returning to Portugal felt the stigma of "returned". "The population was injected ... as if we've been ruthlessly exploit those people." "Environment was cut with a knife ... until the very land where I was born ... I knew all those people. Like we're all about ... whatever. "(...) People were injected with a hatred tremendous note that today."

For all this believes that "the word "returned" has a pejorative sense and never ceased to have.

In Angola he intended to create a life plan. Until some point "thought it was possible to continue to live in Angola even with Independence

Perhaps this fact has reinforced a certain sense of identity: "My answer would be the same as many others" (...) "identity yes, I can ... the attitude of those who came from overseas is quite different from what they were always here. And we note that even in the day-to-day. "(...) "Solidarity among us also exist." "We were contaminated by the very way of being of the African people ... informal way to receive others, less fatalistic ... more optimistically least fado.

Interview 2

Female, 59, is the wife of respondent 1. Native of Angola, "fifth generation". States that "never imagined stop living in Angola" as in child thought "never marry a Portuguese."

The return to Portugal was interspersed with a stay of eight years in Brazil where two children were born.

Initially returned "to Portugal because it was here that I had my roots."

Stresses throughout his speech the social relationships in Africa in particular with African who worked at the residence of his parents and in his "beyond a person that worked for us was also a friend ... I was godmother of his children."

It was "a society created over centuries and that had nothing to do with any operation ... was a single company."

On returning to Portugal stigma is still present and once again associated with the term "returned". This term "was a horror ... In the land of my husband I say that today is my land ... even some family, we were ... we were the ones explorers returned. So that I was pregnant, I was 22, even had chances to stay, and I refused to stay here. I went to Brazil where, in fact, no one ever treated me like that. "(...)" It shocked me. "

Interview 3

Male, residing in Port reformed.

Went to Africa in 1945. "Went with my dad and my older brother" (...) "when I came here, I felt I had abandoned it, because it was very bad. We had just come out of a war (1945), the living conditions were very bad here. "

Returned to Portugal 47 years old and with the feeling that "the best years of life were spent at the service of Angola".

In Portugal, would hit on every door in search of employment. Age was faced with an obstacle. "47 years, Oh! If you had 35 ".

The professional integration by the intervention of a family.

Once again, the stigma is still present. Although naturally begin to react to the term "returned", "a term that was attributed to the Portuguese who were forced to return to the country. Never cared much, "ends by noting that" I was shocked when I often drove to the IARN and those individuals who have nothing at the time and had nothing of her, when they saw such men returned to address themselves to the IARN always said: ate what was the black now come to eat what is ours. That's what provoked me. At that time I was mortally wounded and still heard a saying of these. "

Reintegration was not exactly peaceful. "When I came here on vacation was pretty much everything and everybody knew me, had a car, gave a ride to this and to that but when the time came, few if any knew me." (...) "I had to get me alone.

Interview 4

Female, 80 years, wife of respondent 3. With the fourth grade, became "dressmaker to 16 years.". Went to Angola, after the wedding, to meet her husband.

"I did not know Angola, went over to see what was ... really enjoyed that, let me really miss."

The integration was easy "I felt integrated. There are good people ". "If it was good we had never been away."

Social relations, upon return, (valued at more significantly interviews) were not easy. "Women have not helped, it was bad very bad, thought we needed nothing. I had to start a new life alone. "

The stigma, as in the other respondents, appears associated with the term "returned". "That was the worst thing that could have happened. They thought we walked there to enslave blacks and I never did it. "

"I there treated them very well; I even put my daughter in a college with my washerwoman's daughter to study."

Analysis categories

The construction of categories and subcategories, taking into account principles of content analysis in the style of Bardin (1977), was based on one side script or screenplay that was based on interviews and on the other objectives of the study now is shown.

Thus, we construct three classes of 3rd order ("Family structure and lifestyle of this"; "before departure" and "return"), seven 2nd order ("family structure", "style and living conditions" , "feelings", "expectations and perceptions", "feelings", "perceptions in return" and "strategies of adaptation and (re) integration") and 15 of 1st order ("Composition of household", "place of residence", "social and professional context", "Degree of schooling", "general feeling", "Expectations", "Vision of the country of origin", "Memories", "general feeling", "perceived Quality of life", "Stigma" , "Relationship of identity," "social interaction" and "socio-professional integration.")

The order assigned to the categories of the general (3rd order) to the specific (1st order).

The respective results and inferences are summarized in the table 1.

Discussion

The project of democratic society would ideally integrate its members as citizens, promoting their integration and socialization and avoiding any situation of exclusion or marginalization.

However, the process that characterized the period, as is evident by the analysis of the different interviewees, is far from corresponding to this democratic ideal (Schnapper, 2007).

Analysis of the interviews that make up the base of this study seem to stand out a set of common elements. These can be understood as such a group identity to which we referred earlier. The sense of loss, memories of an Africa where it was possible to live in community, the stigma associated with the "return", all brand interviews analysed.

However, you can find some different points. These can result in age or schooling or even the gender of the respondent.

In fact, for example, in regard to female interviewees always seem to stand out aspects related to social relations (and in other space) while the respondents were male attention seems to turn mainly to issues economic and political nature.

This study represents only part of the interviews already conducted and a portion of the information collected from each of the respondents. This fact, incidentally reflected in the documentary accompanying the study serves ultimately to enhance the wealth and the potential offered by this type of methodology that draws on the stories of life as invaluable source of knowledge.

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Table 1 – Transcriptions of the interviews

3rd order Categories	2nd order Categories	1st order Categories	Transcriptions			
			Interview 1	Interview 2	Interview 3	Interview 4
Family structure and lifestyle at present	Family structure	Composition of household	Female, two children and two grandchildren	Male, two children and two grandchildren	Woman, two children and two grandchildren	Male, two children and two grandchildren
	Lifestyle	Place of residence	Lisbon	Lisbon	Porto	Porto
		Social and profissional context	Stable	Stable	Stable	Stable
		Scholarship level	University	University		4th grade
Before leaving	Feelings	General feeling	Willingness to study agronomy	Have lived in Angola	Abandonment and sadness for leaving Portugal but expectation for better living conditions	Anxiety join her husband who was working in Angola
	Expectations and perceptions	Expetations	Build a life project	Follow with life	Demand for better living conditions	To meet the husband (newlyweds)
		Origin country image	Positive		Bad conditions aggravated by war (1945)	\
The return	Feelings	Remembrance	Africa: lifestyle and relationship with the African people. Of Portugal at that time: nationalization, prisons, injustice, hostile environment.	Africa: lifestyle and relationship with the African people. In Portugal: hostile environment for the "returnees".	Africa: lifestyle and relationship with the African people. In Portugal: hostile environment for the "returnees".	Africa: lifestyle and relationship with the African people. In Portugal: hostile environment for the "returnees".
		General feeling	Loss, desire to remain in Africa	Loss	Loss	Loss
	Perceptions	perceived life quality	Initial phase: the need to rebuild a life project . Present: Very good	Initial phase: the need to rebuild a life project . Present: Very good	Initial phase: the need to rebuild a life project .lack of support Present: Very good	Initial phase: the need to rebuild a life project .lack of support Present: Very good
		Stigma	"The returned" as someone who has enriched exploiting Africans.	"The returned" as someone who has enriched exploiting Africans.	"The returned" as someone who has enriched exploiting Africans.	"The returned" as someone who has enriched exploiting Africans.
	Adaptation and (re)Integration strategies	Identity relantionship	Solidarity pairs similarity of thoughts and way of being.			
		Social interaction	Early stage in Portugal: Difficult Brazil: Cozy	Early stage in Portugal: Difficult Brazil: Cozy	Early stage in Portugal: difficult. Helps underscore member of the family resident in Portugal	Early stage in Portugal: difficult. Helps underscore member of the family resident in Portugal
		Socioprofissional integration	Relatively easy (kept the connection to the same group).	\	Difficult. Once again underlines the help of a family member.	\

(Designer's note : please increase the view size to see the data)

Environmental Education and Tourism

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Abstract

One aspect that seems to mark the tourist demand in recent years relates to a trend (confirmed by statistics) called for increased environmental tourism.This fact brings new challenges to the tourist agents who still are confronted with increasingly demanding and diverse public. It should be noted that the environmental tourism, assumes a set of commitments not only from the environment itself as for individuals. For this it is necessary to develop an environmental awareness that allows, despite increased human presence in a "place" does not deface the nature of that space. Rather, environmental tourism and environmental ecology are presented as two sides of the same coin in that based on the same concerns of ecological, environmental and human and the same assumptions of conservation, sustainability and social responsibility.Thus, the greatest human presence that follows the development of this type of tourism should be reflected, not detract from the tourist destination but a greater investment in the preservation, conservation and respect for the uniqueness of that destination.

Keywords: Environmental tourism, Environmental Education, Sustainability

Introduction

Our planet has been going through profound technological and scientific changes. The ecological imbalances within ecosystems, foreshadow the livelihood of life on Earth, but are attenuated by sustainability. Environmental deterioration has been reaching numbers never before witnessed.

According to research conducted by NASA from the beginning of the twentieth century, the Earth's temperature has increased 1,8° C, boosted by increased emissions of gases that lead to greenhouse gases and air pollution, which is intensified with the growth of industrialization. Have the World Wildlife Fund (WWF), indicates that approximately 35% of Europe's ecosystems have been severely modified by acid rain. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) states that all days are destroyed forests. Only between 1981 and 1990 were felled, equivalent to 30% of Amazonian rainforests.

Nowadays tourism is seen as a strong and influential activity to both economic, political, environmental and socio-cultural level. Although tourism is usually associated with increased urban development, focused on consumption, fun and pleasure, this reality has been changing itself, and thus tourism has come to manifest itself in an important "social agent", such that, in many cases tourism becomes the main responsibility for the development of certain crops and regions (Júnior, 1997; Silveira, 2002; Marujo, 2008).

Nevertheless, it is essential that this activity is thought out and planned in a sustainable manner, ensuring consistency between economic development and environmental conservation.

"There is no real answer to the ecological crisis unless on a global scale and with the proviso that operates an authentic political, social and cultural revolution, reorient the goals of the production of material and immaterial goods. This revolution should therefore concern not only the relations of visible forces on a large scale, but also the molecular areas of sensitivity, intelligence and desire " (Guattari, 1991: 9).

With this study we intend to demonstrate the importance of environmental education in the bet for strengthening a sustainable tourism and consequently to preserve the environment for future generations.

It is still a preliminary study in which it is intended primarily to reflect on the possibilities and potentialities of the articulation of these two areas: Tourism and Education.

Tourism and the environment

Tourism has been assumed as a major factor in environmental degradation, although lately the situation has been reversed, to harmonizing the gap that existed until then, with greater demand and interest in nature, local communities and their heritage but also in an attempt to escape from the big urban centers. However there is still a lack of responsibility on the part of tourists, as to the preservation of nature, tourist destinations. Therefore urges a focus on environmental education.

No one doubts, however, that the concept of sustainability and environmental issue certainly does not arouse interest to all tourists. It so often the destinations seek to harmonize both the economic interests such as the preservation of the environment. The concept of sustainable tourism will change with the passage of time since the world itself and society are changing.

The concept of sustainability arises in the twentieth century, where in the Brundtland report, states that sustainable development "is one that balances the imperative of economic growth with the promotion of social equity and preserving the natural heritage, thereby ensuring that the needs of current generations are met without compromising meet the needs of future generations". On the other hand, Swarbrooke (2002: 19) states: "that any definition of sustainable tourism emphasizes the environmental, social and economic elements of the tourism system" and that: "which could lead to a definition of what sustainable tourism means tourism that is economically viable, but not destroys the resources on which tourism in the future will mainly depend on the physical environment and the social fabric of the local community." (Swarbrooke, 2002: 19)

Generally, tourists always travel at the same time of year, are referred to as "the biggest offenders of natural spaces." (Ramos, 2004). When there is a large influx of tourists in one place, this target becomes crowded both in terms of equipment, transport and food, leading an assault on the landscape and the ecosystem itself.

So a whole prior planning is necessary because tourism is a major source of income for the people and a great enhancer of local development. According to Ramos (2004: 4), this planning should be done so as to avoid wear on the environment, "reducing the social costs that affect the residents of the regions visited and improving the benefits of tourism development, and its absence has negative consequences for tourist locations, causing nearly irreparable damage. "

However, some changes now seem to arise. Ruschmann (1997: 17) states that: "'soft' tourism, eco, naturalist, customized and conducted in small groups of people tends to characterize the tourist traffic of the future."

In this sense Ruschmann addresses the tourism planning as a set of measures and actions which you want to obtain greater detail and necessary to a better advantage of tourist destinations conditions, also consider going to their regional characteristics.

Talking about sustainability implies that all involved can benefit from this process. The main focus is no longer strictly economic to spend to be people-centered. When the tour is done only thinking about the economic aspect, without valuing its consequences, is to jeopardize the life of this place.

According to France (1997), sustainable tourism based on the following criteria:

. be ecologically sustainable and economically feasible;

. distribute its benefits equitably;

. be ethical and socially accepted by the communities;

. integrate and respect the environment;

. encourage participation and cooperation of all in its planning;

. meet the tourist and encourages it, in the conservation of the environment and local culture;

. integrate into the local economy, promoting a better quality of life in communities;

. be properly planned, applying the principles of sustainability, either to transport, sanitation, electricity etc.).

. practice responsible marketing;

. ensure that their development is developed in accordance with the principles of sustainability (cultural authenticity, social inclusion, environmental conservation, quality of service and a good ability of local management) causing the least possible negative impact.

Environmental education and tourism

Environmental education is a requirement of the environmental crisis we are experiencing in contemporary times, and can be transmitted through formal and non-formal educational processes. The first process is set by the curricula of educational institutions, and the second is one that occurs outside of institutionalized environments through activities or environmental messages that inform and to educate without any actual perception of the subject on such a process, where you can enter some tourist activities.

Grimm, Loose and Sampaio (2013: 38), argue that environmental education "occupies a prominent place in the tourism production chain, since the tourist interacts with all elements directly or indirectly and, therefore, the educational practice can be conceived from all the elements that make up the tourism industry. "

It is in this perspective that tourism should promote environmental knowledge and education level, combining information and environmental actions through direct contact and / or experiences related to local natural heritage. Thus, it is believed that by creating opportunities for interaction with the tourist community, can provide new ways to circumvent environmental issues.

Therefore, the relationship between tourism based on criteria of sustainability and environmental education must aim to build public more supportive of tourists and people with responsible attitudes compared to spaces that visit. This environmental crisis makes it imperative that tourism is a driver of good environmental practices, promoting harmony between man (tourist) and nature, as well as an education bidirectional nature between man (tourist) and host who promotes the sharing of customs, roots and local culture.

Bearing in mind that, in contemporary societies, economic interests outweigh the environmental, we can say that tourism entails a social paradox, since that is the economic part that is the engine of this practice, but it is the environmental part that fits most tourist motivations (beach, countryside, mountains, etc..). Tourism is thus dependent on the use of the environment and should be set in the light of sustainability, ie it must use natural resources without compromising its capacity for renewal and conservation. It was perhaps the degradation of these natural spaces that currently starts a new form of tourism, in light of the design of emerging global village: a contemporary tourism-oriented nature, which is configured as a non-formal environmental education in order to remake relations man and nature. This is relearning senses to nature and awareness that environmental degradation results from human action and there is no way to save the environment if we do not change our behavior and our way of life.

Sauvé (2005) proposes the reconstruction of the feeling of belonging to nature, suggesting that environmental education privileges, formally or not, the closest relationship between man and the environment. Whether contemporary tourist or individuals of indigenous communities, have become increasingly demanding in seeking conniving tourist activities with the environment. In this sense, tourism has gradually adjust to in order to attend a public increasingly demanding and more oriented towards conservation and environmental protection consumer. We speak therefore of environmental tourism or ecotourism, whose activities can be very different, eg, hiking, biking, rafting, mountain biking, bird watching, etc. (Neiman & Rabinovich, 2008).

Under this design, the tourist activity must transform the perception of tourists, contributing to the holistic education and awareness of environmental issues, and revealing the transformative potential of the travel experience of other cultures and ways of acting.

Barcelos (2012) refers to the importance of the affective and playful engagement that is triggered during the practice of tourism, noting that the lack of such involvement difficult to create roots for environmental education. According to Grimm, Loose and Sampaio (2013), experiments and experiences offered by tourism can generate reflections and questions about the nature-society relations, and the communities where tourism is projected, as well as globally. This is precisely the aim of environmental education. The same authors also say that social and educational experiences that go beyond the time of the visit and reach the daily lives of individuals through communication between people from different places and tourism for the environment can be generated.

Environmental education emerges from the experience lived during the tourist activities resulting in sensitization / awareness to the subject with the care and respect needed in human-nature relationship.

One of the aspects we can point out the tourism-environment concerns the active participation of local community in the planning of tourism activities, which is directed to the protection of the local natural and cultural heritage (Swarbrooke, 2000; Santos & Arantes, 2011). It is based on this assumption that highlights the importance of environmental education, and its broker the local population of the regions visited. Environmental education can only be systematically from the

observations of the same agent, the same agent which os responsible for their applicability and application of appropriate indigenous community.

Cascino (2000) then states that environmental education should be seen as a shared responsibility, as it believes that the creation of ecotourism is the responsibility of concerned individuals to do something new. Environmental education must configure the sustainable tourism as an inter-relationship with the indigenous community and the environment, linking the consumption of space, natural and cultural heritage in a sustainable manner.

Grimm, Loose and Sampaio (2013: 39) state that "the effort to articulate the themes of tourism, communication, sustainability and environmental education part of the concerns arising from the dialogue of knowledge provided by interdisciplinary academic experience." The same authors state that the establishment of tourism can be sustainable in that other rationalities emerge and dialogue towards a new development of the communities where recetoras care are promoted and values that there has, because unique. Only thus promote "other worldviews, more integrative over society-nature relationship, permeating generations" (Grimm, Loose and Sampaio, 2013: 40).

According Ruschmann (1997) "citizen-tourist" must be educated to a conscious participation in protecting the environment not only during the holidays but also in everyday life when you are at your place of origin.

Machado and Morales (2010) say that tourism, from a local based, can be the creator of educators situations with environmental orientation characterized by questioning environmental issues and developing critical spirit. Also report that individuals of the visited the city, by participating and taking ownership of the tourism organization, can build different looks and develop new perceptions about the environment they live in, ie, educate themselves. And an share these other viewpoints and these new perceptions with tourists who visit them, also encourage them to transformative visions.

The same authors suggest a new approach to tourism in which the residents of the local community can (re)visit their own place of habitual residence, and thus counteract the usual characterization of tourism that involves physical movement to different places of dwelling. The only displacements that are observed here are the look, the understanding of the action.

This is an educational proposal that sets the light of social being in trials, experiences, reflections and critical look, rebuilding how society views social and environmental issues. Therefore, this approach aims not only transformations at an individual level but also at a collective level.

According to Rodrigues (2000) the sustainability of tourism must be socially constructed, stating that the big challenge is to build the utopia of a sustainable society.

Method

The methodology points the way of thinking and the practice exercised in approaching reality. Thus, the methodology of a research becomes a research tool by which the proposed problem is feasible in order to that the objectives are achieved (Minayo ,2001). In this study we have a bibliographic and documental research, for a theoretical study in depth by consulting books, journals, legislation, institutional documents and other available sources; review of literature pertinent to man and its relation to the environment, sustainable development, tourism, environmental education, ethics of responsibility, ecological literacy, citizenship and other aspects relevant to the topic.

Discussion

Tourism should enhance the preservation of the environment as well as improving and maintaining the quality of life of communities that are visited by tourists.

It is urgent to awake in people and tourists the ability to understand the environment, and the environment that surrounds them, but it is also necessary to call for a more active participation of all of us. When tourism is pondered only with the economic aspect, without valuing its consequences, can jeopardize the life period of this place.

Tourism, from a local based, can create new forms of environmental education to tourists and to the communities that are visited, by questioning environmental issues and developing critical spirit. The key for a successful education is the "sense of community", that can be characterized by unic relationships among community residents that share common interests. And by passing through this "sense of community" to tourists, this sense of protecting what belongs to us (NIMBY or NIABY), we can observe the great potential of this kind of revolutionary education: the transformative and productive tourism experiences, which are simultaneously an exploration of new cultures and the discovery of the joy experienced in nature.

Environmental education aims to outline guiding paths able to define a sustainable future, committed to the social, forming environmentally conscious and responsible citizens, not only to his generation but also to future generations.

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INNOVATION POSIBILITIES IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING STAFF COMPETENCIES DEVELOPMENT MICROEXPRESIONS – „THE VOICE OF TRUTH" IN THE SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

To investigate the human being determines continuously the interest and the need to discover. Science revels specific features of human being, on how common as they are fundamental in the relational and socio-educational context. This context is mainly generated by the actual economic development. Even because this social, economic, and educational context, we aim to analyze micro expression's meanings within the context of competencies development for those who are involved in the education and training field. The objective of our approach is to demonstrate that is necessary to improve the training offers for the education and training staff innovatively fructifying one of the interesting areas of the Neuro-Linguistic Programming – micro-expressions. The adjustment of the relations between actors involved in the educational process has implications in the social sphere, in a wider context. The balance of the interaction between teacher and students affects majorly the welfare of the society. The educational atmosphere influences the student's results, the results of tomorrow professional. The training providers in the educational field don't embodied in their training offers the micro-expression issue, to recognize immediately the student's reactions. So, we intend to open the discussion about the integration of the micro-expression issue in the training programs for teachers and trainers. The relation between employer/ manager/ leader/ teacher/ trainer and the student could be seen as the relation between buyer and seller: the teacher/ trainer offers to the students his education/ training services, his competencies. The employer has to anticipate the relation between teacher and student, if he wants to change the school managed by him selves. He should offer for his students an interlocutor able to understand student's reactions – using both verbal and non-verbal language. A teacher trained to understand micro-expressions is an expert. In this context, the relation between teacher and student could be seen as a contextual aspect of training, supervised by controlling the non-verbal dialogue.

Keywords: Innovation, education, training, competencies, development, micro-expressions

Introduction

The education and training staff, firstly teachers, is the main professional category always invoked when are discussed and publicized the learning results of the students. Even if the directly determination relation between the quality of the teacher professional training and the quality of the students' learning results is controversial, within the social perception at the general level, teachers are mainly responsible for students' learning results. This is the way to anticipate and foreshadow the directions of intervention for those situations from a certain context where the learning results are not satisfying at the national level. In this case is Romania. Relevant examples are those encountered during the last 4 years in case of national Baccalaureate examination or the international evaluations (TIMSS, PISA, PIRLS). Concluding, the priority is teacher training. For this area, because the resources are limited, and the critical issues of the

wide field of the teacher training are numerous, is necessary to identify and select those aspects which lead explicitly to improve learning results. Analysis of the teacher training offers at national level, especially for initial training, but also for continuing training, revel an insignificant interest for developing interaction competencies with student as learner. In many cases this issue is a kind of topic included in the large areas of instruction theory and methodology, pedagogical communication or classroom management. In these contexts are emphasized some aspects of the learning situation structure such as: educational aims, learning content (meanings recognized by educational actors), and instruction time. The meanings of the interaction between teacher and student, the fundamental corpus of knowledge regarding the interaction competencies of the teacher have not the same importance.

If we try to imagine the educational situation as a potential authentic social context, relevant for the real life of the student in the future, especially for his future professional life, we become able to discover another key issues relevant for teacher training or educational research such as:

- The impact or the effects of non-verbal communication on students, at general level, and different aspects of learning – motivation, interest, observational skills, understanding, creativity, etc.;
- Useful research tools for investigation of the context – including cultural context – where the students' prior learning was structured;
- Useful research tools for investigation of the professional context where the student, at the end of the school, will use his learning results; this is the vocational education and training component, even during those periods of education which are not explicitly allocated for vocational education and training (VET);
- To fundament the learning offers on evidences provided by students themselves as beneficiaries of their teachers services (feedback perception),
- Etc.

Of course, these aspects could be completed or shaded with specific elements in case of designing the training offers for those who intend to become trainers in the field of education and training.

One from the previous presented aspects could be considered a specific key issue for improvement the teacher training and trainer of trainers offers in the meantime. This is the micro expression field as:

a. Knowledge area significant for the field of science of education;
b. Vocational competencies that could be achieved by teachers in relation with micro expression;
c. Possible relations/ dimensions of the micro expression field, in educational context, to be investigated using educational research tools.

These areas could be completed or developed and could become relevant for the field of theory or the practice of educational sciences. More than these we can talk about the possibility to extend them to other fields of activity/ occupational area, in accordance with the specification of their particularities.

As a relevant area for the educational sciences field the micro expression embody knowledge about: practical and theoretical contributions to develop the micro expression domain (the epistemological identity of the domain), micro expressions types – desciption, ways to identify/ decode, causality, micro expressions in the human behavior context, micro expressions in the social interactions' context, educational context: classroom – teaching, students counseling, remedial education, pupils with special educational needs approach, learning in non-formal and informal contexts, educational management, etc.

With regard to the vocational competencies related within the micro expressions field that can be achieved by teachers, like the communication area in general, we'll focus on two dimensions: messages reception, decoding, and expression. After reception and decoding, for teachers is crucial how they use the decoded message following educational aims, in accordance with existing good practices and research results. Micro expressions become also significant for the teaching process itself structured as teaching, learning, and evaluation.

There are some examples of possible competencies to be achieved by teachers who value the micro expressions:

- The complex understanding of the students' answers/ results, in accordance with the verbal/ written, and non-verbal meanings;
- Providing feedback for students in accordance with their reactions expressed also through micro expressions;
- Consistent, systematic, and continue observation of the students' micro expressions during the learning activities, as a mean of improve the quality of these activities;

- Expressing coherent messages for students as their verbal and non-verbal content (including the message communicated through micro expressions);
- Supporting students to be aware of the messages expressed through micro expressions;
- Individualizing (personalizing) the learning offers depending on the students' micro expressions;
- Improving the managerial team' interaction competencies using micro expressions;
- etc.

These competencies could be diversified depending on different contexts or identified needs and could be converted in purposes for teachers training programs.

In the field of micro expressions could generate interest for educational research aspects such as:

- The types of micro expressions that appear often in students' reactions, in the context of facing different learning contents, at different levels of complexity;
- The types of micro expressions that appear often in students' reactions, in the context of receiving different types of feedback – positive or negative;
- The types of micro expressions that appear often in students' reactions, in the context of receiving different messages form teacher – learning tasks, evaluation tasks, evaluative judgments, appreciations about their behavior, coherent or incoherent verbal and non-verbal messages and so on;
- Types of teachers' micro expressions that determine the improvement or not the level of performance in relation with learning results,
- etc.

Obviously there are more significant aspects for difficult situations that could be inquired in complex, particular contexts, and approached through action research or could be structured study cases having micro expressions as predictor. Also we can imagine in a research enterprise how to correlates micro expressions with some other emotional expressions, detailed through indicators such as: dermal humidity, heart rhythm, respiratory rhythm, etc. The results of this kind of research could be considered useful evidences for the education and training field, but also for other occupational fields,at an extended level.

Returning at the necessity of improving and diversifying teacher training offers, in order to increase the social and vocational relevance of the teachers' interventions on their students, we can continuously identify issues like micro expressions that skill them in accordance with the existing labor markets' requirements – competitiveness, professionalization for regulated occupations, high professional performances that assure the learning achievements' transfer, etc.

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A Study Aiming To Determine The Effect Of Quality Of Work Life Perception Of Workers Of Tourism Sector On Their Intention Of Staying At Their Job

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Abstract

Quality of work life should be improved in order to keep up with the changes in the world, reduce work stress, increase efficiency and competition and benefit workers. The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of quality of work life perceptions on the intention to stay at the job. First of all, literature has been reviewed. A questionnaire has been applied on 474 participants in total who work in tourism sector. Obtained data have been analyzed with SPSS statistics software. Study's structural validity has been proved through explanatory factor analysis. Result of the study showed presence of a positive relation between quality of work life factors and dimension of intention towards staying at the job.

Key Words: Tourism,/Work / Work Life/ Quality of Work Life / Intention to Stay at the Job

INTRODUCTION

Work life has an important place in the life of workers. Since performing a certain job would take up some time, work life is also important in terms of psychology. Work has important properties in workers life such as spending time, directing life energy to useful purposes and protecting mental health through satisfaction by doing so. In recent years, concept of quality of work life began to refer to providing satisfying work conditions for workers. This concept provides physical and psychological benefits to workers by creating better working conditions through some changes in the current working environment, by doing so it positively contributes to worker's dignity; in other words it is a management approach with a focus on worker. (Öğe, 2000: 67-68)

Quality of work life is understood as agreeableness or disagreeableness of working environment from the perspective of workers. Since main purpose of a business is productivity, it is important to develop a working environment for the workers to make them feel comfortable and to improve their efficiency (Davis, 1981: 330).

Most of the studies that suggest quality of work life has an effect on workers' intention to stay at the job, put forth that issues such as insufficient organizational support, perceived injustice, mistrust of workers to the organization and managers are proven to have an effect on the intention of the workers to quite their job (Aryee, Budhwar and Chen, 2002; Hian and Einstein, 1990; Huzzard, 2003). Improving working conditions of workers, enables success in business. The job's quality would increase inevitably as a result of efficiently working employees. Therefore, quality of work life is understood as one of the most important subjects from the perspective of workers and also managers.

Quality of Work Life

The term quality of work life (QWL), sometimes referred as "working life quality", is translated to Turkish as "çalışma yaşam kalitesi" (ÇYK) but other expressions are also used to transfer the meaning of working life quality, qualification of work life, humanization of work life/job. In addition to this, different concepts are being used in many countries; some of the examples are: "improvement of work life" in France or Francophone countries, "protection of workers" in socialist countries, and "democratization of working environment and workplace" in Scandinavian countries (Dikmetaş, 2004: 56).

Quality of work life is a concept that broad in scope, its limits are fuzzy and its perception and definition varies in time according to countries, regions, even sectors within the same country, its content and priorities may differ from person to person also (Schulze, 1998: 528).

Newstrom and Davis (1997, 293) define quality of work life as everything to be found in workplace which is in favor of workers and against them. This definition is important since it considers quality of work life as extensive. QWL's domain contains improvement of worker's skills, wage, health, work satisfaction, improvement of physical conditions as well as issues that negatively effect worker such as alienation to job, stress, fatigue (Newstrom and Davis, 1997: 293).

While Graber argues that objective indications of behavioral consequences other than job satisfaction such as absence, quitting the job and efficiency should also be used within the quality of work life's scope; Seashore argues that personal differences such as skills, values and expectations should also be evaluated within the frame of this concept (Araz, 1991: 14-15).

Dimensions of Quality of Work Life

Quality of work life typically involves eight sub dimensions. These are: safe and secure working conditions, provision of opportunities to improve and use individual capacity (skill improvement and utilization opportunities), provision of opportunities for continuous development and security directed towards future (continuous development and improvement opportunities), social integration within the organization, workers' rights of personal immunity, liberty of expression and equality (laws within the organization), balance of worker role within the organization and other roles individual has in life (spheres of working life and private life), work organization with social responsibilities (social dimension of work life), adequate and fair salary (Solmuş, 2000: 37-38; Şimşek et al., 2001: 137-138; Özkalp and Kırel, 2001: 553, Erginer, 2003: 207-211.)

Programs to Improve Quality of Work Life

Efforts to implement programs to improve quality of work life within the scope of "socio-technique" organization and management system in order to provide productivity and high product quality play an important role in constituting today's management, organization and work structures. For quality of work life is a multi-dimensional or systematic approach in forming series of beliefs and values that affect every aspect of the organization (Can, 1991: 89). The intention to stay at the job refers to the worker's state of staying in the same business willfully and thoughtfully.

While organizational efforts have a positive effect on the worker's staying at the job, mid level managers have an effect on worker's decision to quit the job. Organizational efforts creates loyal worker for these managers in time and this constitutes the reason for workers' tendency to stay at the job (Chen, 2001: 655).

Relation between Quality of Work Life and Intention of Staying at the Job

Choice of human resources, success evaluation, carrier planning, salary system, system of motivation and reward, training and development programs, work programs, programs which constitute the basis of human resources management are important factors in improving QWL. Job design is considered as a QWL program and thought of as having a motivational aspect in increasing worker's loyalty to organization (Garg and Rastogi, 2006; Yüksel, 1998).

According to Normala (2010) there is a strong and positive relation between QWL and loyalty of workers to the organization they work for. From this point, it is possible to say that workers with high QWL will be more loyal to the organization they work for (Normala, 2010: 77).

 Harmonization of people's capacities and physical structure of their working environment, productive, safe and comfortable operation of organizational equipment, materials, machines and working system cause increase of trust in workers for the organization and solidify their intention to stay at the job (Meister, 2001; Genaidy et al, 2002).

Study Aiming to Determine the Effect of Quality of Work Life Perception of Workers of Tourism Sector on Their Intention of Staying at Their Job

Aim, Importance and Method of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of quality of work life perceptions of workers on their intention to stay at the job. Below questions were asked in order to realize the aim of the study.

According to workers of tourism sector, how is quality of work life in tourism sector?

Do opinions of workers of tourism sector on quality of work life and their intention to stay at the job differ meaningfully according to demographic data?

Do perceptions of quality of work life have an effect on the intention of workers to stay at the job?

With this study, the effect of quality of work life perceptions of workers of tourism sector on their intentions to stay at the job has been determined. The identification of quality of work life perceptions of workers and their intentions to stay at the job is expected to contribute to efforts towards resolution of issues regarding workers of tourism sector. The universe of this study is constituted of all people working in tourism sector in Antalya. The results obtained are thought to provide important tips for the workers and managers of tourism sector.

Questionnaire has been utilized as data collection tool. Questionnaire is constituted of three sections. First section consists of "Personal Information Scale" aimed at defining personal properties of participants of the survey, second section consists of "Quality of Work Life Scale" which is developed by researcher and aimed at measuring qualities of work life of workers of tourism sector. Scale has been prepared in four dimensions consisting of work life balance, social factors, economical factors and content of job in order to measure QWL of workers of tourism sector.

Quality of Work Life Scale

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling sufficiency of the scale has proven to be 0.911. This value shows that data is suitable for factor analysis. Reliability analysis of the scale which was performed on the dimensions obtained in factor analysis conducted with 25 variables resulted in reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) of 0.919. 4 factors resulted from analysis, these are respectively: content of job, social factors, work life balance and economical factors. Obtained 4 factors explain 59.225% of total variance. Bartlett test value has proven to be 0.000 ($p<0.05$), and this shows that correlation between variables is meaningful. Table 1 shows values of internal consistency (cronbach alpha) of factors. Reliability coefficients of factors which were calculated by Cronbach Alpha are between 0.803 and 0.901. Values in question were proven to be at an acceptable level.

And third section of the questionnaire consists of "Scale of Intention of Staying at the Job" aimed at measuring workers' Intentions of Staying at the Job.

Demographics of Participants

As seen in Table 1. 474 workers in total participated in the survey. Demographic profile of participants is given in Table 2.

We can summarize socio-demographic properties of organization employees in the scope of the study as follows. Of 474 workers in total; 37% female, 63% male; department of study 67% travel management, 38% hospitality management and 1% food & beverage management; grade 1% second grade, 47% third grade, 52% forth grade. Graduated high school of workers; 47% Vocational Hotel Management and Tourism High School, 4% Vocational High School for Girls, 8% Multi-Program High School, 27% Private-High School and 23% other high schools; 98% of workers have worked in tourism sector before and 1% have not. 40% of workers have worked in tourism sector for 1-3 years, 38% for 4-6 years, 21% for 7-9 years and 0.2% for 10 years and more. 2% of workers did internship for 0-40 days, 14% for 40-80 days, 28% for 80-120 days and 57% for more than 120 days. Predominant sector of internship of workers were: 29% food and beverage, 2% sales and marketing, 8% reservation, 17% front desk, 20% operation, 7% accounting, 2% guest relations, 1% housekeeping, 1% human resources, 1% ticket sales and 1% animation.

Quality of Work Life and Intention of Staying at the Job And Workers' Intention of Staying at the Job

As seen in Table 2. According to results of descriptive statistics concerning intention of staying at the job, the highest average (2.398) belongs to the group whose expectations about work life are met, while the lowest average (2.094) belongs to the group who would not prefer to work in any other sector than tourism. When analyzed, the averages remaining above 2 and close to 3 indicates that workers have a negative perception in general about staying at the sector.

Relation between Quality of Work Life and Intention of Staying at the Job

Correlation analysis is utilized when a study concerning direction and force of relation between two variables is desired to be performed. As results of analysis, values close to 0 indicate a direct and weak relation between two variables while values close to 1 indicate a direct and strong relation between two variables (Bayram, 2004: 115). Degrees of relation of correlation coefficients: 0 no relation, 01-10 very weak, 11-20 relatively very weak, 21-30 weak, 31-40 relatively weak, 41-50 slightly weak, 51-60 slightly strong, 61-70 relatively strong, 71-80 strong, 81-90 relatively very strong, 91-100 very strong (Nakıp, 2003: 322).

When results of analysis examined, positive and meaningful relations at the level of 0.001 have been found between all the dimensions. When table is examined, the strongest relation is found between quality of work life and content of job dimensions (r=.657). On the other hand, the weakest relation is found between intention of staying at the job and social factors (r=.311).

Correlation Analysis Concerning Quality of Work Life and Intention of Staying at the Job

As seen in Table 3. When correlation analysis results are examined it is seen that correlation coefficient numbers are not above 0.85. This also shows that the study has discrimination validity. By this way, after structural validity has been proved by factor analysis, discrimination validity is proven by correlation analysis.

Regression analysis has been conducted in order to determine the effect of quality of work life perceptions of workers on their intentions of staying at the job. The result of anova analysis aimed at determining whether or not model is statistically meaningful, was F=35.102, p=0.000 and this value has been found to be meaningful statistically at the significance level of 1%. R2 value concerning analysis has been found to be 0.230. In other words, 23% of quality of work life variables are explained by intention of staying at the job variable (R=.480, R2=.230, P<0.01). This percentage shows that quality of work life perceptions of workers have a small effect on their intentions of staying in the sector. When we look at the results with regard to Durbin-Watson test, the value is determined as 1.824 in the study. Durbin-Watson value indicates that there is no autocorrelation in the model if it is in the range of 1.5-2.5.

Table 4 shows which factors of quality of work life have a bigger effect on intention of staying at the job and which factors do not have any effect.

Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Factors of Quality of Life Which Effects Intention of Staying at the Job

In Table 4, the standardized regression coefficients (β) of independent variables which are present in the study, and t and p values concerning their meaningfulness have been given.

When Table 5 is analyzed, the most effective factor of quality of work life perceptions of workers on intention of staying at the job is found to be "social factors". According to regression coefficient which is standardized to test the predictive power of independent variables concerning intention of staying at the job, social factors, economical factors (p<0.01) and work life balance (p<0.05) have been observed to be meaningfully predictive on intention of staying at the job. It is also observed that content of job does not have a statistically meaningful effect on intention of staying at the job.

In conclusion, conducted regression analysis shows that quality of work life factors have an effect on intention of staying at the job, although small.

Independent sample t test analysis has been conducted concerning the relation of demographic variables with quality of work life perceptions and intentions of staying at the job of people who work in tourism sector. The results of t test analysis in question are given in Table 5.

 "Independent Sampling T Test" Analysis Results Concerning Gender Variable of Survey Group

Analyzing the relation gender has to the relation between quality of work life and intention of staying at the job in a more detailed way has been considered more beneficial and independent sampling t test has been applied with this purpose. As seen in Table 5, only in work life balance perception of workers a significant difference according to gender has been found at 0.05. Other than this, no significant difference have been found in dimensions of content of job, social factors, economical factors and intention of staying at the job.

Secondly; data have been analyzed by one way anova test in order to find out whether there is a difference in quality of work life perceptions and the intentions of staying at the job with regard to independent variables of "studied department", "age", "grade" and "graduated high school".

Findings Concerning Differences of Participants' Quality of Work Life and Intentions of Staying at the Job According Their Demographics

As seen in Table 6, grades, graduated high schools and studied departments do not create a significant difference in participants' quality of work life perceptions and intentions of staying at the job. Nonetheless, at the dimension of economical factor, ages of participants show a significant difference at the level of 0.05.

Conclusion and Suggestions

Findings of this study show that workers' quality of work life perceptions and intentions of staying at the job are correlated.

In the scope of this study, the most effective factor of quality of work life perceptions of workers of tourism sector on intention of staying at the job is found to be "social factors". Human is a social being and would desire psychological satisfaction in workplace too. This is why workers' intention of staying at the job is closely related to having good friendships at workplace, working in a respectful manner and with a team spirit, attending social organizations at workplace and having opportunities to improve themselves. Factors of content of job and work life balance are less prioritized by workers who are happy and psychologically satisfied in workplace.

Tourism is especially a labor intense sector and when factors such as seasonality, irregular working hours, qualified worker problem, high labor turnover rate are considered, the effect of social factors have on intention of staying at the job is very meaningful. Workers, who are not satisfied psychologically and socially at the place of work, could have the desire of quitting their job even though the salaries are high. In this sense, employers should interpret this well. Employers should organize social activities for their employees and contribute to social integration among workers in the organization.

Other factors of quality of work life perceptions of workers which have effect on intention of staying at the job are economical factors and work life balance. Content of job however, does not have an effect on intention of staying at the job. Looking from this perspective, it is concluded that for people who work in tourism sector, social factors in workplace are more effective on intentions of staying at the job than the actual job they perform.

As a result of multiple regression analysis conducted in the scope of the study, it is found that quality of work life perceptions of workers of tourism sector have an effect of 23% on intention of staying at the job.

According to the results of the analyses conducted, it is concluded that genders, grades, graduated high schools and studied departments do not create a significant difference in participants' quality of work life perceptions and intentions of staying at the job.

Priorities with regard to QWL increase, humanization of the job are determined within the unique conditions of every organization. However, first step to humanize the job could be providing for psychological and social needs of workers and improving working conditions in tourism sector. Thus, with fulfilled psychological and social needs, workers' intentions of staying at the job as well as their loyalty to organization will increase.

The results of study have to be considered by tourism sector. Understanding the importance of the effect of quality of work life on intention of staying at the job is considered to be a contribution to the sector.

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Table 1. Demographic Profile of Participants

Gender	Frequency	%	Predominant Section of Internship	Frequency	%
Female	175	37	Food & Beverage	139	29,3
Male	299	63	Service-Bar	55	11,6
Total	474	100	Sales-Marketing	9	1,9
Department			Reservation	38	8
Travel Management	289	61	Front Desk	82	17,3
Hospitality Management	182	38,4	Operation	93	19,6
Food & Beverage Management	3	0,6	Accounting	34	7,2
Total	474	100	Guest Relations	7	1,5
Grade			Housekeeping	3	0,6
Grade	5	1,1	Human Resources	5	1,1
Grade	221	46,6	Ticket Sales	5	1,1
Grade	248	52,3	Animation	4	0,8
Total	474	100	Total	474	100
			Term of Employment in Tourism Sector		
Graduated High School			Between 1-3 years	189	39,9
Vocational Hotel Man.&Tourism	225	47,5	Between 4-6 years	182	38.04

Vocational School for Girls	21	4,4	Between 7-9 years	102	21,4
Multi-Program High School	39	8,2	10 years and more	1	0,2
Private-High School	81	17,1	Total	474	100
Other	108	22,8	Term of internship		
Total	474	100	0-40 days	10	2,1
Condition of Having Worked in Tourism Previously			40-80 days	64	13,5
Yes	468	98,7	80-120 days	131	27,6
No	6	1,3	More than 120 days	269	56,8
Total	474	100	Total	474	100

Table 2. Explanatory Statistics Related to Intention of Staying at the Job

Variables	Average	Standard deviation
Tourism sector meets my expectations about work life.	2,094	0,841
I would not prefer to work at any other sector than tourism.	2,398	0,749

Table 3. Correlation Analysis Concerning Quality of Work Life and Intention of Staying at the Job

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5
1. Content of Job	1				
2. Social Factors	,342**	1			
3. Work Life Balance	,657**	,472**	1		
4. Economical Factors	,374**	,400**	,454**	1	
5. Intention of Staying at the Job	,364**	,311**	,444**	,327**	1

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4. Multiple Regression Analysis Concerning Factors of Quality of Life Which Effects Intention of Staying at the Job

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Beta Value	T Value	P Value
Intention of Staying at the Job	Content of Job	,106	1,958	,051
	Work Life Balance	,097	2,048	,041*
	Social Factors	,272	4,629	,000**
	Economical Factors	,126	2,672	,008**

** $p < 0.01$

* $p < 0.05$

Table 5. "Independent Sampling T Test" Analysis Results Concerning Gender Variable of Survey Group

Dimensions	Variables	N	$\overline{X}$	T	P
Content of Job	Female	175	3,53	-,026	,979
	Male	299	3,53		
Social Factors	Female	175	3,19	,774	,439
	Male	299	3,12		
Work Life Balance	Female	175	2,95	2,790	,005*
	Male	299	2,70		
Economical Factors	Female	175	2,60	-,794	,428
	Male	299	2,67		
Intention of Staying at the Job	Female	175	1,73	-,658	,511
	Male	299	1,77		

* p<0.05

Table 6. Findings Concerning Differences of Participants' Quality of Work Life and Intentions of Staying at the Job According Their Demographics

Dimensions / Variables	Age	Grade	Graduated High School	Studied Department
Content of Job	,234	,343	0,81	,133
Social Factors	,068	,441	,205	,388
Work Life Balance	,341	,842	,366	,494
Economical Factors	,013*	,359	,472	,416
Intention of Staying at the Job	,393	,474	0,12	,521

* p<0.05

Importance of Cultural Competence Development in Training Pre-service Teachers of Foreign Languages

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Abstract

Teaching and learning a foreign language is incomplete and inaccurate without the study of culture. For learners, language studies seem senseless if they know nothing about the people who speak the target language or the country in which the target language is spoken. By failing to draw students' attention to the cultural elements and to discuss their implications, teachers allow misconceptions to develop in students' minds. Therefore, realizing it or not, language teachers cannot avoid conveying impressions of another culture: language cannot be separated from the culture in which it is embedded. For both scholars and teachers, cultural competence, i.e. the knowledge of the conventions, customs and beliefs of another country, skills and abilities to interpret and relate one's native and foreign cultures, as well as provide critical judgment, is indisputably an integral part of foreign language teaching and learning, and many teachers see it as their goal to incorporate the cultural dimension into the foreign language curriculum. Hence, the article focuses on the importance of developing the cultural competence of pre-service teachers of foreign languages. With this aim, a research was conducted in spring and autumn 2013 and involved a sample of 504 students of foreign languages of five Lithuanian universities: Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences, Vilnius University, Šiauliai University, Vytautas Magnus University and Klaipėda University. The questionnaire consisted of several sections, which aimed at identifying the current level of the cultural competence of pre-service teachers of foreign languages, namely their knowledge about culture in general and country-specific culture facts, emotions evoked by different cultural events, abilities and experience of functioning in different cultural environments, as well as other factors determining their cultural competence.

Key words: culture, cultural competence, foreign language teaching and learning, pre-service teachers of foreign languages, teacher training, native language/culture, target languageculture.

Introduction

The dialectical connection between language and culture has always been a concern of both scholars and educators. In the course of time, the pendulum of the opinions of foreign language researchers and educators has swung either against or in favour of the cultural dimension in foreign language teaching and learning. For example, already in the first decades of the 20th century researchers discussed the importance and possibilities of incorporating cultural components into L2 curriculum. In 1904, in his book How to Teach Foreign Languages, Jespersen stated that 'the highest purpose in the teaching of languages may perhaps be said to be the access to the best thoughts and institutions of a foreign nation in the widest sense of the world' (cited in Genc & Bada, 2005, p. 73). Yet, the most outstanding linguists concerned with the issues of language and culture are Sapir (1962) and Whorf (1956). The focus of their theory is that the world is perceived by human beings in terms of categories found in their mother tongues. However, what is found in one language may not be found in another language due to cultural differences.

The emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the late 70s of the last century notes a critical shift in teaching/learning culture: it marks the paradigm shift from the approach based on form and structure to a plurality of approaches focusing on the learners' communicative needs, as well as expression, interpretation and negotiation of meanings and looks (Savignon, 2002). However, the need for teaching culture in language classes reaches its climax only in the 1990s in the writings of scholars such as Byram (1994, 2002) and Kramsch (2000). People involved in foreign language teaching/learning have again begun to understand the intertwined relations between language and culture. It is maintained that without the study of culture, teaching/learning a foreign language is incomplete and inaccurate. For the learners, language studies seem senseless if they know nothing about the people who speak the target language or the country in which the target language is spoken (Genc & Bada, 2005). As Qu (2010) notes, by failing to draw students' attention to the cultural elements and to discuss their implications, teachers allow misconceptions to develop in students' minds. Therefore, realizing it or not, language teachers cannot avoid conveying impressions of another culture: language cannot be separated from the culture in which it is embedded. For both scholars and teachers, cultural competence, i.e. the knowledge of the conventions, customs and beliefs of another country, skills and abilities to interpret and relate one's

native and foreign cultures, as well as provide critical judgement, is indisputably an integral part of foreign language teaching/learning, and many teachers see it as their goal to incorporate culture aspects into the foreign language curriculum.

The highlighted approach to developing cultural competence through foreign language teaching/learning sets new objectives to education, including foreign language teaching/learning. One of the key goals of the Council of Europe for teaching/learning foreign languages is to 'achieve a wider and deeper understanding of the way of life and forms of thought of other peoples and of their cultural heritage' (CERFL, 2001, p. 6), which is implemented through the development of cultural competence of pre-service and in-service teachers of foreign languages. The significance of cultural education is also highlighted in Lithuanian documents on education. The Law on Education of the Republic of Lithuania (2011) provides for 'conveying national and ethnic fundamentals, and traditions and values of European and world humanist culture, ensuring conditions for a person's mature national identity, moral, aesthetic and academic culture, developing own world outlook, as well as guaranteeing continuity of the national culture, preserving its identity and continuous development of values, cherishing the openness and dialogic nature of the state' as well as 'providing possibilities for a person to acquire fundamentals of democracy-oriented civil and political culture, developing abilities and experience essential for a person to develop as a competent citizen of Lithuania and a member of the European and global multi-cultural community' (2011, p. 15-16).

The changes in foreign language teaching/learning pose challenges for teacher training. A teacher, especially the one of foreign languages, becomes 'a teacher of culture' and is expected to assume new tasks: his/her attention is focused not on mere transfer of knowledge, but rather on the development of new attitudes, skills and critical awareness. In other words, the new task of a teacher of a foreign language is to develop students' competence, which would encourage them to link and compare the cultural values, attitudes and behaviour with the target culture as reflected in the language. The topicality of cultural education is highlighted in the National Description of Teacher Competences of Lithuania, where cultural competence is defined as 'knowledge, skills, abilities, value-based provisions and other personal qualities determining human activity in specific culture(s)' (2007, p. 1). Therefore, the aim of the current research is to disclose the ways of expression of the cultural competence of pre-service teachers of foreign languages and opportunities of its development at the university.

Research Methods

Theoretical methods: analysis of scientific literature and strategic documents on training teachers of foreign languages and the conception of cultural competence;

Empirical methods: a survey, including open-ended and closed-ended questions, which help to reveal the attitude of pre-service teachers of foreign languages to cultural competence and opportunities of its development through target language studies at the university.

Statistical methods: the research data are processed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.0.

Research Sample

The research sample involves 504 students of foreign languages of five largest Lithuanian universities: Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences, Vilnius University, Šiauliai University, Vytautas Magnus University and Klaipėda University. The respondents are to acquire a qualification of a teacher of the English, German, French, Polish or Russian language upon the completion of studies. The total sample includes 83.5% of female students (n=421) and 16.5% of male students (n=81). Such a big discrepancy occurs due to the study preferences of the Lithuanian youth: languages are mostly preferred by females rather than by males.

According to the distribution of the year of studies, the sample splits fairly equally: 30.8% of first-year students (n=155), 25.6% of second-year students (n=129), 26.8% of third-year students (n=135) and 16.9% of fourth-year students (n=85). The number of fourth-year students is smaller than the remaining three groups of the sample, which is conditioned by a larger number of drop-outs incurred in the previous three years of studies.

The distribution of respondents in terms of the institution they study at is as follows: 44.4% study at Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences (n=224), 14.5% study at Vilnius University (n=73), 19.0% study at Vytautas Magnus University (n=96), 14.1% study at Šiauliai University (n=71) and 7.9% at Klaipėda University. The largest number of LUES respondents accounts for the fact that it is the largest teacher training institution in Lithuania: nearly all the study programmes offered by the university grant a teacher's qualification. The situation is different in the remaining four universities, which offer a

considerably smaller number of study programmes granting a teacher's qualification. It is noteworthy that as far as 51% of respondents do not intend to work as teachers (n=257) after graduation.

Theoretical Background of the Research

Scientific literature and education documents define the term competence in a number of different ways. Generally speaking, competence is defined as a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context (Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on Key Competences for Life-long Learning, 2006), which are complemented by values one holds because of one's belonging to a number of social groups (Byram, Gribkova, Starkey, 2002).

The foundation of cultural competence is in the attitudes, which include curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one's own. This means that a learner should not assume that his/her values, beliefs and behaviour are the only possible and naturally correct. They have to be able to see how they might look from an outsider's perspective, i.e. they have to develop an ability to 'decentre'.

Another crucial factor is knowledge and awareness, primarily not about a specific culture, but rather knowledge on how social groups and identities function and what is involved in (inter)cultural interaction. Cultural awareness comprises information about how people behave both linguistically and extra-linguistically in common everyday situations, e.g. greetings, excusing oneself, leave taking, forms of address, asking for or giving directions, expressing respect, thanking, inquiry, giving or receiving compliments, etc., which are complemented by para-linguistic behaviour, such as gestures, touching, eye contact and the like.

Skills are just as important as attitudes and knowledge. Byram (2002) distinguishes between the skills of interpreting and relating, which refer to the ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents or events from one's own; and skills of discovery and interaction, which cover the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication and interaction.

Finally, however open towards, curious about and tolerant of other people's beliefs, values and behaviours learners are, their own beliefs, values and behaviours are deeply embedded and can create reaction and rejection. Therefore, intercultural mediators need some critical awareness or literacy: an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products of one's own and other cultures (Bauman, 2007, p. 35). Australian educationalist M. Pegrum (2008) stresses the significance of critical intercultural literacy, which involves abilities and skills 'to read' cultural information in different information sources, critically assess it in terms of personal knowledge and experience, and at the same time critically evaluate old knowledge in the light of new experience. Such skills are essential for a contemporary student, as they contribute to one's integration into the global world.

In this regard, a four-dimensional model of cultural competence of pre-service teachers of foreign languages has been designed, which includes the following components:

knowledge and awareness of cultural phenomena, which is characterized by the amplitude (the quantity of provided arguments) and profoundness (identification of fundamental properties) of knowledge and awareness;

the sphere of knowledge and awareness is closely linked to the attitude towards culture-specific phenomena in the country of native and target language. It is assumed that this component helps to reveal a respondent's emotional reaction to and evaluation of a cultural object (phenomenon);

involvement in cultural activity, which is characterized by a person's readiness and ability to act in different culture-specific situations;

cultural literacy and experience, which helps to reveal and assess a pre-service teacher's reflection on own cultural and linguistic expression in different cultural contexts.

Procedure of the Research

A questionnaire on the cultural competence of pre-service teachers was designed. It consisted of six sections: four of them are compliant with the four dimensions of the aforesaid model of cultural competence, one section deals with the respondents' evaluation of the opportunities to develop their cultural competence provided by the university they study at,

and the last contains the respondents' demographical data. The paper versions of the questionnaire were distributed to pre-service teachers of foreign languages of five Lithuanian universities personally by the author of the article. Permissions to carry out the research were obtained from the administrative bodies of the faculties implementing the studies of foreign languages in all the universities.

Research Findings

Knowledge and Awareness of Cultural Phenomena

Culture is a very broad concept, so to get to know a given culture means to gain extensive knowledge and awareness of it. Hence, pursuing to explore the dimension of knowledge and awareness of cultural phenomena, four main forms of culture were distinguished: elite (or high culture/big C culture), ethnic (or folk/small-C culture), popular culture and subcultures.

Elite (high) culture is often attributed to aristocracy or upper social class, which is characterized as the ruling culture, which should be observed by everybody, or a privileged culture marked by peculiar spiritual, economic, political and other properties (Best, Lengyel & Verzichelli, 2012). On the other hand, elite (or high) culture embraces world-famous and acknowledged works of art, as well as achievements in sports and science (Andrijauskas, 2006; Gaižutis, 2008; Lang & Lang, 2009).

Ethnic (folk) culture, on the other hand, comprises a wide variety of aspects, many of which are inter-connected, including attitudes, assumptions, beliefs, perceptions, norms and values, social relationships, customs, celebrations, rituals, politeness conventions, patterns of interaction and discourse organization, the use of time in communication and other aspects characteristic of a particular nation or country. This form of culture embraces folk myths, rituals, customs, oral, musical and visual heritage, which are determined by common history, territory, race and language (Andrijauskas, 2006; Bukraba-Rylska, 2002; Fiske, 2008).

Popular culture is based on the stereotypes of mass consciousness, which seeks to imitate celebrities, satisfy hedonistic needs, conforms to the changing conditions and neglects own individuality and distinction. Consumer art, fashion, media and entertainment are attributed to this form of culture (Andrijauskas, 2006; Fiske, 2008).

The conception of contemporary culture is fragmented: the society breaks down into individual groups, which have peculiar culture, repudiate the prevailing norms and create alternative approaches to different aspects of life, including identity, religion, society and others. Subcultures involve independently functioning groups, which choose different stylistic forms to express their individuality and distinctness. They are often defined as either a highly educated part of society, which appears due to professional differentiation, or a completely uneducated marginal group (Andrijauskas, 2006; Ramanauskaitė, 2002).

Seeking to assess the first component of cultural competence, namely knowledge and awareness of cultural phenomena, pre-service teachers of foreign languages were provided with a list of the properties of culture forms and asked to attribute them to an appropriate form of culture. The frequency of the replies of the respondents is provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Attribution of the properties of culture forms by the respondents (%)

Culture form	Elite culture		Ethnic culture		Popular culture		Subcultures	
	Right answers	Wrong answers	Right answers	Wrong answers	Right answers	Wrong answers	Right answers	Wrong answer
Property 1	63.1	36.9	67.3	32.7	14.1	85.9	18.1	81.9
Property 2	37.1	62.9	81.0	19.0	67.7	32.3	68.8	31.2
Property 3	76.6	23.4	81.7	18.3	68.5	31.3	54.6	45.4
Property 4	89.1	10.9	89.7	10.3	56.7	43.3	62.7	37.3
Property 5	32.5	67.5	52.6	47.4	77.4	22.6	58.9	41.1
The mean:	59.68	40.32	74.46	25.54	56.88	43.08	52.58	47.38

The frequency analysis of pre-service teachers' knowledge and awareness of culture forms and their properties revealed that this dimension of cultural competence was rather mediocre. The knowledge about elite, popular and subcultures slightly surpassed 50% of attributing the outlined properties to an appropriate culture form, the least recognizable was subcultures (52.58%). An exception was ethnic culture: the respondents managed to correctly attribute 74% of the outlined features.

Pre-service teachers of foreign languages were also asked to provide own examples illustrating the four culture forms as represented in own country and the country/countries of the studied foreign language. The replies were assessed with regard to the following criteria: 1. The provided examples fully comply with the selected form of culture and represent the country; 2. The provided examples comply with the form of culture but are not country-specific; 3. The provided examples do not comply with the selected form of culture; and 4. No examples are provided. The frequency of the choice of a culture form is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequency of respondents' choice of a culture form

Culture form	Frequency	Percent
Elite culture	89	17,7
Ethnic culture	94	18,7
Popular culture	189	37,5
subcultures	99	19,6
No culture form chosen	33	6,5
Total	504	100,0

The obtained results showed that the most frequent choice of pre-service teachers of foreign languages was popular culture (37%). The frequency of the choice of the remaining three culture forms was relatively equal and ranged from about 18 to 20%. Table 3 provides the data on the examples illustrating the selected culture form in the context of the native country of a respondent and in the context of the country of the target language.

Table 3. Examples illustrating the selected culture form in the context of the ative and target country

Culture / Criterion	Native		Target	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No examples are provided	75	14.9	115	22,8
The provided examples do not comply with the selected form of culture	174	34.5	170	33,7
The provided examples comply with the form of culture but are not country-specific	154	30.6	134	26,6
The provided examples fully comply with the selected form of culture and represent the country	101	20,0	85	16,9
Total	504	100,0	504	

The obtained data demonstrated that the distribution of the results was similar in both contexts: representation of a culture form in the native country and the one of the target language. As it is seen from the table, only about 20% of pre-service teachers of foreign languages provided examples that both complied with the form of culture and represented the selected culture in the context of the native country, whereas the results obtained in terms of the country of the target language were even lower (~17%). A third of future teachers showed good knowledge of culture forms; however, they were not able to attribute it to a specific context of a country (both native and that of the target language). Approximately the same percentage of students (slightly more than a third) showed no awareness of culture forms at all. Consequently, it is assumed that in general the knowledge and awareness of pre-service teachers of foreign languages was average: about a half of the respondents showed considerable understanding of culture forms, but only a small number (~17-20%) could illustrate it with country-specific examples.

Emotional Attitude to Culture-specific Phenomena in the Country of Native and Target Language

Knowledge and awareness of cultural phenomena is closely related to the second dimension of cultural competence, namely emotional attitude to cultural phenomena. It is assumed that emotions and feelings can either promote or suppress the acquisition of received information; thus, this dimension reveals the respondents' emotional attitude to a cultural phenomenon (DeCatanzano D. 2003). Pursuing to assess emotional perception of cultural phenomena, the pre-service teachers of foreign languages were given a list of seven emotions: pride, joy/admiration, concern, responsibility, anger/dissatisfaction, shame and guilt. According to Deardorff (2004) and Žemaitis (2005), these emotions are most frequently experienced with regard to own or target culture. The respondents were asked to define what cultural phenomena (objects, personalities, works of arts, literature, music, etc) raise the aforesaid emotions within the context of the native and target culture. Their replies were assessed in terms of the following criteria: 1. Significant and country-specific cultural phenomena are indicated; 2. Significant aspects are indicated, but they do not relate to cultural phenomena; 3. Insignificant or trivial phenomena are indicated; and 4. No cultural phenomena are provided. The obtained results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Emotional perception of cultural phenomena in the context of the native country (%)

Emotion / Criterion	Pride	Joy/ admiration	Concern	Responsibility	Anger/ dissatisfaction	Shame	Guilt
1. Significant and country-specific cultural phenomena are indicated	64.7	55.3	34.3	29.4	31.3	32.3	28.7
2. Significant aspects are indicated, but they do not relate to cultural phenomena	18.7	25.9	29.8	27.2	23.4	27.0	35.2
3. Insignificant or trivial phenomena are indicated	15.8	15.8	32.8	41.2	40.1	36.7	30.4
4. No cultural phenomena are provided	0.8	3	3.1	2.2	5.2	4.0	5.7

As it is seen from Table 4, the respondents managed to provide examples of significant and country specific phenomena when describing positive emotions, such as pride (~65% with reference to the native country and ~60% with reference to the target country) and joy or admiration (~57% and ~55% respectively). Among the provided phenomena most frequently mentioned were artists (musicians, painters, writers, etc) and their works, folklore, preservation of objects of cultural heritage, cultural education of children, preservation of language and its dialects, as well as different historical facts. About a quarter of pre-service teachers of foreign languages attributed their emotions of pride and joy/admiration (~19% and ~26% respectively) to different significant phenomena; however, these did not relate to a country-specific culture. They included different personal assumptions, like success of studies, consideration for family members, own health, friendship, protection of nature as well as different political and economic situations.

About a third of respondents felt concern about and responsibility for cultural phenomena pertaining to the native country or that of the target language. The future teachers were concerned about the growing emigration of Lithuanian youth to other European countries, which in their words, reduced the number of educated people in the country and weakened the nation itself. Speaking about their native country, the respondents felt responsible for the cultural education of children. Some of them were also worried about the spread of popular culture and the emergence of different subcultures, which incited the decline of the national and ethnic cultures. Another third of the respondents mentioned other significant aspects that did not relate to national culture: they were concerned about or felt responsible for their younger siblings and parents, studies, prospective career, protection of nature, etc. Unfortunately, over 40% of respondents indicated trivial or superficial aspects of their life.

As for the negative emotions, the respondents' replies split in a similar way: about a third of pre-service teachers experienced anger, shame and guilt regarding significant and culture-specific phenomena, such as intolerance to people of other cultures and beliefs, vandalism against objects of cultural heritage, violation of language norms using jargon, slang or borrowings from other languages, uneducated youth, and criminal behaviour of fellow-countrymen abroad, which diminished the status of the country on the international arena. Another third of the respondents specified different aspects unrelated to culture and over 30% of them provided insignificant and trivial ideas.

Involvement in Cultural Activity

The third dimension of cultural competence, involvement in cultural activity, demonstrates a person's capacity to perform specific actions in a certain culture-related situation. It was explored in terms of their capacity to perform culturally with regard to oneself and other people. A number of researchers (Lukšienė, 2000; Assagioli, 2000; Raven, 1999) maintain that cultural behaviour is manifested via a person's cultural intelligence. An intelligent person (homo intelligens) is well-read and highly educated, possesses substantial knowledge and demonstrates abilities of global thinking. Therefore, such a person takes keen interest in different fields of science, new ideas, arts, religion, philosophy, law, history and others. Another important feature is knowledge of the etiquette, which embraces well-mannered behaviour with others (speech, posture, politeness conventions, etc). Assagioli (2000) highlights the moral sense and personal responsibility of an intelligent person, which is manifested through such qualities as strong will, clear conscience, generosity, dignity and others. Moreover, a truly intelligent person shows extensive abilities of self-criticism and self-reflection.

The features of an intelligent person outlined in scientific literature were summarized in a description of an intelligent person, which embraces three aspects: intellect, etiquette and morality; and their empirical properties were identified. As a result, the respondents were provided with this description and asked to assess their achievements in each of the aforesaid aspects by indicating their capacity (I can't do it yet; I rarely do it; I sometimes do it; I can often do it). Their replies were measured in terms of four ranks: 1. A student is able to mechanically perform certain activities; 2. A student is able to establish positive relationships with others; 3. A student is able to defend own position when interacting with others; and 4. A student reflects on own cultural expression, which is considered to show the highest level of a person's cultural intelligence. The obtained results are provided in Picture 1.

Picture 1. Pre-service teachers' assessment of own cultural intelligence
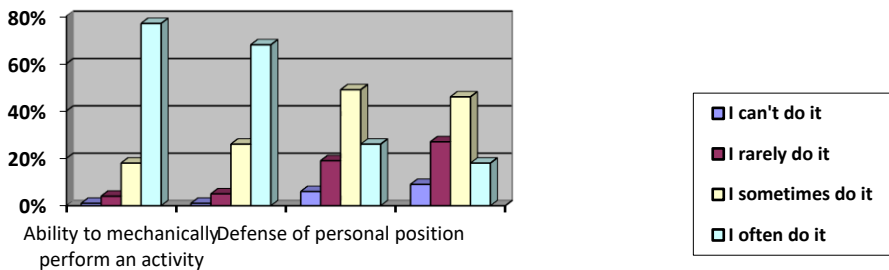
The obtained results demonstrate that as far as 79% of the respondents attributed most frequent occurrences of their cultural intelligence to mechanical performance of activities; whereas 68% maintained being able to frequently establish positive relationships with other people, and 26% stated that they sometimes established positive relationships with others. In terms of the ability to defend own position while interacting with other people, pre-service teachers of foreign languages appeared to be more self-critical: only about a quarter of the respondents (26%) stated that they frequently defended their standpoint, and about a half of the respondents (49%) declared being able to occasionally defend personal stand when communicating with others. Another quarter of pre-service teachers admitted that they rarely or never defended their position (19% and 6% respectively). As far as pre-service teachers' reflection on own cultural expression is concerned, only 18% claimed doing it frequently, whereas less than a half of the respondents (46%) stated that they reflected on their cultural expression occasionally. More than a quarter of pre-service teachers of foreign languages (27%) pointed out that they rarely contemplated on their cultural expression, and 9% admitted never doing it. Consequently, it can be concluded that pre-service teachers evaluated their own cultural intelligence quite critically. It is noteworthy that there was a considerable regression in their ranking of own capacities: the higher the rank (considering mechanical accomplishment of activities as the lowest, and reflection on cultural expression as the highest rank), the less frequent capacities of the respondents were indicated.

Cultural Literacy and Experience

The last explored dimension of cultural competence of pre-service teachers of foreign languages was their cultural literacy and experience. It was explored as two-fold: firstly, it is assumed that experience acquired at different periods in life helps a person to develop and search for better decisions in other (similar or different) situations (Pukelis, 2009). Secondly, linguistic experience, i.e. acquired foreign language skills, ensure success of a person's performance in different intercultural environments.

To explore the first aspect of cultural experience and literacy, the respondents were given an open-ended question to describe the factors of former cultural activity, which they considered as having affected their further development and ability to perform in different cultural situations. The replies were summarized and attributed to the following sections: involvement in art activities (performing drama, painting, dancing, singing, writing literature, etc.); observation of arts (going to theatres, exhibitions, reading books, etc.); involvement in sports activities; travelling; meeting representatives of different cultures; art studies and other activities not related to culture. The obtained results are presented in Picture 2.

Picture 2. Cultural experience of pre-service teachers of foreign languages in terms of involvement in cultural activities
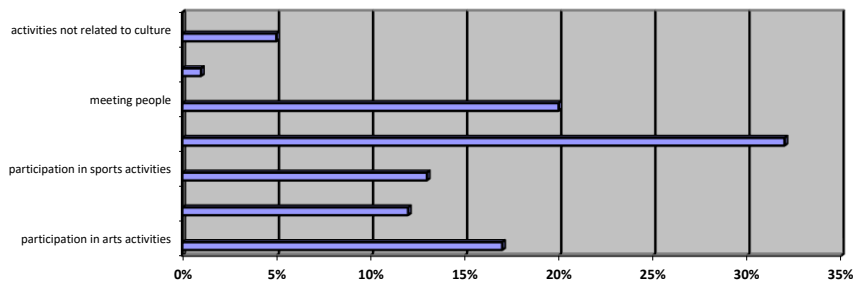
The obtained results revealed that pre-service teachers attached greatest importance to travelling (32%) and meeting people of different cultures (20%). Involvement in different art activities such as performing on stage, writing literature, etc. also received considerable percentage of the respondents' replies (17%). The future teachers of foreign languages attributed less significance to observation of arts and involvement in sports activities (12% and 13% respectively). When asked to validate their choices, the greater part of students emphasized the impact of cultural experience on their future development and ability to cope with various cultural situations; however, only 13% were able to specify it by describing specific situations or providing specific examples. Thus, it leads to a conclusion that pre-service teachers of foreign languages understood the role of gained cultural experience in their life and were able to identify which factors most significantly affected their further development as personalities. However, they were not yet capable of deeper analysis or reflection.

The second factor of pre-service teachers' cultural literacy and experience rests on foreign language skills. The respondents were offered descriptions of different communicative activities (listening, reading, speaking and writing) at different levels and asked to mark the section which best of all reflected their current level of foreign language skills. The descriptor was designed in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001). The distribution of the obtained results is presented in Picture 3.

Picture 3. Distribution of the level of pre-service teachers' communicative skills
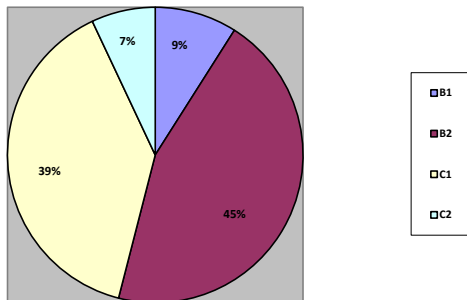
It is noteworthy that a greater part of the respondents attributed the current level of their communicative language skills to Levels B2 (45%) or C1 (39%). And only a considerably smaller number of pre-service teachers considered the level of their communicative language skills as either lower (B1) or higher (C2). No respondents, event first-year students, attributed their skills to level A1/A2. Consequently, it is assumed that the pre-service teachers of foreign languages adequately assessed their foreign language skills.

Pre-service teachers of foreign languages were also asked whether their foreign language skills sufficed communication with representatives of foreign countries. They were asked to assess their skills of interacting in a foreign language as highly sufficient, sufficient, average and lower than average. Their answers are summarized in Picture 4.

Picture 4. Assessment of the sufficiency of foreign language skills of pre-service teachers of foreign languages
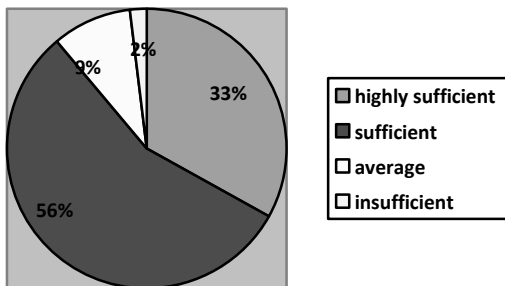
As it is seen from the picture, more than a half of the respondents considered that their foreign language skills were sufficient and a third more believed that they had highly sufficient skills. And only a tenth of pre-service teachers assumed that their foreign language skills were average or insufficient. Consequently, it can be concluded that pre-service teachers of foreign languages did not experience much difficulty while interacting with representatives of different cultures.

Contribution of University Studies of a Foreign Language to the Development of Pre-service Teachers' Cultural Competence

As far as their culture studies at university were concerned, 67% of pre-service stated that they obtained highly sufficient or sufficient knowledge and skills of the cultural aspect of the target language; 6% of the respondents expressed no opinion, whereas 27% of students claimed that they acquired no knowledge or skills, which might be of use for their cultural development. 71% of the respondents, who claimed obtaining sufficient knowledge and skills of cultural competence,

maintained that they acquired cultural knowledge mostly from the courses of Country Studies/History of the Country, Thematic Development/Vocabulary Studies, and 24% added Literary Text Analysis/Literature Studies. Nevertheless, they expected more practical teaching, which would involve communication with visiting teachers, preferably native-speakers (65%), more students coming on exchange programmes (19%), as well as more opportunities to go to universities of the countries of the target language (28%). 73% of pre-service teachers of foreign languages would appreciate more diverse activities integrating cultural aspects into language studies: cultural events and performances, watching and discussing films and videos, organizing virtual tours to other countries, organizing simulation trips to Lithuania for foreign guests and other activities.

Conclusions

The results of the research revealed that the first dimension of pre-service teachers' cultural competence, knowledge and awareness of the forms of culture is rather mediocre. The respondents managed to attribute as far as 50% of the outlined features to an appropriate culture form. An exception was ethnic (folk) culture, where they recognized 74% of the outlined properties. Only a fifth of future teachers of foreign languages could substantiate their understanding of culture forms by providing country-specific examples of cultural phenomena; whereas about a third of research participants showed the ability to provide examples compliant to individual culture forms, though could not relate them to a country-specific context.

The analysis of the research results of emotional attitude to cultural phenomena shows that pre-service teachers of foreign languages largely attribute their emotional perceptions to different personal assumptions, as well as economical, political, environmental and other aspects rather than cultural phenomena. Only about a third of the respondents were able to define their emotions with regard to cultural phenomena, which included artists and their works, preservation of objects of cultural inheritance, cultural education of children, etc. An exception was observed while analyzing the data pertaining to the pre-service teachers' pride and admiration/joy: more than a half of the respondents managed to relate these emotions to significant country-specific phenomena.

As far as pre-service teachers' involvement in cultural activity is concerned, the analysis of the research data revealed that the respondents positioned own capacities rather high: around three quarters of the respondents attributed most frequent occurrences of their cultural behaviour to mechanical performance of activities and establishment of positive relationships with others. In terms of the ability to defend own position interacting with other people, the respondents turned out to be more self-critical: only about a quarter of the respondents stated that they frequently defended their personal position, and about a half of them maintained being able to occasionally do it when communicating with others. It seems that pre-service teachers of foreign languages tend to demonstrate a rather mechanical behaviour in different cultural contexts devoid of deeper analysis or reflection.

The last dimension of cultural competence, cultural literacy and experience, was revealed as two-fold: cultural experience acquired at different periods in life and the acquired foreign language skills, which presumably affect the respondents' capacity to perform in different cultural and intercultural contexts. It appeared that about a half of the respondents attached greatest significance to such factors as travelling and meeting people of different cultures as the most decisive in developing their cultural experience and ability to cope with various (inter)cultural situations. However, only 13% were able to precisely specify the impact of the mentioned factors by giving concrete examples or situations. A majority of respondents attached the current level of their foreign language skills to Levels B2 or C1 and considered them as highly sufficient or sufficient to interact with representatives of different cultures. It is assumed that the pre-service teachers of foreign languages adequately assessed their foreign language skills by stating that they did not experience much difficulty while interacting in different cultural contexts.

Having summarized and considered the results of the study, it appeared that pre-service teachers of foreign languages were eager to enrich their awareness of other cultures while learning a foreign language. In addition, they appreciated interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds, respected their values and wanted to learn how to communicate with them. The respondents' evaluation of the development of their cultural competence at university is rather positive. However, more diverse activities should be offered as well as more opportunities to interact with native speakers should be provided to pre-service teachers.

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The human biomonitoring of occupational exposure to phthalates

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Abstract

Phthalates like endocrine disrupting compounds are ubiquitous environmental contaminants. Long term exposure to these chemicals at the work place has adverse effect on human health and usually leads to diseased conditions. The aim of our study was to assess, by biological monitoring, occupational exposure to di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP), di-n-butyl phthalate (DnBP), diethyl phthalate (DEP) and diisononyl phthalate (DiNP) of occupationally exposed group i.e. workers from plastic manufactory with division of films and composites and injection moulding (n=37; average age 45.6±9.4) in comparison with general population i.e. students and workers from Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra (n=144; average age 28±13.12) in Nitra region of Slovakia. In response to determine human exposure to phthalates, we used high performance liquid chromatography and tandem mass spectrometry analysis (HPLC-MS/MS) to estimate trace levels of 4 phthalate metabolites mono-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (MEHP), monoisononyl phthalate (MiNP), mono-n-butyl phthalate (MnBP) and monoethyl phthalate (MEP) in human urine. Median concentrations of the urinary metabolites in the exposed group were 35.48 µg/l for MEHP, 13.65 µg/l for MiNP, 93.79 µg/l for MEP, 108.62 µg/l for MBP and in general population were 21.62 µg/l for MEHP, 13.26 µg/l for MiNP, 84.36 for µg/l MEP and 88.99 µg/l for MBP. We observed, significantly higher urinary concentration (p≤0.001) of MEHP and on the border of the statistical significance urinary concentration of MiNP (p=0.07) in occupationally exposed group. Despite the fact that phthalates are ubiquitous environmental contaminants, there is evidence of occupational exposure of workers from plastic manufactory by DEHP a DiNP. This study was supported by project VEGA (V1/0042/12).

Keywords: Biomonitoring, MEHP, MiNP, MBP, MEP, Occupational Exposure

Introduction

Phthalates (dialkyl or alkyl aryl esters of phthalic acid) are group of chemicals widely used to render plastics soft and flexible. High-molecular weight phthalates, such as di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate and diisononyl phthalate (DiNP) primarily used as plasticizers in polyvinyl chloride (PVC) can be found in building materials, floorings, cables and wires, furnishing, car interiors, toys, medical devices and food packaging (Blount et al., 2000; David et al., 2005; Loff et al., 2007; Wittassek et al., 2011). Low-molecular weight phthalates, such as diethyl phthalate (DEP) and di-n- butyl phthalate (DnBP) are often used in personal care product, solvents, adhesives or enteric-coated tablets (Hauser & Calafat, 2005; Heudorf et al., 2007; Wittassek et al., 2011).

Phthalates are not covalently bound to PVC they can leach, migrate or evaporate into indoor air and atmosphere, foodstuff and other materials leads to human exposure (contamination) via inhalation, ingestion and dermal contact (Heudorf et al., 2007). Upon exposure, phthalates are rapidly metabolized to their corresponding hydrolytic monoesters,while DEHP and other higher molecular weight phthalates are further metabolized to several oxidative metabolites. (Koch et al., 2004, 2005; Koch & Angerer, 2007). Monoester and oxidative metabolites may be glucuronidated before excretion and subsequently excreted in urine, faeces (Silva et al., 2003). The content of phthalate metabolites in human urine represents a measure of the exposure of parent diester occurred within the last 24 hour however some phthalates (i.e. oxidized metabolite of DEHP) have been shown to have half-life elimination longer than 24 hour (Koch et al., 2005).

Recently, public health concerns have emerged about the toxic qualities of substances contained in consumer plastics and their potential impact on human health. Workers employed in the plastics industry are exposed to a numerous of toxic chemicals used in plastics production. These include styrene, acrylonitrile, vinyl chloride, phthalates, bisphenol-A (BPA), brominated flame retardants, heavy metals, and complex chemical mixtures (DeMatteo et al.,2012). Many of these additives

have potentially toxic effects, and some are identified as either carcinogens or endocrine-disrupting chemicals or both (Hauser et al., 2007). Of these additives, phthalates raise many concerns for workers in the plastics industry (Gaudin et al., 2008; DeMatteo et al., 2012). In several countries, occupational atmospheric exposure limits for some phthalates particularly DEHP have been established, however, phthalates can also be inhaled, ingested and absorbed through the skin, therefore biological monitoring of phthalate metabolites is considered more suitable for assessing human exposure (Gaudin et al., 2011). The current acceptable exposure limit values for phthalates established by the EFSA (EFSA, 2005) are called tolerable daily intake (TDI) values for DEHP (50 µg/kg/day), DiNP (150 µg/kg/day), DnBP (10 µg/kg/day). The US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) established reference dose (RfD) values for DEP (800 µg/kg/day), DnBP (100 µg/kg/day), DEHP (20 µg/kg/day) (EPA, 2008). Present studies demonstrate that urinary concentration of DEHP metabolites are significantly higher in occupationally exposed group than in general population (Gaudin et al., 2011). The aim of our study was to assess, by biological monitoring, occupational exposure to four phthalates of workers in plastic industry in comparison with general population.

Method

Study Population

The cohort consisted of two groups from Nitra region, Slovakia. Occupationally exposed population group (n= 37) i.e. workers from plastic manufactory with division of films and composites and injection moulding and general population (n= 144), students and workers from Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra in Nitra region of Slovakia. Participation was voluntary and there was a possibility to withdraw participation at any time during the study. All human participants gave written informed consent prior to the study, to provide samples of urine during the shift, complete questionnaires and allow the researchers to take measurements and also to process their personal records and data. The anthropometric data was collected using standard anthropological methods; body height (by A 319 TRYSTOM, Ltd., Pasteurova 15, 772 00 Olomouc Czech Republic), waist girth and hip girth (by spreading calliper P-374 TRYSTOM, Ltd. Pasteurova 15, 772 00 Olomouc Czech Republic). Body-mass index (BMI) was estimated and classified by WHO (1995). Waist-to-height ratio (WHTR) was calculated:

$$WHTR = \frac{waist\ circumference\ (cm)}{height^2\ (cm^2)}$$

Waist to hip ratio (WHR) was estimated by dividing the waist circumference by the hip circumference (WHO, 1986). Body weight were estimated by The Omron BF510 (Kyoto, Japan) by bio-electrical impedance analysis, using a 50 kHz current source with electrodes on each hand and foot.

Phthalates Analyses

Urine samples (2x2ml) were collected from all volunteers during work shift and from general population and stored in a transport box at 2-6 °C and in the laboratory in a deep freezer at the -73°C until analysis. Urinary levels of mono (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (MEHP), mono-n-butyl phthalate (MnBP), monoisononyl phthalate (MiNP), and monoethyl phthalate (MEP) as metabolites of parent phthalates di(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP), di-n-butyl phthalate (DnBP), diethyl phthalate (DEP) and diisononyl phthalate (DiNP) were measured by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) (Infinity 1260 and 6410 triplequad, Agilent) using a modification of the method reported by Silva et al. (2003). Analytical standards were purchased from Cambridge isotope laboratories (MA, USA). Briefly, 1ml of urine was thawed, buffered with ammonium acetate, spiked with isotope labelled phthalate standards, β-glucuronidase enzyme (Roche, Germany) and incubated (37°C). After deconjugation were samples diluted with phosphate buffer (NaH2PO4 in H3PO4) and loaded on SPE cartridges (ABS Elut Nexus, Agilent). Cartridges were conditioned with acetonitrile followed by phosphate buffer before extraction. To remove hydrophilic compound were SPE cartridges flushed by formic acid and HPLC grade water. Elution of analytes was performed by acetonitrile and ethylacetate. Eluate was dried by nitrogen gas and reconstituted with 200 µl of H2O. For HPLC was used Agilent Infinity 1260 liquid chromatograph equipped with ZORBAX Eclipse plus phenyl-hexyl column. Separation was done using non-linear gradient program. Agilent 6410 triplequad with electro-spray ionization was used for mass specific detection of phthalate metabolites. Instrumental settings were as follows: spray ion voltage (−3800 V), nitrogen nebulizer gas pressure (8 psi), and nitrogen curtain gas

pressure (7 psi), capillary temperature (430°C), and collision gas (nitrogen) pressure (1.5 mTorr). Precursor and product ions, collision energies, retention times and limits of detection (LOD) are showed in Table 1.

Statistic

To describe the urinary phthalate metabolite levels in the study populations, means with SD, medians and the 5th to 95th percentiles of concentrations were computed for each metabolite. The non-parametric Mann-Whitney U (Wilcoxon rank-sum) test was used for all comparisons and a difference was considered to be significant when p value was ≤ 0.05. We used statistics program Statistica 8.0 (Stat Soft. Inc.).

Results

The cohort consisted of 181 participants of average age 31.66±14.53 years. The cohort was divided into group of general population (n = 144; average age 28±13.12) and occupationally exposed group i.e. workers from plastic manufactory with division of films and composites and injection moulding (n = 37; average age 45.6±9.4). The baseline characteristics of study groups are shown in Table 2.

Participants were also grouped according to questions asked in the extensive questionnaire to search for correlations with excreted amounts of phthalate metabolites. Within eating and drinking habits no significant differences were found. Distribution of the number of participants in both group following five consumer practise are shown in Table 3.

We found that urinary concentration of detected phthalate metabolites in occupationally exposed group was above the limit of detection (LOD) in 97.30 % MEP, 100 % MnBP, 83.87 % MiNP and 100% in MEHP samples. In general population group LOD was exceeded in 96.53 % MEP, 100 % MnBP, 76.39 % MiNP and 89.58 % MEHP samples. Urinary concentrations of phthalate metabolites, characterized by means, SDs, minimum, maximum and percentiles in both groups, are summarized in Table 4. Mean concentration values for 3 urine metabolites (MEP, MnBP and MEHP) were higher in both groups than their median values, indicative of the high levels in the upper quantiles.

The comparison (Mann-Whitney U test) between general population and occupationally exposed group for the urinary metabolite levels showed significantly higher urinary concentration (p≤0.001) of MEHP and on the border of the statistical significance urinary concentration of MiNP (p=0.07) in occupationally exposed group, while no significant differences could be seen for MEP and MnBP (Fig.1)

Discussion

Human exposure to phthalates classified like toxic hazardous substances can arise from both occupational and non-occupational sources. Even though that occupational exposure to phthalates represents greater health risk for workers in plastic industry, occupational studies on potential associations with health risk is still limited. In our study, we present worker phthalate metabolite concentrations measured in 2012 in plastic factory, compare these concentrations to the general population in Nitra region of Slovakia and comment on the likelihood of an occupational contribution to the observed concentrations.

Urinary concentrations of MEHP in urine samples from exposed group (median 35.48 µg/l) collected from all workers during work shift in our study are comparable with study of workers in a factory with wall covering products (median 41.9 µg/l), but higher than in workers in DEHP manufacturing (median 5.6 µg/l), PVC 2 compounding (median 17.3 µg/l) and polymers moulding (median 18.3 µg/l). However they are lower than in plastisol coating (median 55.9 µg/l) and PVC 1 compounding (median 52.0 µg/l) (all of the above urine samples were collected post-shift) (Gaudin et al., 2011). In comparison with our previous study in workers from communal services (Kolena et al., 2014) median values in plastic industry was 7-fold higher. The urinary concentration of MEHP in studied general population (median 21.62 µg/l) was higher in comparison with control group from Gaudin et al. (2011) (median 4.8 µg/l). We observed significantly higher urinary concentration of MEHP (p≤0.001) in occupationally exposed group compared to general population, despite the fact, that phthalates are ubiquitous environmental contaminants. This could be explained by the fact that DEHP is the major plasticizers of PVC used in plastic industry and after oral dosing in humans urinary excretion of DEHP metabolites is biphasic, with a first phase half-life of 2h for all metabolites and a second phase half-life of 5h for mono (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (MEHP) (Koch et al., 2004; 2005). Therefore urinary concentrations of MEHP were expected higher in exposed group.

We observed on the border of the statistical significance higher urinary concentrations of MiNP (p=0.07) in occupationally exposed group in comparison with general populations. Detected levels of MiNP in urine samples from exposed group (median 13.65 µg/l) was higher with detection frequencies 83.8 % in comparison with our previous study in communal services workers, wherein the concentration of MiNP was low and close to the detection limit, with detection frequencies of 10% (median < LOD; 95th percentile 14.89 µg/l) (Kolena et al., 2014).

Statistically significant differences was found only in high-molecular weight phthalates, which are predominantly used as a plasticizers in industry (Hauser & Calafat, 2005).

The urinary concentration of MnBP in our study in exposed group (median 108.63 µg/l) is comparable with the study of Becker et al. (2009) realised in German children, but higher than in workers in PVC compounding (median 22.6 µg/l) PVC film (25.9 µg/l) (Hines et al., 2009) and also with our previous results in communal services workers (median 67.13 µg/l) (Kolena et al., 2014), and studies in general population of the USA, Germany and Japan (Blount et al., 2000; Koch & Calafat, 2009; Itoh et al., 2007). In contrast with the results of Hines et al., (2009) realised in workers of phthalate manufacturing and rubber house at mid shift (median 230, 334 µg/l) we recorded lover median values.

The urinary concentration of MEP in our study in exposed group (median 93.79 µg/l) is comparable with workers in a rubber house at the end of shift (median 97.3 µg/l). However they are lower than in other factories included at mid shift or at the end of shift (Hines et al., 2008). In contrast with the results of National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) by Blount et al., (2000) and Silva et al., (2004), we recorded in both group higher median concentration values of MEP. Use of personal care products with fragrances containing DEP (Duty et al., 2005) in the hours immediately before collecting of urine sample could affected higher urinary concentrations MEP in general population in our study.

Foodstuff represents the major source of exposure to high-molecular weight phthalates, such as di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate and diisononyl phthalate (DiNP) (Koch et al., 2006; Fromme et al. 2007), therefore we analysed some eating and drinking habits in comparison with concentrations of phthalate metabolites in each proband from both group. Interestingly we not found any statistically significant differences. It could be explained by single-spot urine sample which may not reflected the whole exposure of each participants. Furthermore, the great variability of phthalate metabolites excretion values within studies was likely due to individual physiological differences of each proband (Fong et al., 2014) or different quantity of phthalates used in each technology and factory. It suggest that habitual exposure of phthalate play minor role than occupational exposure, but it is necessary take this fact into account.

Our study has two important limitations. Single spot-urine measurement of phthalates during work shift may not necessarily reflect the long-term exposure of each participant. Exposure sources may vary over time based on dietary intake, use of personal care products and other factors. A second limitation of study is that we measured only simple monoesters of DEHP and DiNP in urine however oxidative metabolites are much more sensitive biomarkers of phthalate exposure. But despite this limitations and despite the fact that phthalates are ubiquitous environmental contaminants, there is evidence of occupational exposure of workers from plastic manufactory by DEHP a DiNP.

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Tables

Table 1. Phthalate monoesters: chromatographic and mass spectrometric parameters

Compound Name	Precursor Ion	Product Ion	Fragmentor (V)	Collision Energy (V)	RT (min)	LOD, (µg/l)
MiNP	291.2	141.2	95	13	15.2	8.12
MiNP- labelled	295.3	79	95	13	15.2	
MEHP	277.1	133.9	90	14	14.7	0.81
MEHP- labelled	281.1	137.1	90	14	14.7	
MEP	193.0	77.1	60	15	6.2	5.02
MEP- labelled	197.1	79.0	60	15	6.2	
MnBP	221.1	76.9	90	10	11.8	3.23
MnBP- labelled	225.1	78.8	90	10	11.8	

Note: MiNP, monoisononyl phthalate; MEHP, mono (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate ; MEP, monoethyl phthalate; MnBP, mono-n-butyl phthalate; RT, retention time; LOD, limit of detection

Table 2. Baseline characteristic of study groups

Parameter	General population		Exposed group	
n	n=144		n=37	
	Average	SD	Average	SD
Age	28.0	13.2	45.6	9.4
Body height	168.47	8.7	167.5	8.26
Weight	67.99	15.10	79.99	13.07
BMI	24.29	4.53	27.33	4.88
WHR	0.88	0.68	0.56	0.91
WHTR	0.49	0.08	0.56	0.07

Note: BMI, Body-mass index; WHR, waist to hip ratio; WHtR, waist-to-height ratio

Table 3. Distribution of the number of participants in both group following five consumer practise (count/%)

Consumer practise	n	yes	no	Always/usually	Sometimes	Never
Drinking hot drink from plastic cup during 24 hour	37	3 (8.1)	34 (91.9)			
	129	13 (10.1)	116 (89.9)			
Drinking drink from plastic bottle during 24 hour	37	24 (64.9)	13 (35.1)			
	126	109 (86.5)	17 (13.5)			

Heating food in plastic container in microwave	37		10 (27.0)	3 (8.1)	24 (64.9)
	126		25 (19.8)	40 (31.7)	61 (48.4)
Consumption of foodstuff in plastic packaging	37		10 (27.0)	14 (37.8)	13 (35.1)
	125		33 (26.4)	77 (61.6)	15 (12.0)
Food stored in plastic container	37		10 (27.0)	13 (35.1)	14 (37.8)
	126		50 (39.7)	59 (46.8)	17 (13.5)

Table 4 Urinary concentration of phthalate metabolites (µg/l) in exposed group (n=37) and general population (n=144)

						Percentiles			
		Mean	Std. deviation	Min	Max	25th	50th (median)	75th	95th
General population	MEP	232.53	421.88	2.51	2669.15	53.98	84.63	209.87	1114.25
	MnBP	128.17	120.90	2.28	846.26	63.21	88.99	140.08	400.99
	MiNP	12.08	5.17	4.60	43.73	12.49	13.26	14.17	17.76
	MEHP	30.96	33.39	0.57	253.99	9.76	21.62	39.18	97.39
Exposed group	MEP	516.14	1.29	2.51	5676.26	56.01	93.79	246.60	5645.79
	MnBP	174.77	180.12	31.17	785.44	63.86	108.62	210.69	746.02
	MiNP	13.56	4.84	4.60	23.37	12.52	13.65	16.21	21.90
	MEHP	35.53	22.36	4.54	108.46	19.33	35.48	45.56	86.12

Note: MiNP, monoisononyl phthalate; MEHP, mono(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate; MEP, monoethyl phthalate; MnBP, mono-n-butyl phthalate

Cultural Roots Of Corruption - The Case Of Western Balkans

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Abstract

Corruption is the biggest obstacle to equality of market opportunities and it is generated by great power of the state administration, lack of transparency, lack of control authority mechanisms and uncontrolled power of individuals within the state authorities. Such conditions for corruption are created by the authoritarian systems, including various forms of individual, military or ideological tyranny. This is a significant economic, political and ethical issue. In order to be better understood and effectively eradicated, it is necessary to understand how different cultures accept corruption and the relationship between corruption and specific dimensions of culture. In this paper attention is focused on the relationship of specific aspects of culture and corruption, relying on existing experimental studies. The purpose of this paper is to check the belief expressed in the literature on the example of the Western Balkans that high power distance culture is the key cultural element which creates the conditions for the emergence and acceptance of corruption in a society. The dimensions of culture identified by Geerd Hofstede are used in the analysis and power distance is identified as the most important dimension for generating corruption in society. Using comparative analysis of power distance index and corruption index possible connections between them can be identified. This leads us to the conclusion that power distance as one of the key cultural dimensions influence the level of corruption in society. As basic research limitations the following have been identified: the complexity of the phenomenon of culture of which power distance is only one element, and the fact that corruption is a complex social phenomenon, on which, apart from culture, other important factors have influence. This implies that in the activities intended for eradiction of corruption it is practically necessary to thake into account the need to change culture, which is a slow and difficulty process, but not impossible one.

Key words*: culture, corruption, power distance, society, ethics*

Introduction

Corruption has a long history and more or less appears in all countries of the world. The causes of corruption can be individual, systemic and cultural. These causes are interdependent and deeply rooted in the culture of that society.

Although corruption is as old as humankind, interest in this social phenomenon has significantly increased in recent decades. One of the major causes of increasing interest in corruption is that the relation of power has changed between the state and the economy. Globalization of the economy conditions the behavior of the state in a way that will allow equal competition in markets around the world. Therefore, an increasing interest in corruption is related to globalization and market expansion to the countries of the former system of state and party management of the economy as well as other third world countries. In these countries, there has been a systematic and legal vacuum in the transition process, in which they demolished the old rules and the new ones are not yet sufficiently recognized. Disorganized legal system, the lack of transparency in the work of certain government agencies, weak institutional control systems, underdeveloped institutions of civil society and public opinion (freedom of the media) and in particular the power of individuals to be placed over the system create ideal conditions for corruption in these countries. In such conditions, control decreases along with moral discipline which allows corruption to become a common and effective way of solving many personal problems (Vujović et al. 2013).

Numerous analyses pointed out the negative impact of corruption on various indicators of economic freedom, which is solidly proved by Lamsdorff's (1999) analysis of the results of investigations of corruption. Tanzi (2012, p.10) suggests that corruption, which may be political or bureaucratic, generates high income to those engaged in such activities but can increase the cost and size of the shadow economy. Corruption particularly undermines the principle of equality in a democratic society and the principle of equal opportunities in market competition. This undermines confidence and trust in the principles and values of civil society and blocks mechanisms of the market economy, especially in young democracies (Pržulj, 2012).

The causes of corruption as a complex social phenomenon are multiple and interacting, so it is important to clearly identify their impact. Although corruption exists in all societies and at all times, there are important differences in the way in which some societies relate to corruption, which is woven into the very roots of culture. Culture is here understood as the way in which a particular society lives, works, thinks and solves their existential problems. It has been assumed that culture is being created in a longer period of time under the influence of various social, institutional, economic, religious, and even geographical factors. Culture influences institutions and social norms, dictates the interactions of agents within a society, and affects the type of corruption that becomes prevalent (Banuri et Eckel, 2012). At the same time, culture allows us to understand why certain policies and measures against corruption are more effective in one society than in the other.

Various meanings of the term corruption

The term corruption covers different meanings, which often leads to confusion and misunderstandings. Thus, corruption is often seen as a whole range of illicit and illegal activities in order to acquire individual benefits by the abuse of public function. This term can mean bribery, extortion, nepotism, embezzlement, etc. Since corruption is as old as organized human society, the concept has evolved over time from social and moral phenomena to individual behavior.

Precisely, corruption (Lat. *corruptus* - bribed) at the same time means bribery and depravity, and involves illegal use of social and civil status and power in order to gain individual benefits. A corrupt person is any official or responsible person who, for personal gain or benefit of the group they belong to, ignore the general interest which they should protect with respect to the position and powers which are vested in them. In the broadest sense, corruption is seen as "the use of public power for private gain" (Jain 2001, World Bank, *Transparency International*). Some authors believe that the lack of a unified meaning of this term causes the lack of a unified theory of corruption (Collier, 1999).

More recent interpretations of the meaning of the concept of corruption are related to the activity, not to the state placing the individual and his behavior in the first place. In addition, such behavior is valued as deviant because individuals use public funds for personal interests and abuse their authority in order to gain their own benefits. So Nye (1967) understands corruption as the deviant behavior of civil servants (elected or appointed officials) that is not in accordance with their duties ex officio, for private enrichment or for the benefit of the individual, close relatives or a related group of people. In this way, corruption is linked directly to the behavior of elected and appointed officials in civil service who receive benefits (including enrichment) on the basis of their positions to which they are officially appointed. This refers to the deviant behavior of individuals in the anomic exchange of goods, rights and interests between two or more parties, by which ethical, professional and legal norms are violated (Gavrilovic et al 2013, p.8).

Tanzi (1995) extends the meaning of corruption, to a deliberate non-compliance with the principles of impartiality in decision-making, in order for those who committed it to gain benefit or for a related party through such deeds. According to this view, corruption exists in a nycase of an intentional violation of the principle of impartiality in decision making for the purpose of appropriating some benefits.

The phenomenon of corruption is usually associated with the activities of government officials so that public has been considered a synonym for government. However, modern economies have large private establishments and, especially, business corporations that are owned by thousands of distant shareholders who often own shares (and thus own a piece of the corporations) but play no role in running the enterprises. To some extent they are in the same situation of many citizens vis á vis the state (Tanzi, 2006, p.4).

Very often corruption is equated with bribery, or giving and receiving bribes, although the two terms are not synonymous. Bribery is just a special case of corruption in which the personal benefit for the corrupt is presented by the

appropriation of money (bribe). Bribery provides preferential treatment to individuals over others because they give money to someone or offer other service (Di George, 2003, p. 219).

Corruption is a process of interaction of at least two of the participants. Their behavior is a form of an abuse of the official power of one of them, from which one gains personal benefit, in order to obtain certain privileges and other benefits that could not be achieved if complied with existing norms. This is not a simple and open interaction of a perpetrator and a victim. In this process, both parties are active participants, and both have some benefit, while the victim is usually a third party, or wider social community. Hereby, it is important to note that this behavior usually manifests itself in secrecy, and it is therefore difficult to monitor and record. It is also the main limitation of experimental research, and the most well-known research on corruption relies on perception (CPI). Since this is a subjective view of corruption, as a basic and important research limitation, the conclusions based on these data should be interpreted with caution. They are, nevertheless, indicative, at least to the extent to which people in a certain society perceive corruption.

Corruption is manifested in different ways in different countries, cultures and periods. That is part of what the meaning of corruption depends on, i.e. activities that are considered part of the phenomenon. However, it may be noted that in most interpretations of the meaning of the concept of corruption there are a few basic elements:

• It is a form of anomalous behavior

• It is the abuse of power by individuals which derives from their position in order to acquire their own benefit,

• Corruption is run by motive, or the need of one of the participants to be sure that he/she will achieve some sort of advantage or privilege to which he/she has no right to under normal circumstances,

• Corruption undermines social norms and threatens the equality of individual members of society,

• Corruption is destroying the legal, economic and moral systems of society.

From the very essence of the meaning of corruption, relevant dimensions of culture can be important for such behavior, such as: the unequal distribution of power with a tolerance of abuse of power, the need to gain advantage by achieving their own goals (achievement), safety in achieving the objectives (uncertainty avoidance), lack of feelings of empathy towards other members of society and focus on their own interests (egoism and individualism).

Culture and corruption: review of previous research

Culture is manifested as a significant factor which directs individuals to create a mindset as a framework for understanding the messages that appear in the form of symbols, events, facts and relationships.

As a starting point for many later studies of the impact of culture on certain aspects of the economy and social development, the results used were obtained by Hofstede (Hofstede, 1994). His outstanding contribution was to identify dimensions of culture, which became the basis for numerous subsequent studies and which are taken as the starting point in this paper. It is important to emphasize that each of these dimensions affect the behavior of members of a society in the interaction with others so that the level of expression of other dimensions of culture can significantly affect any of the stated dimensions.

Although he later added one more dimensions (long term vs. short time orientation) under the influence of Confucian culture, the following four dimensions are usually used in analyses (www.geert-hofstede.com):

Power Distance (PDI) that is the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally.

Individualism (IDV) on the one side versus its opposite, collectivism, that is the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups.

Masculinity (MAS) versus its opposite, femininity refers to the distribution of roles between the genders, which is another fundamental issue for any society to which a range of solutions are found.

Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) deals with a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity; it ultimately refers to man's search for the truth. It indicates to what extent a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations.

By identifying these dimensions of culture, Hofstede enabled researchers to later analize the impact of certain dimensions to certain phenomena, as well as the overall development and prosperity of certain societies. Hofstede's, and subsequent studies have shown significant differences between societies according to these dimensions of culture. The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies (Huselid at all. 2004, p. 38) indicate the links between different dimensions of culture and economic prosperity of some societies. That stems from the fact that some of the dimensions have different effects on the way of leadership, decision-making, motivation, control, and overall economic activity.

Culture reinforces the behavior of members of society through customs and norms that members of society unconsciously accepted over time when some behavior or a way of solving the problem proved to be effective and thus became the accepted model. That is why culture is one of the biggest obstacles to change.

Given that culture through a system of values (shared values) directs (standardizes) conduct and theinterpretation of reality (interpretive schemes) of the members of society through the system of meaning, it significantly affects corruption as a form of behavior, and in particular the interpretation of corruption as a social phenomenon and the degree of its acceptance as something normal.

At first glance, the universal definition of corruption means that culture does not play a role in the understanding of corruption. However, the recognition of cultural diversity in society is probably one of the reasons why action on corruption remains unclear (Kerrigan, 2012).It is especially important to keep in mind that culture determines other factors, it affects perception through mental patterns and reinforces the behavior of members of a society. Treisman (2007) suggests that legal systems differ not only in the formulation and original intent of the law, but in the prevailing expectations and practices that regulate how they are enacted - what might be called "legal culture". Conception of the social role of law and the relative importance of the rights of the preservation of the social order differ from country to country (Treisman, 2000) .

The links between culture and corruption are not new and cannot be disputed. In debates on corruption there is a large agreement that culture is an important factor for the understanding of corruption (Husted 1999, Barr et Serra 2010, Serra 2006, Cameron et al. 2009, La Porta et al. 1997, Fisman et Miguel 2007, Uslaner 2004; Lipset et Lenz 2000; Banuri et Eckel 2012a; Treisman 2000, Lambsdorff 2006, De George 1982). Since culture is a complex phenomenon, there are differences of opinion by individual authors on how culture affects corruption. In the existing debates on this subject, the authors emphasize the importance of trust in the society, others point out the influence of religion, while a third group of authors direct their attention to hierarchy (centralization), then to national diversity, competition of resources, etc. Cultural backgrounds often play a large role in these attitudes especially in actions that involve exchanges of gifts or favors (Tanzi, 2006, p. 3). Culture provides an understanding of why certain policies and measures against corruption are more effective in one society than in another.

Experimental research on corruption is relatively scarce compared to non-experimental, which have appeared in recent decades and pointed to the high social costs and economic damage of corruption at the expense of individual benefits (Banuri at Eckel, 2012, p 4). Despite shortcomings of experimental research focused primarily on the ability to monitor behavior (which corruption is in its essence), which is usually carried out in secret, these studies have their own importance and role. However, the contribution of these studies is not to demonstrate causality (though quite a number of them attempt it), but rather to document various institutional factors that contribute to, or discourage, corruption (Banuri at Eckel, 2012).

The most comprehensive, and also the most famous research on corruption is conducted each year by Transparency International, known as the Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI). As the research name implies itself, it is based on perceptions of the respondents collected from various sources and is the most commonly used indicator of corruption in literature. Referring to the fact that corruption is primarily a particular type of behavior, measuring of corruption through perceptions is often criticized, even though it must be admitted that this measurement has been the most systematic so far and is commonly used in practice as an indicator of corruption. "It is generally accepted that the collection of empirical data in this area is a real challenge due to its complex and covert nature. These difficulties are sometimes avoided because the focus is placed on the perception of corruption rather than actual experience. Regardless of all the research difficulties and shortcomings, previous studies of perception of corruption

contributed much to solving the puzzle of corruption and better understanding the impact of culture on this phenomenon.

Harrison and Huntington (2000) point to the influence of culture on the development and functioning of the institutions, which are an important factor of corruption. Culture interacts with corruption through formal institutions and social norms, both of which can differ across countries (Banuri at Eckel, 2012, p. 7). Usually institutions reinforce existing social norms, so the fight against corruption turns in a vicious circle.

Husted (Husted, 1999) states that all five of Hofstede's dimensions (Hofstede, 1997, pp. 82) are correlated with corruption, testing each of them with the CPI (Corruption Perception Index). He came to the conclusion that *high power distance* as well as the acceptance of an unequal distribution of power in society, uncertainty avoidance (*averse to uncertainty*) and masculinity (masculine values, efficiency, competitive spirit) are positively correlated with corruption, although the assertion regarding the dimension of uncertainty avoidance is not supported by the facts. However, this dimension indicates unwillingness to change, which can be a problem in the fight against corruption. It is important to bear in mind that the dimensions of culture are not isolated from each other, but are in interaction. Although studies show a greater impact of certain dimensions of culture on corruption, the impact of combinations of certain dimensions should not be ignored, such as high uncertainty avoidance with collectivism or masculinity with individualism. Some other authors have similar views regarding the impact of individual dimensions of culture on corruption. Thus, La Porta et al.(1997) believe that high power distance decreases trust, which creates a higher level of corruption.

Lipset and Lenz (2000) also point to two dimensions of culture important for corruption: the expectation of achievement (masculinity by Hofstede) and amoral familialism or the Hofstede dimension of power distance and find the empirical basis in CPI. In most of these studies, culture is used to refer to multiple underlying elements (such as paternalism, familiarism, uncertainty avoidance, etc), which tend to overlap. These elements influence, and are influenced by both norms and institutions (Banuri at Eckel 2012, p.10). However, attempts to experimentally support these claims did not give satisfactory results, mainly because corruption is a complex phenomenon, as well as culture, and this puzzle cannot easily be solved. Corruption has not only cultural, but also institutional, social, moral and psychological dimensions. Therefore, it appears in all times, in any society and any culture.

No matter what, all the Hofstede dimensions of culture have some impact on corruption (as well as on other social phenomena), we can accept views of the listed authors who point out high power distance and masculinity, our attention in this paper is focused primarily on high power distance because this dimension of the culture is dominant in the Western Balkans.

Research methodology

Previous analysis leads to the conclusion that corruption is a complex phenomenon which is influenced by culture, which on the other hand specifically determines the level of tolerance towards this phenomenon, and decreases the effects of systemic measures against it.

Our starting hypothesis was that high power distance as the dimension of culture, dominating in the Western Balkans, represents a generator of corruption and the main barrier in fighting against this socially deviant phenomenon.

Research conducted so far especially point out the influence of high power distance as a cultural dimension which seems to be a precondition for developing and tolerating corruption. In order to check these assumptions, we applied comparative analysis of the relation between high power distance and corruption index. In this analysis we used data provided by the research conducted by Geert Hofstede and the corruption perception index (CPI), because these are very complex social phenomena (culture and corruption) whose empirical research requires creation of specific and very complex methodology. The lack of such methodology is at the same time the main research constraint in elaboration of this topic. However, we believe that even a simple comparative analysis could be an acceptable indicator and, at the same time, an incentive for a more systematic research of this phenomena.

Results

Research results obtained so far confirmed the hypothesis that high power distance plays a greater role in the generation of systemic corruption, as well as that masculinity indicates individual preferences for corruption. While individual corruption is present in all societies, systemic corruption is indeed the greatest problem of the Western Balkans. High power distance allows a high concentration of power in individuals who are in a position to adapt

regulations to their interests and to place themselves above and beyond the law. High power distance is withheld in such societies precisely because it is considered to be normal and tolerated situation. As the powerful are untouchable in such societies, there are no social forces to resist the abuse of power until someone gains more power. Most often this dimension of culture is combined with collectivism, so there are no civic initiatives to initiate change. Changes in these societies are usually personal and non-substantive in nature. Authority is the surest way to win power in societies whose culture is characterized by high power distance where politics serve to gain power. Being on the position allows gaining power which serves the interests and needs of the individuals, not the society. Institutions adapt to powerful individuals rather than to the interests of society, thus creating conditions for systemic corruption.

It may be noted that the ratio of high power distance as an important dimension of the culture of a society and the prevalence of corruption are significantly correlated, as shown by the simple comparison of data on the index of corruption and power distance, as shown in table 1.

In Table 1, it can be observed that the ranking of the level of perception of corruption does not change significantly in a short time. Although the table shows the harmony between the rank of corruption and power distance (PDI), it is not our intention to argue that high power distance is the only cause of corruption. Certainly there are other factors that generate corruption. Previous studies have pointed to the role of masculinity in the appearance of corruption, which could be an additional factor to the relatively high ranking of corruption in Italy. Since masculinity involves orientation to results and competition, this dimension encourages individuals (usually in combination with individualism) not to choose means and use shortcuts in achieving material gain. However, corruption is a convenient way to provide benefits and privileges in relation to other members of society. In contrast to power distance which can affect the appearance of systemic corruption, masculinity encourages individual corruption.

Table 1 included mainly European countries and the United States, but if one looks at the table of corruption index for all countries that the survey covers, it can be seen that some countries with a strong power distance - PDI (Middle East - Iran, Afghanistan, Turkey and Latin America - Brazil, Colombia) have a very high index of corruption. We have already noted several systemic causes that could explain some discrepancies in the relationship between high power distance and corruption.

The concept of the Western Balkans and South-Eastern Europe is usually synonymous with the countries of the former Yugoslavia. In the process of transition to a democratic society and market economy these countries entered after the other Eastern European countries and in a specific way, which was marked by civil wars (Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina) and UN sanctions (Serbia and Montenegro). Hofstede divided data territorially, which he gathered in his previous studies for Yugoslavia and obtained data for Serbia, Croatia and Slovenia. This separated data shows the almostunique characteristics of culture in relation to other European countries, but mild differences exist in certain dimensions of culture (Table 2). Other, now independent countries of the Western Balkans (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro) were not specifically covered in Hofstede' research of culture, but were parts of a federal state and a unique cultural space for 70 years.

As it can be seen from the table 2, the Western Balkan countries are characterized by the following cultural dimensions: high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, low individualism and relatively low masculinity.

High power distance as a cultural dimension that distinguishes the Western Balkans from the majority of European countries, has many negative implications. First and foremost, it influences the leadership style; countries with high power distance tend to choose authoritarian and autocratic leaders. In these cultures, changes in government structures do not mean new distribution of power, but personal change of people who have the power and the same patterns of behavior (Janicijevic, 2008). This is contrary to democratic principles. This cultural dimension is manifested in tolerating the practice of appointing powerful individuals above the law and norms, which destroys the system and creates an environment susceptible to bribery and corruption.

Power in the Western Balkans usually comes from authority, and the political elite is usually getting rich while in power rather than to serve the interests of society. Political engagement provides privileges, accumulation of wealth, employment, doing business. Instead of everyone having equal rights, it is assumed that those who have power should have privileges and openly demonstrate their power. The way of changing such a society is dethroning (overthrowing) of those who have power and giving power to others, rather than performing a redistribution of power. Such an attitude towards power inevitably leads to its abuse.

One of the most common results of the abuse of power is corruption. For money or privileges, powerful individuals provide specific benefits to those who are willing to pay for that. Particularly problematic is the high level of acceptance of such behavior because in such cultures people believe that it is normal and legitimate for people who have power to be above and beyond the rules that apply to most.

If the characteristics of the culture of the Western Balkans, according to Hofstede's study, are seen in the context of corruption, then we can see that the high power distance, as a key dimension that generates systemic corruption, is the most prominent of all European regions. In conjunction with this cultural dimension there is collectivism, which stifles individual initiative in terms of government control, transparency of institutions, strengthening civil society, media power, encouragement and protection of "whistleblowers" which are all important factors in the fight against corruption. And avoidance of uncertainty, as the third dimension of culture, which has an impact on corruption, is highlighted in the culture of this Region. This dimension blocks willingness to change and the fight against corruption becomes even more difficult and requires a strong individual who initiates the change.

As in most other former communist countries, the culture of corruption in the Balkan countries is anchored in the previous socialist government. The reason for this is the high influence of the ruling party in the one-party system and the individuals who were the personification of the system, then the non-transparency of the system, the lack of control mechanisms of civil society, the degree of freedom of the media, etc. All that contributed to creation of a favorable environment so that state money – money collected from the taxpayers –wastransfered in anorganized way to the pockets of individuals close to the regime. In the Western Balkan countries, favorable circumstances were created by the outbreak of the civil war, and especially the introduction of sanctions. Long-term crisis shattered and destroyed state institutions, including the state itself . This process was accompanied by an orchestrated and monopolistic determination of commodity prices, exchange rates, providing import and export quotas and licenses, control of large commercial arrangements, creating shortages where the priviledged were granted monopolies, organizing financial pyramids, etc. In addition , the roots of corruption in the Balkans date back even in former regimes, including the Ottoman Empire (in the period of his decadence), and the regime of the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, when certain European liberal values failed to be adopted such as the rule of law, the sanctity of private property, protection of individual freedom and responsibility, care and voluntary involvement of individuals for the public good, and similar (Gamser, 2012) .

Everyday scandals in these countries show that the abuse of power and corruption are significant in all spheres of life, especially in the privatization process, enabling the connection between politics, the economy and crime. In terms of being attractive for investments, corruption is often reported as being the weak point of the Western Balkans. The citizens of these countries see corruption as an exceptional social problem, second to unemployment. That is demonstrated in research on corruption conducted in this region. All Western Balkan countries have a high corruption score (Table 3) according to a survey of perception of corruption carried out by Transparency International.[1]

Similarly, research on corruption conducted in these countries in recent years by various international organizations (e.g., UNODC - United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime) confirms the perception of high levels of corruption, as well as the understanding of corruption as a common phenomenon. Permanently high levels of corruption in the countries of the Western Balkans show that corruption and bribery are the way of life in the Balkans and that all important issues in public or private life are solved by the giving of bribes.

Slovenia, which was the first of the former Yugoslav republics to become a member of the European Union, with the lowest level of corruption in comparison with other ex-Yugoslav republics, has increased its corruption ranking from 37th in the year 2012 to 43th place in 2013. According to Transparency International survey, 93% of the respondents in Slovenia believe that corruption has increased in the last three years or at least remained the same.

[1]The Corruption Perceptions Index ranks countries and territories based on how corrupt their public sector is perceived to be. A country or territory's score indicates the perceived level of public sector corruption on a scale of 0 - 100, where 0 means that a country is perceived as highly corrupt and 100 means it is perceived as very clean. See more at: http://www.transparency.org/cpi2013/results#myAnchor1

Although Croatia as a new member of the EU has made some progress in eradicating corruption (from 62nd position in 2012 it came to 57th in 2013), research shows that on average 18.2 percent of Croatian citizens aged 18 to 64 have direct or indirect experience with bribery of public officials each year.

Research conducted in Croatia shows that bribes are paid in cash in almost half (44 %) of all cases of bribery, with an average value of 280 Euros (UNDOC, 2011). In more than half of the cases of bribery (58%), citizens offer the bribe, while in almost 40% of the cases, the bribe is paid in response to a direct or indirect claim by public officials. This data shows that a certain number of Croatian citizens do not believe in the functioning of a public administration without giving some kind of a bribe to speed up the administrative process. Approximately two-thirds of citizens believe that corrupt practices occur frequently or very frequently in many important public institutions.

Compared with the previous year when the FYR Macedonia was the 69th place, it may be noted that this Western Balkans country slightly improved its ranking in 2013 (67th). However, the study of the Macedonian State Statistical Office shows that the Macedonians were required to, or they themselves offer, bribes at an average of 5.9 times a year.

Although Montenegro occupies a very high position in corruption according to the Transparency International survey, the UNODC study(2013) shows that the presence of giving bribes in business and the frequency of payments is lower than in the Western Balkans (10.2% on average and an average frequency of 7.1 on the regional level). According to the Corruption Perception Index, Montenegro moved from 75th place in 2012 to 67th in 2013.

Serbia, as a candidate for membership in the EU, also made progress last year, and moved from 80th place which it occupied in 2012 to 72nd place in 2013 according to the Perception Corruption Index conducted by Transparency International. However, research on the attitudes of Serbian citizens refers to the social tolerance of such behavior and the belief that nothing can be done without "greasing of the palms". That reinforces appropriate behavior models, softens the edge of the reasonable reaction to that phenomenon, leading to a state of social anomy. Thus, the TNS Medium Gallup research in2011 concludes that one of the biggest problems related to the eradication of corruption is a high degree of social acceptance of the phenomenon, which is shown by the fact that Serbian citizens consider corruption common practice (88 %) and even expect it to a certain degree (48 %). Almost one-third, or 28% of the respondents believe that corruption is to some extent acceptable. Also, people believe that big companies (74 %) have no interest in fighting corruption because they benefit from it. It is significant that political parties are perceived (76 % of the respondents) as a sector where corruption is widespread. On the other hand, the role of citizens in corruption was ignored, and only 52 % of the respondents identify the phenomenon of the responsibility of citizens. Perception of personal responsibility in corruption is divided - 52% of the respondents believe that bribery helps to overcome unjust laws. Furthermore, 52% of the respondents believe that bribery is the only way to overcome huge bureaucracy, which clearly shows the inefficiency of the system and the importance of powerful individuals in solving these problems. The study, "Corruption against Decent Work", analyzes the influence of the parties in corrupt practices. The results show that as many as 88% of the respondents believe that corruption in hiring is the result of the abuse of political power and influence (Vujović et al. 2013, p. 73).The study starts from the hypothesis that partiocracy is the cause i.e. the grounds which allow the development and spread of corruption in other areas, on the one hand, and that has a direct impact on the status and rights of employees and their right to decent work, on the other hand.

Research conducted by UNDOC (2013) in Bosnia and Herzegovina show similar results. A significant proportion of all the bribes that companies have given to public officials in this country was in the form of money (46.6%), followed by food and drinks (29%), as well as the exchange of one service for another (11.4%). In cases where a bribe is given in the form of money, the average amount paid was approximately 327 Euros. In approximately 15.8% of all cases of bribery, a representative of the company is the one who actually started talking about the bribe without being asked to give it, while in more than two-thirds (70.2%) cases, the bribe was asked for by the public servant explicitly (26.8) or implicitly (20.4%). In the remaining 23% cases, the bribe was given upon the request of the third party. Companies report that the most common purpose of paying bribes is "to speed up business processes" (29.1% of all bribes), "to enable the completion of the procedure" (17.4%) and "to ensure better treatment" (14.4%).

The results of these studies show that corruption is deeply rooted in the culture of the Western Balkans and that the use of personal connections is a common practice to solving problems. In addition, citizens accept this form of behavior as a common practice. They do not believe that this is a concern, as it is widespread at all levels of the social system.

Changing the culture of corruption requires a series of institutional changes and changes of mental patterns and behavior patterns in the Western Balkans. In order to achieve that, society has to accept changes. Although there is an awareness of the damage that corruption causes, these changes are difficult and slow. One of the factors which block the changes could be the avoidance of uncertainty, being the prominent dimension of the culture in this region. This is suggested by the observation that the countries of the Western Balkans have long ignored the political and economic changes in the world. A common feature of all societies with high uncertainty avoidance is that they are not ready to gradually change and they ignore the need for partial changes (evolution), and instead of which, come into a situation where they can no longer work and then revolutionary changes start. The length of the transition process in these countries (two decades) speaks highly of openness and readiness for change.

When you take into account that the low level of individualism in a culture negatively affects the motive for achievement and increases social motives, we can see that the culture of the Western Balkans, which is mainly collectivist, has no assumption for the efficiency and competitiveness of the economic system. Individualistic culture supports individual responsibility, while collectivism emphasizes loyalty and obedience. In the fight against corruption, strong and courageous individuals are important as well as strong civic initiatives. Individualism is correlated with human rights and freedoms.

Corruption is no longer merely a national issue. It has largely become a transnational problem and the fight against it is an international obligation. Consequences of corruption are fatal for a country's economy, since it ruins main principles of market economy: equal opportunities and healthy competition. This 'social disease' hampers economic development, disables reinforcement of democratic institutions and jeopardises standard of citizens. Tax revenues decrease due to corruption, and public services expenses increase, and resources are redirected to private pockets (Pržulj, 2012).

The change in the political and economic system of the Balkan countries after the collapse of communism and the process of admission to the European Union focuses on the problem of corruption. In recent decades in these countries awareness has increased of the harmful effects of corruption in business and economic development. One of the most important obligations of the governments of these countries, within the framework of the European integrations, is to combat corruption.

Concluding discussion

From the analyzed theoretical studies and experimental investigations on corruption the conclusion can unequivocally be drawn that there is a strong link between culture and corruption. The assumption is confirmed that especially high power distance as one of the cultural dimension creates a favorable environment for the development of systemic corruption, while masculinity encourages individual corruption. More broadly, other cultural dimensions (uncertainty avoidance and collectivism) have impact on corruption by blocking changes in practices of corruption and accepting different models of behavior.

An example of the culture of the Western Balkans confirm these assumptions. Therefore, the logical question arises: should culture be changed in the context of the fight against corruption? Regardless of all the arguments about the obstacles and negative influences of cultural dimensions, the answer to this question can be neither easy nor exclusive. Firstly, culture is not the only factor that influences the practice of corruption in a society, and secondly, the culture cannot be changed easily and quickly. However, creating a more efficient and more consistent system framework with appropriate control mechanisms, can certainly contribute to not only the faster eradication of corruption, but also faster changing of the culture that generates it. It is particularly important that the regulations leave no discretion to individuals, who can easily abuse them. In addition, an effective fight against corruption requires adjustment to specific cultural features. In societies whose culture is characterized by high power distance, such as the Western Balkans, it is important that anti-corruption measures with a high degree of determination are run from the center of power (government and political parties, powerful individual authorities) in parallel with institutional changes and strengthening of the institutions. If we take into account that uncertainty avoidance as a cultural dimension blocks changes, it is clear that active measures against corruption in countries with such cultures require strong support from the media in

theuncovering of corruption . In addition, in collectivist cultures it is very important to strengthen the citizens' initiative and encourage transparency and citizen control of public institutions.

The necessity of such changes originates from the fact that business today increasingly requires the use of the same language and adapting to cultural values on which market economy is based as well as the capitalist economic model, while corruption seriously undermines the foundations of such system.

As the countries of the Western Balkan are new members or applicants for admission to the European Union, the fight against corruption is one of the key tasks in the process of European integration. It includes a series of primarily systemic changes aimed at strengthening institutions, government control mechanisms, transparency, strengthening the role of the media, encouraging the activities of civil society, etc. Moreover, in these countries it is necessary to consider cultural factors of corruption, their achievements, and limitations, and thoughtfully act to reduce the level of tolerance regarding this phenomenon in society.

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Tables

Table 1: Corruption Index and Power Distance (Adapted according to: TI_CPI_2011_report, available 24 Sept 2012 and Hofstede G.J. 2005)

Country	Rank 2011	Rank 2013	CPI 2011	CPI 2013	PDI rank
Denmark	2	1	9.4	9.0	18
Finland	2	3	9.4	8.9	33
Sweden	4	3	9.3	8.9	31
Norway	6.	5	9.0	8.6	31
Holland	7.	8	8.9	8.3	38
Switzerland	8	7	8.8	8.5	34
Australia	8.	9	8.8	8.1	28
Canada	10.	9	8.7	8.1	39
Luxembourg	11.	11	8.5	8.0	40
Germany	14	12	8.0	7.8	35
Japan	14	18	8.0	7.4	54
Austria	16	26	7.8	6.9	11
United Kingdom	16	14	7.8	7.6	35
Belgium	19	15	7.5	7.5	67(Walloons) 61(Flemings)
USA	24	19	7.1	7.3	40
France	25	22	7.0	7.1	68
Spain	31	40	6.2	5.9	57
Portugal	32	33	6.1	6.2	63

Slovenia	35	43	5.9	5.7	71
Croatia	66	57	4.0	4.8	73
Italy	69	69	3.9	4.3	50
Serbia	86	72	3.3	4.2	86

Table 2: Data on cultures in former Yugoslav countries and other European countries (Adapted according to: www.**geert-hofstede**.com)

Dimensions of culture / Countries	Countries	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO
Former Yugoslav countries	Serbia	86	25	43	92	52
	Croatia	73	33	40	80	58
	Slovenia	71	27	19	88	49
German countries	Germany	35	67	66	65	83
	Austria	11	55	79	70	60
	Switzerland	34	68	70	58	74
Scandinavian countries	Sweden	31	71	5	29	53
	Denmark	18	74	16	23	35
	Finland	33	63	26	59	38
Latin-European countries	France	68	71	43	86	63
	Italy	50	76	70	75	61
Anglo-Saxon countries	United Kingdom	35	89	66	35	51
	Ireland	28	70	68	35	24
Iberic countries	Spain	57	51	42	86	48
	Portugal	63	27	31	104	28

Table 3: Corruption Perceptions Index 2013 in the Western Balkans (Adapted according to http://www.transparency.org/cpi2013/results#myAnchor1)

Ranking	Country	Corruption Score
43	Slovenia	57
57	Croatia	48
67	Macedonia (FYR)	44
67	Montenegro	44
72	Bosnia and Herzegovina	42
72	Serbia	42

Biodiesel in Holy Quran: Among The Review of The Arabic Lexicography and Modern Science

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Abstract

The Holy Qur'an is a miracle revealed to Prophet Muhammad, Sallallahu Alayhi Wa Salam, that not only discusses elements on beliefs but at the same time, it is compact with some absolutely amazing scientific facts. There are many verses that discuss the description of the scientific facts in the holy Quran. Among the scientific facts found in the holy Quran is the verse that deals with the concept of energy sources such as biodiesel which is found in Yaseen verse 80. However, the interpretation of this verse according to academicians of the past has been from a different perspective. Findings in the biodiesel field by modern scientists have opened a new chapter in the interpretation related to the biodiesel concept found in the holy Qur'an. This study will analyze the opinion of the Arab-Islamic scholars in the interpretation of this verse from the perspective of Islamic code and Arabic lexicography. Furthermore, this discussion will be conducted to examine the relationship of this verse with the concept of biodiesel from the perspective of modern science. The results of the experiments that have been conducted showing that the amount of energy that results from the reaction of plants, solvents and catalysts to produce biodiesel which is one of the potential of alternative energy sources to replace conventional fuels. The formation of the chemical structure of biodiesel produced from the breakdown of triglyceride structure (i.e oil from green plants) that reacts with hydroxide ions and produce three molecules of fatty acid methyl esters FAME (i.e biodiesel) and one molecule of glycerol . It shows that green elements found in plants is an energy element . It is hoped that this study will open up new perspectives on the interpretation of the verse that relates to the concept of biodiesel in holy Quran based on scientific facts. Indirectly, it also proves that the holy Quran is the revelation of God and not the invention of Prophet Muhammad.

Keywords: Biodiesel, Holy Quran, Modern Science, Code Interpretation, Arabic Lexicography

Introduction

The holy Quran is a revelation of Allah serves as guidance to mankind. The holy Quran itself has great universal value covering all aspects of knowledge and not only focusing to specific areas such as doctrine, jurisprudence, tajweed, etc, but its use including several other fields such as medical science, astronomy, psychology, technology and so on. (Zamri Rajab, Kaseh Abu Bakar, 2011:84). The development and progress in science and technology indirectly affect the understanding of the texts of the Quran like the understanding of the concept of biodiesel in the holy Quran. Allah clearly mentions about the concept of this biodiesel in surah Yaseen on the verse 80, the words of Allah:

﴿الَّذِي جَعَلَ لَكُم مِّنَ الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَرِ نَارًا فَإِذَا أَنتُم مِّنْهُ تُوقِدُونَ﴾

Meaning: (Allah) who has made the wet green trees (energy source) for you (to use), then you kindle fire from the trees. (36:80).

Understanding of the interpretation of this verse among ancient commentators are from a different angle. With the advancement in science and technology, an understanding of the different perceptions of the concept of this verse can be explored and indirectly it is a recognition of the miracle of the content of holy Quran. To get a correct picture of the understanding of this verse, the discussion carried out on two aspects, namely: (a) Words (الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَرِ نَارًا) according to the Arabic lexicography and code interpretation, (b) The concept of biodiesel according to scientists.

Words (الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَرِ نَارًا) According to the Arabic Lexicography and Code Interpretation

According to Ibn 'Asyur (1984:23:77), words (الشَّجَرِ) in this verse is the plural word of words (الشَّجَرةُ) which is feminine's meaning where there is no feminine's sign which means tree. The word (الْأَخْضَرُ) is also in the form of masculine which

aims to embrace the adjective for word (الشَّجَرُ). It is the language of the people Najad. For the people of Hijaz, they use the expression (شَجَرُ خَضْرَأُ), which refers to the purpose of plural. Words (الْأَخْضَر) as recorded in Arabic lexicography is referring to the purpose of a known color and is widely available in the color of the plants. The color is green. Words (نَارٌ), as reported by Ibn Manzur (1995:14:366) comes from the word (نَ-وَ-رَ) which means fire or something burning, and (نُوْرٌ) is a fire. Plural for word (نَارٌ) is (نِيْرَأْنْ), while plural for word (نُوْرٌ) is (أَنْوَأْرٌ).

Al-Qurtubiy (2006:17:491) explains that this verse is a reminder of Allah to the people of the concept of faith and the power of God to turn things. Normally people see dry wood used as fuel, but God has lit a fire of green plants are still wet. It is a truth from Allah to the people who doubt the power of God. Ibn 'Attiyat (2007:7:267) stated that this verse was revealed in response to al-'As Ibn al-Sahamiy Wa'il's ridicule of mocking Allah in reviving the shattered bones. Allah revealed this verse that conveys the message that nothing seems impossible for Allah. Perhaps in the eyes of man it is a strange and impossible, but not the eyes of almighty Allah. There are two thoughts of the commentators relating to the interpretation of the word (الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَر) in this verse. The first thought is referring to the word (الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَر) contained in this verse as metaphor. The use of metaphor in this verse is a form of language style in holy Quran. The true meaning of this verse is that the trees are dead and dried are used as fuel. According to Ibn Kathir (1999:3:172), the interpretation of this verse means Allah turn wet and green trees from water. Upon reaching a certain extent, these trees will die and dry. The trees are dead and dried will be used as fuel to produce heat. This verse is similar to the context of the verse in surah al-Nisa' verse 2, the word of almighty Allah:

﴿وَآتُوا الْيَتَامَى أَمْوَالَهُمْ﴾

Meaning: "And give to the orphans their property" (4:2)

Allah uses the word 'orphan' in the text, while the orphan's property should be handed to them is when they have reached the age of puberty. When a young orphan has grown and come of age and be able to manage themselves, so in terms of the rule they are no longer orphanage. Al-'Alaqat al-Majaz which is found in this verse mentioned about things happened in the past, but what it means is things that happen now. This verse means to give the property of orphans who have reached the age of puberty to them. Same condition applies to the paragraph above. The meaning of the verse is that green plants have died and burnt dry. Referred to in this verse is that the plants have died and dried, but what being mentioned was referred to the plants is still green and wet. In the discussion of Arabic rhetoric term, the condition is known as al- 'Alaqat al-Majaz (عَلَى اعْتِبَارِ مَا كَأَنْ) which is mentioned that past thing, but the actual meaning is things that still going on now. Ibn 'Asyur (1984:23:76) argues that the word (الشَّجَر الْأَخْضَر) in this verse does not refer to the purpose of the green tree, but it is antonomasia to humid conditions called al-Rutubat (الْرَطُوْبَةُ) found on living trees. If the elements of this moisture is lost, automatically the trees change color and will dry out and die.

Meanwhile, al-Maraghiy (1946:23:38) explains this verse means Allah has turned the trees of water resources. These trees will grow and turn green. Eventually the trees will die and dry. The trees that have dried are to be used as fuel. Allah has power to restore the moisture contained in the seed after it is mixed with water. Furthermore, Allah also has the power to remove moisture until it can be used as fuel. In this chapter, Allah preach about His authority has created a seven-layered sky with planets on it, created seven earths full of inhabitants as in verse 81, and revive the bones that have been destroyed and decomposed as in verse 79. All three of these creations are something that are beyond the wit of human thought, but it is not impossible for almighty Allah.

Al-Zarkasyiy (1984:3:457) discuss this description based on a rhetorical term in the holy Qur'an from the point of the beauty and subtlety of language style called al-Tadbij al-Badi'iy (الَّتَدْبِيْجُ الَّبَدِيعِيُّ). He argues that this sentence is included in the chapter of al-Tibaq al-Khafiy (الِّطِبَاقُ الْخَفِيُّ). This text brings together two descriptive words to the contrary in a sentence that is green found on plants and red which is found on fire. Both of these colors are opposite each other in nature. The green color in plants is characteristically cold and wet, while the red color on the fire was hot and dry in nature. The life cycle of green plants, ranging from the nature of water droplets cool and wet mixed with soil and seeds. This attribute is inconsistent with the nature of fire is hot and dry. By the logic of the human mind, these two elements are irreconcilable. Nevertheless, Allah s.w.t has power to bring both elements at the same time which God brought together the two elements on the tree trunk.

Second opinion refers to the words (الشَّجَر الْأَخْضَر) as a type of plants. According to al-Qatadat, the word tree (الشَّجَر) in this verse refers to the tree al-Markh (الْمَرْخُ) or scientific name Leptadenia Pyrotechnica and tree al-'Afar (الْعَفَأرُ) or scientific name Arbouse that grows in the Hijaz area. The Arabs use sticks from the trees to produce fire. The friction of the two trees will produce fuel into fuel for their use. Meanwhile, according to Ibn Hayyan al-Andalusiy (1993:6:333) this verse shows the power of God to create something that is impossible according to human logic. This is because of the cold water used to extinguish the fire, but in this verse Allah makes green and wet plants to produce fire. Both of these elements (water and

fire) is the ambivalence that are incorporated in this verse to show the power of almighty Allah. Al-Baidawiy (1998:16:199) explains that the green tree meant in this verse is the al-Markh and al-'Afar. Both of these trees will produce heat when both wood from the trees rubbed together with water. The use of al-Tanween in the word (نَارًا) show miracle thing. Miracle thing in this verse is that when a fire resulting from green plants. In Arab society, the description of green plants can produce fuel is a known phenomenon. It can be seen with the use of these descriptors in their proverbs and poetry. In the book Jamharat al-Amthal by Abu Hilal al-'Askariy (1988:2:81), there is a proverb that reflects the description of the two trees, which are:

فِي كُلِّ شَجِرٍ نَارٌ وَأَستَمْجَدَ اَلْمَرْخُ وَاَلْعَفَأْرُ

Meaning: "Each tree is fire, especially trees of al-Markh and al-'Afar".

Lecture: "Each person has their own advantage, and in a crowd is definitely one of the best there is".

 Another proverb which says:

أَرْخ يَدَيْكَ وَاسْتَرْخ إِنَّ اَلْزَنَأْدَ مِنْ مَرْخ

Meaning: "Lighten the hands of beggars, even if the fire is lit from Markh tree".

Lecture: "Do not asking from others, even from the most generous, it is sufficient enough with igniting a small

   fire from Markh tree that can indeed produce a big fire".

In the process of producing fire from the two trees, the tree al-'Afar will be in the top position while al-Markh tree sits at the bottom position. Both of these trees will rub together. The setting position of both these trees has been noted among the Arabs until they use this description in their poems as found in Diwan al-Kumait bin Zaid al-Asadiy (2000:74):

إِذَا المَرخُ لم يُور تَحتَ العَفَارِوَضُنَّ بِقِدرٍ فَلَم تُعقَبُ

Meaning: "If al-Markh tree does not produce fire under the al-Afar tree, it is enough with what you have and

   do not complain".

Lecture: "A person who has already noble and commendable needs no praise and denigration of others".

'Abd al-Mun'im al-Fahim Hadiy (1996:114) argues that there are verses in the holy Qur'an is constantly evolving in terms of interpretation from time to time on the progress of human civilization. This interpretation of this verse will evolve in line with the level of progress made by man. The interpretation of this verse from the interpretation which refers to al-Markh trees and al-'Afar. Next it refers to the process of producing charcoal from wood trees that are still wet and for some time been a source of fuel that is vital to human civilization. Final interpretation of this verse is referring to the petroleum produced from the decomposition of green plants and animals that occur in hundreds of years. Petroleum has become the most important fuel in the production of energy to humans. All interpretations associated with this sentence accepted and have a direct connection with the verse 80 of Surah Yaseen.

The Concept of Biodiesel According to Scientists

Biodiesel can be produced by transesterification of any triglyceride feedstock, which includes any oil-bearing crops, animal fats and algal lipids. However, most current research is focusing considerably on the production of biodiesel from vegetable oil (Balat, 2011; Hoekman et al., 2012). The use of vegetable oils as an alternative fuel has been around for 100 years, ever since the invention of the compression ignition engine by Rudolph Diesel using peanut oil (Shay, 1993). Different countries use different types of vegetable oils, depending upon the climate and soil conditions (Sharma et al., 2008). For example, soybean oil is commonly used in the United States, rapeseed and sunflower oil are used in many European countries, coconut oil is used in the Philippines and palm oils are used in Malaysia for biodiesel production (Ghadge and Raheman, 2005; Demirbas, 2006; Meher et al.,2006 a; Sarin et al.,2007). These four crops, soybean, rapeseed, palm and sunflower noticeably dominate the feedstock sources used for worldwide biodiesel production. However, there are no limitations for employing other types of vegetable oils. Other types of oils that are currently being investigated are peanut seed oil (Davis et al., 2009; Kaya et al., 2009), melon seed oils (Mabaleha et al., 2007) and safflower oil (Rashid and Anwar, 2008), Apart from these, other edible vegetable oils like canola, linseed and corn have also been used for biodiesel production and are found to be good as a diesel substitute (Freedman et al., 1986; Lang et al., 2001).

A few studies have also showed that algae could also be a possible raw material for biodiesel production (Nagel and Lemke, 1990; Chisti, 2007). Algae, in the presence of sunlight, convert carbon dioxide into sugars and protein, but when they are starved of nitrogen, they mainly produce oil. Microalgae are reported to give a higher photosynthetic efficiency, higher

biomass production and faster growth as compared to other energy crops (Milne et al., 1990; Ginzburg, 1993; Dote et al., 1994; Minowa et al., 1995). However, despite tremendous interest in algae feedstocks for biodiesel production, there were only a few studies conducted in this area. Many researchers were unable to compare the algal-based feedstock to vegetable-based feedstock due to the lack of compositional profiles of the triglycerides fractions in algal lipids. The fatty acids composition of each algae strain is unique as it is highly influenced by the specific growth conditions such as nutrient levels, temperature and light intensities (Hu et al., 2008). Although there were a number of studies conducted to determine the fatty acid composition of algal lipid, the exact species is often unknown, or a mixed species is used (Hoekman et al., 2012). Base catalysed transesterification is the most adoptable technology for biodiesel production. The reaction mechanism for the transesterification process is formulated in three sequential steps, is shown in Figure 1.0.

The first step is the reaction between the base catalyst with the alcohol, forming the alkolide and the protonated catalyst. The carboxyl group of the triglycerides has a slight positive charge whereas the carbonyl oxygen of the alcohol has a slight negative charge. In the second step, nucleophilic attack takes place when the C=O bond of the triglycerides molecules is attacked by the anion of the alcohol, RO-, forming the tetrahedral intermediate. This intermediate has a slight negative charge which eventually falls back to the carbon bond, forming Fatty Acid Alkyl Ester, commercially known as biodiesel and the anion of diglycerides. The regeneration of active species takes places by the deprotonation of the catalyst using the latter species (anion of diglycerides). Diglycerides and monoglycerides were converted by the same mechanism as triglycerides. At the end of the process, three moles of FAAE and one mole of glycerine were formed.

Most of the biodiesel production plants nowadays use homogeneous base catalysts because they are very effective and soluble in alcohol. A homogeneous base catalyst was also preferred over a homogeneous acid catalyst because it gave a higher reaction rate, was less corrosive and required a shorter reaction time (Meher et al., 2006 a). However, these homogeneous catalysts i.e. homogeneous base and acid catalysts have some drawbacks. Biodiesel produced from a homogeneous catalysed reaction must be neutralised with water and thus this contributes to the generation of wastewater. The homogeneous catalyst cannot be reutilised, and furthermore, with the presence of a high FFA content and water, it will initiate the hydrolysis and saponification process, which leads to difficulty in the separation process. The conventional homogeneous catalyst is recommended to be replaced by environmentally friendly heterogeneous catalyst as this type of catalyst is proven to simplify the production and purification processes, reduced the amount of wastewater and cut off the number of process equipment. Therefore, the mentioned benefits will lead to a reduction in the biodiesel production cost. These catalysts were also easily separated from the reaction mixture, thus allowing multiple usage of the catalyst through a regeneration process and simultaneously this creates an environmentally friendly condition. Detailed investigation of different types of base heterogeneous catalysts such as rare earth oxides, various base metal compounds supported on alumina or zeolite, hydroxides, alkoxides, hydrotalcites and ion exchange resin have been carried out by several researchers (Watkins et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2004; Reddy et al., 2006; Granados et al., 2007; Reddy et al., 2007; Shibasaki-Kitakawa et al).

Discussion Analysis

From the perspective of Arabic lexicography and the code interpretation of Quran, the word (الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَرِ) means green trees, while the word (نَارٌ) means fuel or energy source. Green trees here means the trees are still fresh, wet and producing green fuel as a fuel or energy source. Normally, trees are used as fuel trees that are dead, dry and was discolored. If these trees are burnt, it will produce a flame that can also serve as a source of energy for humans. The green trees which can produce fire is an unusual and strange situations in human life. This is because it is relatively difficult for the green trees to produce fuel as fuel or energy source to humans. The discussion focusing on the interpretation of this verse is to how the trees of green and wet (الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَرِ) is able to become fuel for producing energy. This is because of the water is cold and wet, while the nature of the fire is hot and dry. These two properties are conflicting with each other.

There are a number of interpretative understanding of the verse (الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَرِ). Each of these interpretations have their own arguments. This verse is a manifestation of Allah invites man to ponder and explore the branches of the new knowledge. The first opinion states that this verse is the verse of metaphor or antonomasia in the holy Quran, which leads to another meaning. This group is using the argument in the rhetorical term as a solution to this discussion. Even so, the view is still debated by some scholars of the Arab-Muslim by stating that this verse clearly shows the apparent purpose of the word (الشَّجَرِ الْأَخْضَرِ) which refers to the purpose of the green trees that produce heat. So it is not accurate if the interpretation of this verse refers to the purpose of the Arabic rhetoric view point.

Al-Baidawiy (1998:16:199) discuss this description by stating in surah Yaseen indeed there are three miracles shown by Allah to mankind. Such things are the power of Allah to revive the man from the bones that have been destroyed and

become dust as found in verse 79, almighty Allah with His power produce fire from green trees as found in verse 80 and Allah the almighty who created the seven-layered sky with planets in the universe, created seven layers of earth which are inhabited by various creatures as found in verse 81. All these three sentences are sentences that are interrelated and clearly defined in terms of the purpose of the word. It does not require the interpretation of Arabic rhetoric term. If one verse is interpreted by arabic rethoric term and accordingly the two other verses also be interpreted as such.

The problems that arise here are caused by this sentence statement contrary to human logic. Second opinion is to take alternative of the interpretation that the meaning of sentence (الشَّجَر الْأَخْضَر) refers to the name of al-Markh trees and tree al-'Afar that grows in the Hijaz area. However, this opinion is rejected by a scientist from Saudi Arabia named 'Abdullah Abd al-Karim Saleh (1984:6). He stated that the interpretation (الشَّجَر الْأَخْضَر) referring to al-Markh trees and tree al-'Afar is not accurate. This interpretation is in the general state. Based on the studies that have been done by him, he found that both of these trees cannot produce a flame when they are rubbed together as claimed. Thus, the interpretation of this sentence should be carried out in more detail in order to give the reader of holy Qur'an a concise explanation.

The interpretation of production of charcoal from the wet and green trees and the discovery of petroleum as a fuel source to humans is right or merely to this discussion ('Abd al-Mun'im Fahim al-Hadiy:1996:114). Nevertheless, not all charcoal is produced from the trees are still green and wet. There is also produced from dead and dry wood. Similarly, the with the petroleum production process. It also does not just focus on the decomposition of green plants, but also involves the decay of other elements such as animals. Thus, the interpretation of this verse refers to the production of charcoal and oil is still being debated by Muslim scholars.

The findings in the field of biodiesel are currently among other interpretation closer to understanding of this verse and can also be relied on as the interpretation of this verse. Through experiments that were carried out, clearly shows that green plants are wet able to produce biodiesel used as fuel to produce energy for human use. Nevertheless, only certain plants can be used as fuel to produce this energy source.

Conclusion

(a) The holy Quran is the revelation of Allah which is packed with various branches of knowledge and its content is a miracle of Allah that should be explored by humans, especially Muslims.

(b) Interpretations of the verses of holy Quran at times depending on the progress of human knowledge. Some of the verse is interpreted with different understanding based on different time to time. Development in interpretation of these verses is actually not affecting the faith in almighty Allah, but indirectly it is an honor to the contents of holy Quran.

(c) Interpretation rhetoric of verse 80 of surah Yaseen is more likely to the field of rhetoric term in language style of holy Quran. Interpretation of this form is to obtain consistency of messages contained in the Quran the human mind.

(d) The second opinion holds that the green trees are burned to produce energy are referring to the al-Markh al and al-'Afar trees. Both of these trees are of plants that are capable of producing a fire in wet conditions by using certain techniques.

(e) Discovery of charcoal produced from trees that are still wet to be used as fuel to provide energy to the human resources also is one interpretation that is close to this text. In addition, the discovery of petroleum that supplies human resources is also contributed to the development of the interpretation of this verse. With the progress in science and technology, it can help give another interpretation which is close to the interpretation of this verse.

(f) Islamic scientists have proven with new discoveries in science and technology as a sub-interpretation of the verses of holy Quran. The findings in the field of biodiesel can be used as a backup that there were times when certain verses of the Quran the concept defies logic of people should not be interpreted using rhetoric term knowledge in the field of language. Instead of scientific studies should be done to prove that the scientific facts contained in the holy Quran are true.

(g) Nothing is impossible for almighty Allah, as Allah's absolute power to make something on His will although contrary to human logic. Human task is to explore the areas of new knowledge and in increase the faith towards Allah.

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The effect of location-based game on the learning of seniors in the field of information and communications technologies

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Abstract

The paper discusses the results of a single educational experiment which aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of the use of location based-game in the education of seniors. The participants took part in classes on the use of video games console PlayStation 3. 57 senior (over 60 years of age) learners took part in the study. They have been randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. The control group took part in traditional classes and the experiment group took part in location-based game. The aim of the study was to answer the research question: Does the learning of information and communications technologies by seniors with the use of location-based game improve the quality of learning (indicated by the time of realising the task, number of questions asked during the realisation of the task, seniors' evaluation of the technology, of the classes and of their own competences)? Seniors evaluated the classes, the technology and their own competences by means of original questionnaire consisting of grading attractiveness, usefulness and difficulty of the class and the technology, and grading their own ability to use the technology, the want to use the technology and the recommendation of the technology to others. As the results of the experiment indicate the learning of information and communications technologies by seniors with the use of location-based game improves the quality of their learning. The use of location-based game increases significantly the pace of assimilation of the knowledge by the learners as indicated by the time of realising the task. It also increases the level of self-reliability of the learners as indicated by the number of questions asked during the realisation of the task. However, it does not affect learners' perception of the technology, the classes and their own competences as is indicated by the evaluation.

Keywords: Location-based game, Information and communications technologies, ICT skills, adult education, seniors, late adulthood, experiment, educational experiment

Theoretical background of the experiment: the aging society

The beginning of the 21st century is characterised by the dynamics of the information and communications technologies development, the distinction of the real and the virtual spheres of human life, significant demographical shifts, namely the aging of society, and consequently: the ever more alarming civilisation exclusion of elderly persons. As a response to those shifts a number of actions have been undertaken on the international level – for instance the naming of the year 2012 as the European Year of the Activity of Elderly Persons and Intergenerational Solidarity. Another example is the undertaking of comparative research of the Active Ageing Index. An example on the national level is the creation of the Government Programme for the Social Activity of Elderly Persons for the years 2012-2013. However, the correct manner of planning of social activities is conditioned by the previous scientific research analysing the question of the exclusion of the elderly persons and the methods of counteracting this exclusion. The undertaking of such research in Poland is a necessity, especially considering the fact that in the European ratings of the activity of elderly persons our country occupies the last position, as is appointed for instance by the European Commission Report Eurostat 2012 Active ageing and solidarity between generations. A statistical portrait of the European Union 2012 (p. 20).

A key aspect of the discussion of the aging of society is demography, the essence of which is reproduction of the population. The relationship of fertility and mortality is of crucial importance, as the uncertainty of survival has always lay heavy on mankind. It was the control and suppression of the recurring mortality catastrophes between the 16th and the 20th century as well as the significant elongation of human life which caused the end of the threat of extinction.

The theory of demographic transition is fundamental for the understanding of the processes of population aging. According to the theory, demographic transition is the replacing of a population with radical, lasting and irreversible drop in mortality

and rise in fertility by a population with a low intensity of those processes (Coldwell, 2006, pp. 307-308). Western European countries have first reached the phase in which the reproductive success is free of the threats connected with uncontrolled mortality. Thus, it was expected that reproduction will be permanently stable after reducing mortality to biological minimum and reaching the state of basic replacement rate. In reality demographic transition has caused deep quantitative and structural changes in the population. Despite favourable biological and social conditions contemporary societies are far from reproductive success (Okólski, 1997, pp. 25-55).

Due to insufficient procreation, contemporary societies are facing lasting and fundamental depopulation, the effect of which is the aging of societies. Globally the number of people over 60 years of age in the population has risen from 8% in 1950 to 12% in 2013. Whereas in 2050 the number of older persons is estimated as 2 billions, which will constitute 22% of population (World Population Aging, 2013, p. 11). At that time the number of old people will be the same as the number of children. That is the reason of population aging becoming one of the most important problems of the modern world.

The issue of research on old age is currently more and more often raised in various scientific studies; however, it is mostly done on the theoretical plane, through description of the phenomenon of aging and old age, the image of the elderly persons, the potential of seniors life experience, which is without doubt a crucial output of science. The problem of old age and human aging has become one of the main fields of interest of the researchers of the domain of social sciences, humanities, economics or medical sciences. In the domain of pedagogy and other social sciences the questions most often raised are: the support and the advancement of quality of life of the older persons (Bond & Corner, 2004; Halicka1997), social and cultural activity of seniors (Victor, Scambler & Bond, 2009; Semków 2000; Halicka, Halicki, 2003), gerontological prophylaxis (Czerniawska, 2007), social (Bond & Corner, 2004; Ziębińska 2010) and economical situation of older persons (Zach, 2001). Nevertheless, the education of older persons for the informational society is still a little researched issue.

Education of seniors in the field of information and communications technologies

Before turning to the issue of the use of information and communications technologies by seniors, the term itself demands a definition. James Murray defines information and communications technologies (ICT) as "the integration of telecommunications, computers, middleware and the data systems that support, store and transmit UC [united communications] communications between systems" (Murray, 2011). According to the Free On-line Dictionary of Computing ICT is: "The study of the technology used to handle information and aid communication" (Information and Communication Technology, 2008). Thus, the specific technical devices, their use and study of those technologies can be considered information and communications technologies.

 The problem of the using of information and communications technologies by the seniors has been raised by the researchers and its effect is the report of Ewa Frąckiewicz. The effect of internet on the activity of seniors form the perspective of the strategy of building information society i2010. The results of the report unambiguously prove that older persons are threatened by digital exclusion. Furthermore, the research shows that the students of Universities of Third Age use computer and internet more often than other seniors who do not participate in extra-formal education. Results of this research have also proved the argument that seniors use the information and communications technologies to a lesser extent than younger persons. Nevertheless, the research presented in the report has focused only on the use of computer and internet, omitting smartphones, tablets, cash dispensers etc. It must be also emphasised that the research was concerned only with the opinions and attitudes of seniors towards computers and internet. The questions of using information and communications technologies by older persons has been also raised in the research of Beata Ziębińska (2010, p. 274-276). The results of the research of this author show, that computer classes take place in over half of the studied Universities of Third Age. Nevertheless, the research points out only to the fact, whether a certain UTA offers such classes. Both the research of E. Frąckiewicz as well as B. Ziębińska attempt to estimate the level of using of information and communications technologies and the availability of computer classes, but in both cases the research had a quantitative character and was limited to the diagnosis of the actual state of affairs. Thus, the need to undertake research of the effectiveness of certain forms of education of seniors in the field of information and communications technologies is visible.

As the research on the counteracting of the digital exclusion of seniors should not only be still conducted but also broadened to the widely-understood information and communications technologies and innovative educational methods the authors of this paper have undertaken the activity as a part of the Group of Research of Games and ICT in Education "Edutainment" founded in the May of 2013. The team's field of research is education of adults in the field of/with the use of information and communications technologies and games.

The inspiration for undertaking such a scientific research were the previous experiences of the authors (most of the members of the research team)- in the work with elderly persons realised as a part of the projects: Nestor and @ktywny

Senior (@ctive Senior). Those experiences were of scientific and practical character, as on the one hand the participants of the project took the roles of teachers and instructors of classes for the elderly and on the other hand they carried out research on education of elderly persons. The experiences of the research team have been compiled in the publication: The Third Shift. Andragogical Reflections on the @ktywny Senior Project, publication of which was financed by the Lower Silesian Centre of Social Help in Wrocław. The book has been considered the Lower Silesian handbook of senior activity by the Marshal Office if the Lower Silesian Voivodship1. In this book the authors have presented in the form of academic study and good practices the traditional methods of education of seniors, which have been adapted as NGOs as examples of good practices and are still being used as part of various projects aimed at information education of seniors .

However, during their further activity members of the research team observed that traditional methods in education of seniors are effective, but they do not improve self-reliability of seniors: they are strictly instructions. Furthermore, seniors have often asked those same questions, each time expecting the instructor to help them. On the other hand, single use of the method of location-based game (purpose of which was teaching of elderly persons of using the media library in Wrocław) have brought better results in affecting the self-reliability of seniors. On this basis a hypothesis was formulated that the use of the method of location-based games in education of seniors improve quality of learning . A one-time class does not entitle formulation of any scientific conclusions, thus, we decided to carry out an educational experiment, the aim of which would be verification of the previously formulated hypothesis and acquirement of an answer to the question: what is the impact of use of the method of location-based games on the elderly persons' mastering of the use of information and communications technologies.

In this context the location-based game as a form of education of seniors seems to be an especially interesting field of research. Mostly it must noted that academic research on the location-based games as a not traditional method of education has not been so far undertaken. Thus, it will enable the comparison of the effectiveness of traditional methods of education with the innovative ones. Additionally, Adult Learning in the Digital Age. Information technology and the learning society presents the results of research on the education of adults in the context of information and communications technologies. The aim of the research was (among others) the description of how adults learn with the use of information and communications technologies. It has been observed that adults often learn the use of new technologies during realisation of everyday tasks, which demand the use of a certain technology. Thus, the educational aim of the mastering of information technologies is a side-effect of everyday tasks which are not directly aimed at learning. Those conclusions justify the use of location-based game, which is based on the principle of learning incidentally by realising various tasks. Furthermore, the participation in location-based game creates for seniors the possibility of entering new social relations and creating nets of informal contacts. As it is indicated by the British research of social lives of the elderly, social engagement of seniors and such nets of informal contacts affect not only their loneliness but also minimises the risk of social marginalisation (Victor, Scambler & Bond, 2009).

The distinction of traditional methods (based on the realization of aims and tasks of teaching, familiarisation of students with new material, generalisation and consolidation of new material, forming skills and habits, as well as binding of theory with practice and control of the effects of teaching) and modern (based on the formulation of problem, motivating students to work, assimilation, exploration, experience and action as means of studying, and on solving a problem and the final acknowledgement of the output of the realised classes) has been done after B. Niemierko (2003, p. 186). Location-based games can be considered modern methods of teaching (which can be also described as innovative). Location-based games are defined as a form of pastime activity, a significant element of which is the space with its various contexts, merging the features of paper chase, happenings and computer games as well as RPG (www.gramiejska.pl). Three kinds of location-based games are distinguished: hobby (events of which participants are people fascinated with the theme), commercial (organised by companies specialised in team-building or marketing, which aims are integration or advertisement of a given product) and educational (which aim is the transmission of knowledge or skills) (Krzemińska, n.d.).

Methodology of the experiment

Method that was used in the research was educational experiment. Techniques that were used in the experiment were: location-based game and traditional class. The topic of the class organised for the experiment was: the use of video games console PlayStation 3.

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1 The book has met with a large audience especially among seniors who have on numerous occasions asked the authors to organise further, broader and more advanced courses. The book has been also an inspiration for the seniors of Koło to found their own UTA named "Third Shift" tu underline the desire of the people involved to use information and communications technologies.

The research questions were formulated on the basis of the existing literature and the previous experience of the researchers in working with seniors.

The main research question was: Does the learning of information and communications technologies by seniors with the use of location-based game improve the quality of learning (indicated by the time of realising the task, number of questions asked during the realisation of the task, seniors' evaluation of the technology, of the classes and of their own competences)?

The following three detailed research questions were also formulated:

Did the method of teaching affect the effectiveness of learning of the participants?:

Did the method of teaching affect the pace of assimilation of the knowledge by the participants?

Did the method of teaching affect the level of self-reliability of the participants?

Did the method of teaching affect the perception of the class by the participants?

The independent variable that set for the experiment was the method of teaching, either traditional or experimental (location-based games).

The dependent variables which were chosen for the research were: the pace of assimilation of the knowledge by the participants, their level of self-reliability, their perception of the class.

The indicators which were set for these variables were: time of realising the task (for the pace of assimilation of the knowledge), number of questions asked during the realisation of the task (for the level of self-reliability), evaluation of the class: its attractiveness, usefulness and difficulty (for the perception of the class).

Basing on the literature and the previous experience of the researchers, the following hypotheses were formulated regarding correlation of independent variable with the dependent variables:

The method of teaching correlated with the pace of assimilation of the knowledge by the participants. (The participants from the experimental group assimilated the knowledge faster than the participants from the control group).

The method of teaching correlated with the level of self-reliability of the participants. (The participants from the experimental group have been more self-reliable than the participants from the control group).

The method of teaching correlated with the perception of the class. (The participants from the experimental group evaluated the class as more attractive, more useful and less difficult than the participants from the control group).

The experiment

For the purpose of the research presented in the project, members of the research team have designed location-based game which aim was to answer the question: Does the learning of information and communications technologies by seniors with the use of location-based game improve the quality of learning? For the needs of the experiment we have decided to choose a technology with which the participants had not had any contact so far, namely: video games console PlayStation 3.

The experiment was conducted on 18th-20th and 25th of November 2012 in Wrocław. The experiment was realised in the multimedia room of the Empik salon in Dom Handlowy "Renoma" in Wrocław (Poland). Empik is a Polish chain multimedia and books store and it was a partner of the project.

Participants of the experiment were seniors recruited with the help of Universities of Third Age in Wrocław (although not all of them were students). The overall number of participants was: 57.

The participants of the experiment were divided into two groups: the control group and the experimental group. Both groups had to learn the basics of the use of PlayStation 3 and realise three tasks. The control group was firstly instructed by one of the researchers on the use of PlayStation 3 and then had to realise the tasks on their own. The experimental group had to learn the basics and then realise the tasks with the use of location-based game designed specifically for this experiment. Eventually, there were 32 participants in the experimental group and 25 participants in the control group.

Both groups were handed a printed short manual of the use of PlayStation 3. The control group firstly went through the manual with the instructor, the experimental was just handed the manual and could use it on their own.

The three tasks were:

1. finding the folder "Architecture" and watching pictures that were saved in it;

2. finding the folder "Music" and creating a playlist consisting of three songs;

3. finding the folder "Films" and playing the film "Journey".

During the location-based game the participants firstly gathered in the Dom Handlowy "Renoma" shopping mall outside of the Empik bookstore. They were met by one of the instructors who introduced to the idea of the game. Later they were given an envelope which contained the introduction to the game. They were supposed to play the role of seniors who are expecting friends and wish to organise a "Cyber-Senior" party during which they would show pictures to their friends, listen to music and watch a film. Then, they had to find further instructions and the manual hidden behind one of the books in the Empik bookstore, later find the PlayStation 3 consoles and then realise the tasks.

Both groups were realising the tasks on their own, however the researchers-instructors were present and the participants could freely ask them questions regarding their work. Also after realisation of every task the participants had to call one of the researchers-instructors who would then check the realisation of the task.

The researchers noted the time of completion of the tasks by each group and the number of questions asked, although the participants were not informed about this fact.

After the realisation of the task participants also filled out a survey in which they had to evaluate (by ascribing points to each category) the class (attractiveness, usefulness and difficulty).

The participants also answered the following open questions:

1. What is your opinion of today's class?

2. What is your opinion of the technical aspect of the class?

3. Which elements of the class did you like?

4. Which elements of the class you did not like? Which ones would you change?

Results

Statistical analysis enabled the verification and falsification of the hypotheses and answering the research questions. The data was analysed with The one-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA). The results are presented in the following table.

Table 1. Verification of the hypotheses

Hypothesis	Outcome
1. The method of teaching correlated with the effectiveness of learning of the participants.	1. Verified: The innovative method of teaching (location-based game) increased significantly the effectiveness of learning by the participants.
a) The method of teaching correlated with the pace of assimilation of the knowledge by the participants.	a) Verified: The innovative method of teaching (location-based game) increased significantly the pace of assimilation of the knowledge by the participants.
b) The method of teaching correlated with the level of self-reliability of the participants.	b) Verified: The innovative method of teaching (location-based game) increased significantly the level of self-reliability of the participants.
2. The method of teaching correlated with the perception of the class.	2. Falsified: The method of teaching did not correlate with the perception of the class.

There was a statistically significant difference in the effectiveness of learning by the participants, $F (5, 51) = 17,26$, $p < .0005$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.372$.

Additionally, the answers to the open questions were analysed.

To the question: "What is your opinion of today's class?" the most common answers were: "positive", "very good".

The most noteworthy positive comments were: "I was for the first time in [sic!] PlayStation and for the first time I held it in my hands. For me it is a novelty and attaining new skills"; "The technique is not a problem if we learn it before we start"; "Leaving the student alone with the equipment and forcing him to experiment is the highest point of today's class. The discreet participation of the instructors has helped in fast learning of the equipment. For me – excellent".

The most noteworthy negative comments were: "OK. But I would prefer to practice alone; 2 controllers cause »distracting« each other"; "In my opinion the first envelope and playing to find instructions was useless. It is more for children. For us concrete. Equipment"; „Due to limited hearing (hearing aid) and difficulties in reading the instructions and the misunderstanding of the instructors (lack of computer skills) it was difficult for me to fulfil the tasks"; "I grade my skills as still low"; "Only for select seniors"; "Could have been more difficult".

To the question: "What is your opinion of the technical aspect of the class?" the most common answers were: "very good" and "good".

The most noteworthy positive comments were: "Outstanding. Very interesting and educational multimedia classes. I thank you very much for the invitation and enabling me to learn how to use the console"; "Very good preparation"; "Super: lots of envelopes, nicely printed tasks, fine »supervision« of the participants"; "Good instructions on the use of the console. It is rare among instructions"; "Nice atmosphere".

The most noteworthy negative comments were: "As always the equipment tends to be mean"; "The instruction was not clear"; "1 person per each console".

To the question: "Which elements of the class did you like?" the most common answers were: "all", "slides", "photos", "console".

The most noteworthy positive comments were: "Playing films and slides"; "Searching for places where the instructions were hidden. Unassisted turning the equipment on"; "Slideshow, playing music"; "Everything is very interesting and I would like to learn other possibilities, such as: games"; "Making playlists"; "Perfect preparation of the instructors, help of the instructors"; "Doing things according to instructions, the possibility to watch interesting things, searching for tips"; "Group work"; "Help of the instructors"; "Cordial and professional staff as well as patience and forbearance"; "Large screen".

The most noteworthy negative comments were: "They have solidified my belief that for certain tasks certain equipment must be chosen"; "It is hard for me to work in a group".

To the question: "Which elements of the class you did not like? Which ones would you change?" the most common answers were: "nothing", "none", "work in groups", "technical problems".

The most noteworthy positive comments were: "Keep it up!"; "Classes stimulated the perceptive skills, exercising the memory of seniors etc."; "I am happy I learned the use of console. I don't have any proposition of changes as I am not competent in this field"; "None. Don't change anything!".

The most noteworthy negative comments were: "Technical problems with the equipment, not working console"; "There was a technical problem with the equipment, it should have been checked before"; "Mechanical reproduction"; "Not creative classes", "I would choose a different set of tasks, more adjusted to the specific character of the console, letting to learn the equipment more"; "I didn't like that two people used the same controller at once! They annoyed each other"; "The instruction of making the playlist (music) was not clear", "The participants should get to know each other better!".

It can be said that the comments were mostly positive (as the evaluation of the classes by points) but the devil is in the details. Firstly, when comparing evaluation by points with open questions it turns out that the participants in most cases have written positive comments even if their evaluation indicates that they did not really like the class. We suspect that participants might have written nice comments as a way of expressing their gratitude for the instructors who have organised something for them for free, but they might have been more honest while evaluating the classes by ascribing points. Secondly, the comments are contradictory. The participants liked and disliked the location-based game, they liked and disliked the equipment, they thought that the instructions were clear and that they were not clear etc.

However, it must be emphasized that majority of the participants enjoyed and liked the classes (as is indicated both by the evaluation and answers to open questions) regardless which group (experimental or control) they were part of. Also, what has been considered as the most positive fact (nobody has listed this in negative comments) was the over-all atmosphere of the classes and the attitude of the instructors, which as is indicated by previous experience is a matter very important for seniors. What has been listed as the most negative aspect were the technical problems, which can be interpreted as either real technical problems but also as the effect of participants' anxiety in the first contact with a completely unknown technology.

Conclusions

As the results of the experiment indicate the learning of information and communications technologies by seniors with the use of location-based game improves the quality of their learning.

The use of location-based game increases significantly the effectiveness of learning by the participants. It increases significantly the pace of assimilation of the knowledge by the learners as indicated by the time of realising the task. It also increases the level of self-reliability of the learners as indicated by the number of questions asked during the realisation of the task. However, it does not affect learners' perception of the classes as is indicated by the evaluation.

There were some difficulties that the researchers faced during the conducting of the experiment. The first problem that we encountered during the recruiting process of the participants was the fact that when the participants heard about the aim of the experiment (which was not kept secret) they all wanted to participate in location-based games. Thus, it was decided that we would not inform them which groups are control and which are experimental. The other problem was the absence of some of the participants who just did not show up at the classes without informing the researchers beforehand. Thus, it was difficult to keep the number of people in both control and experimental groups even. There was also a problem with the understanding of the questionnaire by the participants, which they were supposed to fill out on their own, however they consulted each other and sometimes asked the researchers for help, even going beyond asking for further instructions and asking what exactly they should write.

The results indicate that the location-based game is an effective method of teaching information technology skills for seniors, however it was only a single experiment with a small number of participants. A modified experiment aimed at determining whether location-based game is an effective method in senior education in the field of IT should be carried out, this time with more classes on different topics (related with IT) and on larger and even number of participants.

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Additional Tables

Table 2. Results of Multivariate Tests for the indicators of effectiveness (the pace of assimilation of the knowledge and the level of self-reliability of the participants) related to the method of teaching

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Wilks' Lambda	,372	17,256b	5,000	51,000	,000

Table 3. Results of test of Between-Subjects Effects for the indicators of perception of the class related to the method of teaching

Source	Dependent variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Method	Attractiveness	,127	1	,127	,093	,761
	Usefullness	,186	1	,186	,106	,746
	Difficulty	2,204	1	2,204	1,579	,214

Educational opportunities for adults with intellectual disability – Polish experiences

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Abstract

So far, the majority of both research and social policies regarding education of individuals with intellectual disabilities focused on children and adolescents, who were targets of numerous programs meant to adjust both learning materials and methods of teaching to their needs. At the same time, the issue of continuing education for adults with intellectual disabilities has been marginalised or even completely ignored. This was partially due to the fact that these people, no longer being subject to mandatory education, remained outside of the educational system and thus tended to be overlooked, which meant that there were few – if any – educational opportunities available to them. Another issue to consider was the very low level of awareness in the society regarding the need to activate this group of people both socially and occupationally. This situation has changed considerably during the last 25 years and still continues to change. There are far more opportunities for adults with learning disability to actively participate in specially designed activities. There is also a fundamental shift in the perspective on the role of such activities, from programs meant to fill the disabled person's time to more structured educational programs aimed at promoting independent functioning and integration with the society, as well as acquisition of skills which would allow them to undertake meaningful work within supported work environment. These programs also aim to act against prejudice and discrimination and to shift the view of an intellectually disabled person from an "eternal child" to an adult with concrete skills and abilities. The aim of the current research is to explore these social, legislative and educational changes in Poland during the last 25 years, using the example of Lower Silesia region. The study employed the methods of pedagogical monograph, which analysed functioning of three occupational therapy workshop facilities in the region, unstructured interviews with professionals working with adults with intellectual disabilities, as well as document analysis, which included legal documents regarding the issue. It was concluded that although the educational opportunities of adults with intellectual disabilities have improved over the last two decades, mostly due to activities of many local non-governmental organizations and their innovative programs, there are still many physical, societal and psychological barriers in access to continuing education for adults with intellectual disabilities. It was found that currently in Lower Silesia the only form of meaningful and practically useful further education available are the occupational therapy workshops.

Keywords: education, intellectual disability, adults, Poland

Introduction

The unceasing interest within various scientific fields, especially in the last two decades, in the issue of disability and the quality of life of individuals with different dysfunctions, has certainly brought concrete results. Theoretical examination and conducted empirical research, especially in the fields of social and biomedical sciences, have contributed to the emergence of a new perspective on the needs, role and a place in society of disabled individuals, as well as the problems they must face every day. This view justified the abandonment of the one-sided, medical model of disability, based on the individual's state of health and limitations resulting from it, and the movement towards holistic perception of disabled individuals. A comprehensive approach to the phenomenon of disability is associated with the issues of human dignity and human rights, as well as the social model of disability, which emphasises the individual's abilities, not limitations stemming from a concrete dysfunction or a cluster of dysfunctions.

The developed concepts and practical strategies are part of the process of normalisation, which includes many areas of social life, in particular education, occupational and social rehabilitation, cultural and sport activities, etc. What is more, numerous legislative initiatives also facilitate actions aimed at preventing discrimination and marginalisation of disabled people, especially those with intellectual disability.

Persistence of the aforementioned tendency stems from several factors. One of the most important ones is the prevalence and scope of the phenomenon of disability, which is being "(…) exposed in circumstances of general revealing of problems which used to be hidden or treated as marginal in scope" (Golinowski, 2004, p.15).

Individuals with various dysfunctions have always been, are and will be present in the social, political and cultural space, regardless of the dynamics of changes occurring in the developing world. As Malec (2008, p.47) writes: "Disability is not a matter of choice, we have no influence over it – each of us could have been born as a disabled person and each of us may

become disabled at some point in our lives. (…) When we are healthy physically, psychologically, sensorily – fully abled – we do not give any thought to our disabilities. We go on living, convinced that we possess such an 'apparent' full ability, until an event occurs (an accident, a paralysis or illness, etc.) which forces us to redefine ourselves, to construct a new image of ourselves in the new circumstances".

Another important impulse emerging in today's world are the postulates of tolerance and equal opportunities for various minority groups, especially the disabled. This impulse is reflected in regulations, obligations and strategies of the European Union and other international organisations working for the benefit of disabled people (see: Obuchowska, 2008). What is more, the presence of the disabled in the society becomes more and more visible, and is increasingly emphasised by the disabled persons themselves, as is the founding of various organisations and associations of parents, leaders and activists representing and acting in the interest of this social group.

Summarising, life situation of disabled people depends on many factors. Alongside health, level of functioning and psychological factors an important role is played also by social status and family situation of the disabled person, as well as the economic situation of the country, current legislation and the model of social policy. Undoubtedly, these factors constitute a manifestation of social attitudes towards disabled individuals, which are very diverse (Osowska, 1997).

My interest in the issue of the direction of changes occurring in the field of educational opportunities for adults with intellectual disability in Poland stems from personal experience. In the years 2007–2009 I took part in implementation of the scientific and educational project "Assistant of Karkonosze College staff member. A person with an intellectual disability on the road to employment in the open market"1, run at the Panstwowa Wyzsza Szkola Zawodowa w Jeleniej Gorze [State Higher Vocational School in Jelenia Gora]2. It is worthy of note here that the proposed form of vocational internships for adults with intellectual disabilities was acknowledged as pioneering work in Poland.

Beneficiaries of the aforementioned initiative were nine adults with intellectual disability, four men and five women, who regularly participated in occupational therapy workshops in Jelenia Gora. For one day a week they would become assistants to some of the College's staff, including:

to lecturers from Pedagogy Institute and Institute of Medical Education, where they assisted during various classes, including, among others, general pedagogy, special needs pedagogy, sign language, first aid and art therapy (duties included: operating multimedia equipment, distributing learning materials, tidying up, taking printing orders etc.) – 5 persons;

to technical staff (duties included: cleaning and repairs on the College grounds) – 1 person;

secretarial office of the Pedagogy Institute (duties included: simple office work) – 1 person;

printing service staff (duties included: taking orders, copying, binding etc.) – 2 persons (Fornalik, 2008).

The main goal of the "Assistant" project was the inclusion of individuals with intellectual disabilities into the college community as part of their vocational internship, thus providing them with an opportunity to enter a wider social environment, beyond special needs institutions, as well as to be in contact with their peers – the students. What is more, the chance to be active and needed was also a unique opportunity to gain general experience of being an employee (Fornalik, 2008). Without doubt this project brought many benefits, and not only for its primary recipients. Both the college staff and the students were given a real opportunity to experience social integration, as well as to confront their ideas about people with intellectual disability, their needs or life circumstances with reality. One of the concrete results of the described project is the fact that, despite the project having ended, the College still invites the help of the assistants. In this case the presence of adults with intellectual disability has become a permanent element of the College's everyday life.

Another important element to consider when talking about the issue of disability is the definitional chaos surrounding the concept. During the last few decades the approach to the notion of disability, including intellectual disability, has changed in a revolutionary way. Currently analyses of the phenomenon of disability most often utilise the constructivist model, which sees disability as a result of the relationship between an individual and his environment, especially in its social aspect (Szumski, 2006).

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[1] First, pilot edition of the initative took place in the academic year of 2006–2007, and was financed entirely from the funds provided by the City Council of Jelenia Gora. Authors of the "Assistant" program are Izabela Fornalik and Mirella Michalewska-Pająk, at that time lecturers and researchers at the College.

[2] Since 2012 the school runs under a new name. Currently it is known as Karkonosze College in Jelenia Gora.

Assuming that human being and her dignity constitute worth, the phrase "disabled person" is a form of a more detailed elaboration, which fits within the trend of personalism. What is more, such formulation of the term shows the primary importance of the person, not her disability.

Thus, when discussing the issues regarding normalisation of life of individuals with intellectual disabilities we no longer concentrate on obstacles and limitations within the disabled person, but rather on the obstacles stemming from his social and physical environment. Eliminating the obstacles and limitations within the environment is a basis of prevention of the phenomenon of discrimination and social exclusion, a premise which is reflected in various international and national documents.

Multidimensionality and universality of the phenomenon of disability makes it very difficult to develop a single, coherent and generally accepted definition. The social dialogue concerning this issue should be continued, not only within the scientific field. At the same time it is important to maintain the terminological transparency of subsequently developed new interpretations of the phenomenon of disability.

A brochure published in 2010, titled "The Ten Commandments for talking about intellectual disability" is a good example, illustrating the necessity of undertaking social initiatives aimed at creating an appropriate image of a person with such dysfunction. The publication was created as an initiative of non-governmental organisations acting for the benefit of people with intellectual disability and is aimed mostly at the representatives of the media, which exert strong influence on social attitudes. The aims of the authors include, among other things:

creating easily accessible materials, which will make it easier to present individuals with intellectual disability in the media in the way beneficial to their integration;

organising the language used both in the media and in everyday life with regard to intellectual disability;

promoting – especially in the case of journalists – the appropriate language and way of speaking about intellectual disability;

raising awareness of journalists regarding intellectual disability;

helping to raise the level of acceptance and understanding of individuals with intellectual disability in society in general.

Additionally, the brochure included basic information about what intellectual disability is and how it differs from mental illness.

To summarise, educational opportunities for adults with intellectual disability depend on numerous and complex factors, including social attitudes towards disability, as well as current legislation and social policy regarding this issue. The aim of this study was to explore the process and conditions of these social and legislative changes, which determine the development of education for persons with intellectual disability in Poland, as well as to present the forms of education currently available to adults with intellectual disability.

Method

The starting point for the examination of educational opportunities of adults with intellectual disability were the results of research conducted as a part of my doctoral thesis, submitted for public defence in April 2011 in the University of Wroclaw Pedagogy Institute. The subject of this research exploration was an analysis of the conditions influencing the process of creation of theoretical bases and the organisation of special needs education, as well as other forms of education available to individuals with intellectual disability in Poland after 1989, using the Lower Silesia region as an example[1]. The current study aimed to deepen the understanding gained from previous research. It was conducted using the interpretative paradigm, which seems to be the most appropriate for exploration, analysis and understanding of the process of creating educational opportunities for adults with intellectual disabilities, since this process is determined by its given time period, social reality and cultural context within which it takes place. What is more, the aforementioned research perspective assumes a combination of methods, selection of most significant aspects of the studied phenomenon as well as the researcher's involvement in the attempt to understand as well as possible, to analyse and to interpret the chosen aspect in the context of her accumulated knowledge and experience (Malewski, 1998).

The main research methods in this study were the pedagogical monograph and the unstructured interview. A source of valuable reflections and comments regarding the changes in the social situation of individuals with intellectual disability, as well as actions undertaken as part of their occupational and social rehabilitation, including trends in education, were the

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[1] The research was supervised by Professor Stefania Walasek.

interviews with, among others, Ms. Ewa Kasinska – the Head of the Health and Social Policy Department of the City Council of Jelenia Gora (up to 2012), Danuta Zmijowska – manager of the Occupational Therapy Workshop of the Polish Society for Individuals with Intellectual Disability (Polskie Stowarzyszenie na Rzecz Osob z Uposledzeniem Umyslowym, PSOUU), Ms. Lucyna Szpak – vice-president of the Jelenia Gora Section of the Association Against Disability (Jeleniogorski Oddzial Towarzystwa Walki z Kalectwem) and with Ms. Dorota Blachowska – manager of the Occupational Therapy Workshops of CARITAS in Legnica Diocese[1].

A perfect complementation of the aforementioned methods was document analysis. The selection of source material closely followed the topic outlined in the title of this article. A special place in the source database was granted to interview questionnaires, which aimed to explore opinions regarding the fulfilment of educational needs of adults with intellectual disabilities. Another important source of information were legislative acts in the form of laws, ordinances and directives, as well as documents describing European and international standards, which Poland has accepted or taken a stand towards.

So far, research regarding organisation and course of education of people with intellectual disability focused its analysis much more often on the educational situation of children and adolescents, whereas the needs and problems of adults with intellectual disability with regard to widely understood education have been marginalised or even completely ignored. This was due to the fact that those people, no longer being subject to mandatory education, remained outside of the educational system. What is more, after completing their education at the elementary level these individuals would often "disappear" within the area of the out-of-school education. This was because there were no alternative routes of education for this group of people. What is more, the need to activate this group of people, both in the social and, even more importantly, occupational areas, was disregarded.

The turning of attention towards the dignity of the disabled persons in the process of social integration, especially in the educational field, is a result of deep changes, which have occurred in the awareness of our society within the last 25 years. It is associated with changes in the value system and ways of acting in many aspects of life, as well as with getting rid of prejudice and viewing each person as a partner. Reform initiatives aimed to secure access to education for everyone, undertaken by various groups, move Poland closer to the standards in force in other countries of the European Union (Przybysz, 2005). These changes in legislation were a subject of detailed analysis in this study.

With regard to the researcher's perspective and values, in the present study I took the dignity of a human person as a primary value. According to philosophical anthropology of Karol Wojtyla (Wronska, 1999), a person is a "somebody". This phrase indicates the person's fundamental worth, which in the personalistic perspective is the dignity. The person draws her dignity from inner perfection – spiritual perfection, which only she possesses out of all creation. That which the human is in and of himself is associated primarily with his inside. Each outward expression of the person, manifested, among other things, in his actions or creativity, stems from his spiritual nature, that is, the natural basis of the dignity of the person. The worth of a human person is "(…) particular and fundamental, which makes it independent from this or another physical or psychological quality, from her external or internal possessions." (Wronska, 1999, pp.187-194). The human person in this sense should be viewed as a single and indivisible subject of possible initiatives and involvements.

Results

Findings of Demographic Variables

The background for examination of educational opportunities of the studied group is the description of social and economic situation of disabled persons on a nation-wide level, with particular attention paid to Lower Silesia.

The number of disabled persons in Lower Silesia equals 383,000, which constitutes 13.2% of the province's general population (on the country-wide scale this percentage is 12.2%). When families, relatives and caregivers are taken into account, it turns out that more than half of Lower Silesians are somehow affected by the issue of disability (Social Research Laboratory, LLC & MANDS Market and Opinion Research, 2013).

Analysis of the gathered data shows that disabled persons achieve lower levels of education than fully abled individuals. The reasons for this situation are varied and complex and include architectural barriers in schools colleges and universities, barriers in communication with the rest of the environment, problems associated with commuting to the place of education, lack of rehabilitation equipment and educational materials, as well as psychological barriers. Many schools in Lower Silesia still did not remove the architectural barriers. There is also the still unsettled question of what type of educational facilities are best suited for education of disabled persons – integrative or specialist ones. Although some types of disabilities require

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the education to take place in specialist facilities, it is still important to provide those disabled individuals who are able and willing with the opportunity to participate in integrative education.

The decidedly lower level of education of disabled people also translates into their lowered labour market participation, which in turn contributes to the high level of unemployment in this group of people. In Lower Silesia as many as 84.1% of legally disabled individuals are economically inactive. In comparison, among the fully abled people this percentage equals 44.5%. In the group of disabled Lower Silesians who are economically active, the majority is employed in Supported Employment Enterprises – according to an analysis by Biuro ds. Polityki Spolecznej i Osob Niepelnosprawnych [Social Policy and Disabled Persons Bureau] this percentage equals around 70%. Thus, the situation of the disabled people on the labour market in Lower Silesia province is among the worst in the whole country – with regard to both the percentage of economically active people and the employment rates, Lower Silesia occupies the last but one position among other provinces (respectively 12.3% and 9.7%; The Lower Silesia Strategy for Social Integration Project for the years 2014–2020, 2014).

The low level of economic activity is associated with serious financial troubles the disabled often struggle with. Data from The Lower Silesia Strategy for Social Integration Project for the years 2014–2020 (http://www.dops.wroc.pl/aktualnosci2013/dsis1420.pdf) indicate, for example, that one in four families with a disabled member live in danger of poverty, 45% of disabled individuals do not buy the prescribed medicines due to poverty, and 95% of families have no access to the internet.

An important role in the process of social integration of disabled persons in Lower Silesia, as well as in the rest of Poland, is played by non-governmental organisations. There are 275 such organisations within the studied area, including some which operate nationwide as well as small organisations founded as an initiative of the local communities. Main activities of these organisations include:

identifying and publicising social problems,

forming coalitions to help solve problems,

developing and implementing concrete programs of assistance for the disabled persons,

conducting interventions (advocacy; Lower Silesia Strategy for Social Integration for the years 2005–2013, 2014).

In order to more fully implement the assumptions stemming from the postulate of social and occupational rehabilitation of the disabled the local authorities are constructing a network of cooperation with non-profit organisations. This cooperation aims to achieve, among other things, the following goals: formation of appropriate social attitudes, conducive to realisation of the rights of the disabled persons, increasing built environment accessibility for the disabled persons and increasing the level of independence and self-sufficiency of the disabled persons as well as of their level of education, and thus of their labour market participation. Another important issue in this regard is activation and support of activities of organisations founded by the disabled themselves and aimed at creating social policy.

Findings of available educational opportunities for adults with intellectual disability

An important task of education of adults with intellectual disability is the constant support of their development, help in understanding themselves as well as other people, with whom they will have relationships, and who have similar life problems, needs and experiences to all other people. The acquisition by the person with intellectual disability of particular abilities allowing her to participate in more and more complex systems of undertaken activities is a basis for formation of her individual and social identity, which takes form of a very dynamic and lifelong process. This is why continuing education of adults with intellectual disabilities is a fundamental necessity, facilitating their activation (Zolkowska, 2002). Thus understood education of adults with intellectual disability takes place especially during occupational therapy workshops.

As of 31th December 2008 there were 41 active occupational therapy workshops in Lower Silesia. With regard to the dynamics of development of such facilities in the studied area, the highest growth index was noted in 2005 and equalled 37% (the highest growth in the country). The average number of occupational therapy workshops per district in Lower Silesia province is 1.41 (INDICATOR Marketing Research Center, 2009).

Undoubtedly the increase in number of such facilities is associated with civilisational and urbanistic aspects, but nonetheless the most important factor here is the awakened civic engagement. This is evidenced by the fact that the majority of occupational therapy workshops are organised and run by non-governmental organizations founded by parents of the individuals with intellectual disability, as well as other organisations working towards social integration, as well as by religious communities.

The functioning of the occupational therapy workshops will be presented using three facilities operating in Jelenia Gora and Legnica as examples: Warsztat Terapii Zajeciowej przy Polskim Towarzystwie Walki z Kalectwem Oddzial Terenowy w Jeleniej Gorze [Occupational Therapy Workshop of the Jelenia Gora Section of the Polish Association Against Disability] (operating since 1995), Warsztaty Terapii Zajeciowej Polskiego Stowarzyszenia na Rzecz Osob z Uposledzeniem Umyslowym Kolo w Jeleniej Gorze [Occupational Therapy Workshops of the Polish Society for Persons with Intellectual Disability "The Circle" in Jelenia Gora] (operating since 1998) and Warsztaty Terapii Zajeciowej CARITAS DIECEZJI LEGNICKIEJ w Legnicy [Occupational Therapy Workshops of CARITAS of the Legnica Diocese in Legnica] (operating since 2005). The selection criteria were the year of founding of the facility, founding and managing authority and achievements in the field of social integration. What is more, it turned out that an important factor for selection was the actual willingness of the facility to participate in the study and in possible further cooperation.

Occupational therapy workshops operate on the basis of regulations of the Occupational and social rehabilitation and employment of the disabled act, as well as the appropriate regulations regarding occupational therapy published by the Ministry of Economy, Labour and Social Policy. Article 7 point 1 of the aforementioned act reads: "Rehabilitation of disabled persons denotes an array of actions, especially organisational, medical, psychological, technical, training, educational and social ones, aimed to achieve, with the active participation of these persons, the highest possible level of their functioning, quality of life and social integration" (Journal of Laws [Dz. U.], no. 123, from 27th August 1997, item 776, as amended.). This understanding of the notion of rehabilitation indicates the importance of examination of the occupational therapy workshops program as an example of implementation of the concept of lifelong learning. Moreover, the legal definition of rehabilitation corresponds to the following definitions of education:

"(…) leading another person towards higher developmental states and his own activity aimed at achieving his full and unique ability" (Kwiecinski & Sliwerski, 2003, p. 38),

"(…) The sum of experiences, which are significant with regard to formation of competence and identity of a person, or a sum of his interactions with the world of life, important for the optimal development of personality" (Dykcik, 2001, p. 63).

An occupational therapy workshop is a facility which gives those people with intellectual disability who are unable to work a chance to be rehabilitated socially and occupationally through the acquisition or restoration of skills necessary for employment. Additionally, participants of the workshops acquire skills needed for more independent life during various classes.

A participant who was qualified for therapy, is first "familiarised" with the facility, staff and other disabled persons and learns about types of activities available in a given workshop, as well as about the rules principles of its functioning and of rehabilitation. She gets to know each particular workshop for about one month, after which she chooses the workshop she would like to participate in for the next six months, or decides to attend several workshops (spending one month in each – the so called rotational system). Parents or caregivers attend an initial interview at the stage of applying for a place in the workshop, and then at acceptance attend a formal interview. Learning as much as possible about the person's psychophysical state from the family is necessary for planning an effective rehabilitation program. The needed data are gathered on the basis of medical, psychological and pedagogical diagnoses. The participant is examined in the facility by a neurologist, with assistance of a rehabilitation therapist. Next, an individual plan of rehabilitation and therapy is developed within three months and presented to the parents, since effective rehabilitation always requires an active participation of the family environment.

Rehabilitation of individuals with intellectual disabilities proceeds on two levels simultaneously, and consists of both functional rehabilitation and initial occupational activation. The first area encompasses training of the following abilities: communication competency, personal care, independent social functioning, economic skills, and planning and decision making skills. On the other hand vocational education of the workshops' participants emphasises learning about the formal aspects of employment, such as applications, curriculum vitae, attendance, contracts, etc. Additionally, it aims to develop and increase awareness of the traits of a good employee in the participants. Emphasis is also put on developing team working skills and the ability to cooperate with a superior. This is achieved through organising classes within actual workplaces.

Summarising, occupational therapy workshops constitute the only form of fulfilling the needs of adults with intellectual disability in an interesting and useful way available to them. Thanks to diverse classes these people become more self-sufficient, independent and responsible, which undoubtedly influences their subsequent employment in supported jobs.

Discussion

Social contacts between the disabled and fully abled people may take different forms, which are described as "visibility of the disabled in the society". In this context the process of integration gains features characteristic for both a social and a psychological phenomenon, which means that the barriers which are most difficult to overcome by both sides are the psychological ones. Thus, the following questions still seem to remain relevant: how to educate for integration? How to prepare people for the contact with a person with intellectual disability, so that they would not be apprehensive about her and her needs and would reach out to her? On the other hand, how to promote pro-social attitudes towards people with intellectual disability, how to develop empathy towards them? Meeting these challenges is one of the pressing issues of today's world.

It is assumed that the degree to which the problem of fulfilling educational needs of people with various disabilities is solved may serve as a basis for evaluation of the educational system as a whole. The basis for implementing changes aimed at creating society which is open to and accepting of individuals with lower intellectual or physical abilities, is the creation of non-segregating laws, especially with regard to access to education.

The educational system reform brought beneficial changes with regard to education of pupils with intellectual disability. Decentralisation of responsibility for education of pupils with special educational needs, which began in the early nineties, made it possible for local authorities to encourage and support schools in such a way which allowed the schools to make decisions regarding the best use of their own resources in order to fulfil the needs of all local pupils.

What is more, positive legislative climate, illustrated especially by the introduction of non-segregating regulations in educational laws, as well as the growing social awareness of the need to change conditions and the environment in such a way as to make it possible for disabled pupils to be schooled together with their healthy peers, have brought about changes in the structure of education of disabled pupils in Poland, visible since the mid-nineties, when the number of schools and pre-schools with integrative classes started growing dynamically.

The necessary condition for empowerment and adaptation of the person with intellectual disability in today's troubled, chaotic or even hostile world is a gradual, rational inclusion of this person into the social life of the environment he happens to live in. This can be done through assigning him tasks he is able complete, as well as through his learning about cultural objects of the given region, city, town, village, district, street, or family or neighbourhood community. Such actions aim to bring the person with intellectual disability closer to that which is common, which integrates people, which does not introduce artificial divisions between people who know and respect each other, which is valuable to everyone, which allows people to be happy, to experience, to love and be loved. Consequently, all this allows people to feel adult and whole. These assumptions are realised in the process of social and occupational rehabilitation of people with intellectual disability. Activity of the occupational therapy workshops is a good example of the implementation of the described concept, especially in the area of widely understood education, which gives individuals with intellectual disability an opportunity to experience their own identity and social integration.

Accompanying an adult with intellectual disability in their lifelong education consists mainly in teaching her to keep discovering her worth ever anew, despite her disability. It is nothing else but helping her in meeting ever new challenges which life brings.

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THE ITALIAN ARBERESH AND ALBANIAN NATIONAL CASE

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Abstract

This scientific research through the accumulation of facts, historical resources and their interpretation aims to give a full panorama of the whole contribution of the Italian arberesh to the Albanian case at the end of the XIX-th century until the first decade of the XX-th century. Exactly by beginning at the end of the 19th century in the south of Italy it will begin to loom an Albanian literature with an authentic national content. The well known representatives of such a literature would be important figures in the rows of the Arberesh Italian – Albanian community who had achieved to conserve a clear Albanian language and traditions. Also the Italian-Albanian periodic press like "Fiamuri Eve", "The Albanian Nation" that were created during this period would become the forums for the disclosure of their political thoughts and ideas about the fate and the future of the Albanians that lived under the rule of the Otoman Empire at the end of the 19th century. Among the initiators of such a movement at this period would be Jeronin De Rada, Dhimiter Kamarda, Zef Skiroi etc. Their activity would be displayed through their wide multi-aspect creativity which is evidenced in the literature, scientific, cultural, publicist political and patriotic aspect. Of a particular importance would be considered their ideas and projects in the funtion of creating an autonomous Albanian Vilayet. All their activities will serve a single purpose and will developed in order to support the solution of the Albanian nation political case and will find the full support not only of the Italian-Albanian society but also of the other well known figures and personalities of the Italian politics. The Italian Arberesh used all their possibilities to give an international dimension to the Albanian case as a factor of stability in the Balkan region and beyond. In order to express the obove problematic we have exploited a rich archival literature represented by the dense correspondence of De Rada with other known personalities of that time such as the Romanian princess with Albanian origin Dora D'istria (Elena Gjika), we have used the political Testament of De Rada, by viewing it in a comparative context with the studies of other Albanians and foreign authors.

Keywords: "Arber's flag" "The Albanian Nation" administrative autonomy, Jeronin De Rada, Dhimiter Kamarda.

Introduction

The Arbores community in Italy, refering to the statistics of the time, at the end of the XIX century comprised 200 thousand Arbores, were spread in 80 colonies, with two main units in Napoli and Palermo.[1]

After the '50s of the XIX century, in South Italy it started a convulsive movement of the Arbores community, as a strong support towards the affirmation of the ethno-cultural Albanian identity. The most distinguished representatives of this movement were important personalities of literature among the Italian-Albanian Arbores community, who had managed to preserve the pure mother tongue, the Albanian customs and tradition. A movement likes this, which in the beginning had an individual character, would soon evolve and also be reflected in the periodical Italian-Albanian press entities. Through this, the Arbores' literary and artistic composition would become very famous, and at the same time there were introduced platforms of political ideas, conceptions and judgments regarding the political status of Albanian territories at the end of the XIX-th century.

1.　　In addition of ethno-cultural affirmation

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[1]Stavro Skëndi, Zgjimi kombëtar shqiptar,(The Albanian national awakening) (1878-1912), translated by Skënder Luarasi and Nestor Pravishta, Phoenix, Tirana: 2000, p. 206.

Albanian Renaissance cannot be understood without the literary composition of the most well-known Arbores'representatives De Rada, Zef Skiroi, Anselmo Lorekio etc.

-The first period of their activism includes the period 1850-1880.

Nationalism motivated the Arbores Jeronim De Rada from Machia Albanese of Kozenca to write and publish in the Italian press articles about the Albanian National Case. To reach this goal, he would try to make the most of Italian press like "Calabrese" magazine with who collaborated also Vincenzo Dorsa, Giuseppe Krispi and other Arbores writers. He took advantage from this opportunity given to him to publish some important articles regarding the ancient Pelasgian origin of Albanian people and language. Meanwhile he was looking for ways and laying the foundations of Arbores press, which was first documented with the first publishing in Albanian language and Italian of the newspaper "L'Albanese d'Italia" (The Albanian of Italy). [1]

Articles published in the newspaper "L'Albanese d'Italia" had generally the National character, which would be emphasized through publication of parts from poems "Kwngwt e Serafina Topisw"(songs of Serafina Topia) and fragments from "Vallja e haresw sw madhe" (The dance of the great happiness) of Anton Santori. He also published other compositions about traditional Albanian customs. De Rada used his journalism skills to make the Albanian National Case famous worldwide. Thus, Elena Gjika named this newspaper "prognosis of the Albanian National Movement".

Meanwhile, since 1862, in his compositions Vincenzo Dorsa would reflect not only the Pelazgian origin of Albanian language, but at the same time he would try to emphasize the convergence between Albanian language and Latin & Greek languages, as an essential feature of proximity and collaboration between Albanians, Greeks and Italians.[2] The Arbores Dhimitwr Kamarda would also support this idea as he was a deep connoisseur of foreign author's works about Albanian language.Through his studies, he would insist merely on the emphasizing of the common origin of Albanian and Greek language stating that: " *From the Pelasgian trunk there were created two branches, one was Albanian and the other one Greek"*[3]and consider language as a tool for bridging collaboration and familiarity between Balkan neighbor countries. It's important to mention that during the period of the Congress of Berlin's proceedings, he really hoped in the support of the British diplomats. Since holding correspondence with them, De Rada was very optimistic about their positive attitude toward Albanian National Case, especially the one of Liberal Prime Minister Gladstone with whom he had a lot of correspondence. Stating his ideas, Gladstone, supported Albanian's demand of self-government through local autonomy.[4]

-**The period of activism during 1881-1900**

In the second phase of the Arbores activism, after the collision of Prizren's confederate in March 1881, they would strongly intensify their efforts in some specific directions; in reviving their nationalism in supporting the political Renaissance for enriching the cultural movement, for national language and literature, for the conscious awakening of Albanian people regarding politics, and their union in their motherland but also in the diaspora.

In addition, through perseverance of De Rada and other compatriots in the diaspora,on August 20th1883 it was published the second Arbores magazines "La Bandiera Dell'Albania"(Albanian's flag).

The magazine "La Bandiera Dell 'Albania" (l883-l887) represents the first Albanian press institution, in the period of organizing the National Movement towards a new concept.[5]In the beginning it was published as a social, cultural, folkloric, artistic and linguistic magazine, but very soon it devolved these bounds. Apart from the coverage of Pelasgian origin of Albanian language, announced by Dhimitwr Kamarda[6]and De Rada, the magazine covered thoroughly subjects of the national politics, evoking the important developments of Prizren's Confederate and a series of articles like the one entitled "Ç'i duhet Shqipwrisw?" (What does Albania need?). There are announced a couple of political ideas with planning character, like the legitimate right of Albanians on creating a common villayet which would include gegs and tosks and would be governed with democratic principles. De Rada tried to give international dimensions to the Albanian National

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[1]Ibid., p. 116.

[2] Nathalie Clayer, Në fillimet e nacionalizmit shqiptar (At the beginning of the Albanian nationalism), botimet Përpjekja, Tirana: 2007, p. 183.

[3]Ibid. p. 188.

[4]Jeronim De Rada, Autobiografia, translated by Jup Kastrati, Onufri, Tirana: 2002, 47. The letter of 26 July 1880.

[5]Stavro Skëndi, Zgjimi kombëtar shqiptar, (The Albanian national awakening) (1878-1912), translated by Skënder Luarasi dhe Nestor Pravishta, Phoenix, Tirana: 2000, p. 115.

[6]Dhimitër Kamarda was an Arbores priest of liberal tendency.

Case, considering the existence and acknowledgement of the Albanian nation in the international context as crucial. On the other hand, he evaluated the fair solution of the Albanian National Case as a fundamental factor towards peace and security not only in the Balkan but also further.[1]Guided by such ideas, De Rada choses and publishes poems and verses, historical literacy about Arbores genealogy and their role in the country's future. He kept enhancing the idea that in Italy there was enough infrastructures to organize national activism for Albania and Albanians. The magazine was expanded even outside Italy, not only in countries where there were Albanians like Greece, Romania, Turkey, Bulgaria, Egypt etc. But also in Austria and France.

In the magazine "Fiamuri i Arbwrit" a lot of Arbores writers and publicists published, like Pjetro Kiaraand Gavril Dara Junior, Alfos Kinigoand Zef Skiroi; the distinguished Renaissance activists, Sami Frashwri and Jani Vreto, Filip Shiroka and Gjergji Qiriazi, Visar Dodani, Dora d'Istria and Nikolla Naço; but also a couple of foreign Albanologs and scholars.That's why Professor Zijahudin Kodra, would state: "*We can say that "Flamuri i Arbwrit" it's the magazine of the periodic Albanian press that united Albanian intelligence of the time, expanded worldwide*".[2]

In this magazine would introduce his literacy compositions, a well-known poet of Arbores Zef Skiroi, whom together with De Rada and Kamarda would vigorously contribute in bridging relations between two sides of Adriatic.[3]In 1887, he started to publish the magazine with literal character "Arbri i ri"(New Arber), which would replace the magazine "Fiamurin e Arbwrit" of De Rada. Despite its literal character, the articles published in this magazine, would also have national content, evoking the glorious past of Albanians and their rights of self-determination. [4]In addition, the fulfillment of Arbores main goal for national unification, was reflect in Dora d' Istria's idea: "*Without literal Renaissance, the political Renaissance cannot happen at all"… most important efforts are not "patriotic" declarations or manifestation, but the awakening of intellectualism, who's the main source of every social activism and every real development.*" Meanwhile, Elena Gjika states also the ways that would liberate Albanians from inferiority. According to her, expansion of education and scholarship, the creation of Albanian cultural and educational institutions, the foundation of an Albanian Academy, the composition of an Albanian vocabulary, represented the ways and efforts that would bring the Albanians towards their political unification.[5]

2.   Activism of Italian-Albanian associations and committees

In the end of the XIX century, in diaspora there were created a couple of Albanian associations and committees. Among them, the most active ones would result the Albanian colonies in Bucharest, Bulgaria, USA, Egypt etc. On the other hand, even Italian-Albanian associations and committees would play a key role, as they were established by the most distinguished representatives of Arbores community in South Italy. Their intensive activism was because the Arbores of Italy were entitled with more freedom than Albanians in the other colonies. In the last years of XIX century, the activism of the Italy's Arbores would reach a higher organizing phase, manifested with the foundation of the association "Societa Nazionale Albanese" in 1895.[6]Its main activities would result in accomplishing of certain objectives, among which the most important include:

- The organization of some linguistic Congresses, the first one held in Corigliamo Calabroin 1895, where Francesko Krispi was elected President of Honor and the second one held in Lungro of Calabrian 1897.
- The efforts of unifying a common alphabet in addition of proper writing and learning of the Albanian language.
- The compilation of an Albanian dictionary.
- The wide collaboration with Albanians living in the Albanian territories.

Moreover, in 1898, "Societa Nazionale Albanese" association would submit a memorandum to the High Court, demanding the acknowledgment of Albanian language as national language and the opening of schools in Albanian language in Albanian villayets.Therefore we can state that the activism of this association had pronouncedly political character, reflected

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[1] "Fiamuri i Arbërit" (The Albanian flag), september 1883, the article is entitled: "Austria dhe Shqipëria" (Austria and Albania). Mendimi politik e shoqëror i Rilindjes Kombëtare Shqiptare (The political and social thinking of the Albanian national Renaissance), vol. I, Triana : 1971, p. 336

[2]Ylli (The Star) Scientific magazine, nr. 7, Tirana: 1952.

[3]Stavro Skëndi, Zgjimi kombëtar shqiptar, (The Albanian national awakening) (1878-1912), translated by Skënder Luarasi and Nestor Pravishta, Phoenix, Tirana: 2000, p. 115.

[4]Ibid.

[5]A letter sent to Dora d'Istria in 1866. Dhimitër S. Shuteriqi, Through the literary century, Studies, Tirana: 1973, p. 150.

[6]Stavro Skëndi, Zgjimi kombëtar shqiptar, (The Albanian national awakening) (1878-1912), translated by Skënder Luarasi and Nestor Pravishta, Phoenix, Tirana: 2000, p. 202.

on its demand on the creation of a United Albanian Villayet[1]. Such demand was in complete coherence with the political platform of the Albanian Renaissance Movement.

In addition to this activism, in April 1897 in Napoli there was created a Political Albanian Committee, headed by Markezi d' Auletta, who asked to the Italian government to support the Albanian National Movement. [2]By the end of the XIX century, the activism of the Italian-Albanian associations, whose representatives would not all share the same political attitude as De Rada, would regardless intensify and continue with demands to the High Court. What's interesting about this period, is a project introduced in one of the petitions addressed to the High Court in June 1899 from the Italian-Albanian community in Italy, through which was proposed that the villayets of Shkodra, Kosovo, Manastir, Selanik and Janina should create a common villayet with an autonomous status denominated "Regional Commissariat for Imperial properties in Balkan Peninsula" dependent on Istanbul[3]. As main institution of this villayet would be the General Committee residing in Manastir, on who would depend on the Special Commissioners in the capitals of other villayets. As official language in the vilayets would be Albanian, and official language between Regional Committee and Central Government in Istanbul would be Turkish.[4]We think that such project would not adapt with the ethnic-linguistic circumstances in the Albanian villayets.

Also, in 1900 it was created an Albanian Committee in Rome, Italy. In the same year it was founded also the National Albanian League with branches in all Italian-Albanian territories.[5]

In the early XX th century, the Arbores movement would consolidate and fortify and concentrate mostly in the organization of Congresses with educational-cultural character but at the same time with authentic political aims. The Congress held in Napoli in 1903, would demand from the Italian government to provide more scholarships for Albanians, teaching Albanian language in public school of Arbores community in Italy, the foundation of a central magazine in Rome in a couple of languages including the Albanian language also. [6]

The biggest accomplishment of the Congress of Napoli, would be the establishment of a Cathedra in the Oriental Institute of Napoli in Albanian, in which would practice and profess his activity the Arbores poet Zef Skiroi.[7]

But we can state that, regardless the cultural and educational activism with authentic political goals, the most distinguished representatives of the Arbores elite in Italy would not share the same points of view regarding the form, methods and approaches that should be implemented to reach the political unification of Albanian territories. Divergences between them would be easily detected by the creation of two main streams; the revolutionary and the moderate one, who would reflect different outlooks in the political future of Albanian territories. Main representative of revolutionary stream Zef Skiroi would see the process of gaining the Albania's independencethrough a thorough revolution and insurgence to liberate from the Otoman Empire. While, the liberal side represented by De Rada and Anselmo Lorecchio not only were categorically against such statement, but also considered the existence of the Otoman Empire as a necessary affliction who would protect Albanians from the risk of Balkan nationalism. According to them the emancipation and the cultural awakening of Albanians was the right way toward the foundation of an independent Albanian country, emphasizing also the fact that Albanians lacked the support of the International factor which was crucial in the process of creating a country among Balkan people.

Regarding the issue, we think that the Liberal's point of view stood closer to the political-historical reality of Albanian territories and Balkan region by the end of the XIX century until the first decade of the XX century. In this period the Albanian National Movement had to face not only the opposition of the Ottoman Empire for not giving autonomy to the Albanian territory but at the same time it had to face the imminence coming from its Balkan neighbors and nationalists (Serbia and Greece).

Furthermore we have to state that until1912 the Albanians still didn't have the International support, highly essential in the process of creating a state, standing alone against all.

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[1]An administrative unit in the frame of the Ottoman Empire in which the Albanian territories were included in the 20th century

[2]Markezi d' Aulettaclaimed to be a descendent of Skanderbeg's kinship

[3]Stavro Skëndi, Zgjimi kombëtar shqiptar, (The Albanian national awakening) (1878-1912), translated by Skënder Luarasi and Nestor Pravishta, Phoenix, Tirana: 2000, p. 203.

[4]Ibid. p, 204.

[5]Stavro Skëndi, Zgjimi kombëtar shqiptar, (The Albanian national awakening) (1878-1912), translated by Skënder Luarasi and Nestor Pravishta, Phoenix, Tirana: 2000, p. 204-205

[6]Ibid, p.205.

[7]Ibid.

Albanian language face globalization challenge or developmental trend?

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Abstract

Language reflects a nation. Language is the clearest view of a nation and its culture. The extent to which the language is enriched and purified is an indicator of the level of this culture. So, national revivals have always gone parallel to the adding elements from the language itself and cleansing of foreign words that have flowed from other language. This is continuing even today ... Cleaning the language from this phenomenon is a scientific and national task. "Albanian language science has appreciated the work done by the best old and renaissance authors for cleaning the Albanian language from unnecessary foreign words. We still continue to make efforts to clear the Albanian literary language in order not to let the values of our language disappear and preserve its connections with the literary language.

Globalization, although it is good for the development of the most undeveloped countries, has turned into a persecution of cultures throughout the world. It seems that Tosk and Geg dialect and Albanian literary language too, will be soon as the precious things we keep in the museum, which are of a great value but useless. Is there a solution to avoid this happening to this beautiful and ancient language? Of course there is. It's up to the government to help preserve mother tongue as it is, as other countries around the world are already doing. The Albanian language is full of foreign words, archaize, regional belonging and atrocities. Globalization is based on society and as a starting point it has the competitiveness. Many analysts in the world, when talking about globalization often recognize that globalization is a human perspective process and as such is inevitable. In order to scrap this division between people, new and accessible ideas should be found. Otherwise this may lead to utopia. What would Gjon Buzuku had thought when he wrote "Meshar"? He wrote this book to tell albanians that Albanian language should be used in religious services, but today we already have many foreign words, neologisms, archaize and regional belonging. Albanian language is facing globalization with both, its positive and negative sides. We should realize that without foreign words Albanian can not survive, but we need a cultural and language policy, a language planning for foreign words and their usage. A policy that would not only end in drafting the principles and criteria, but to put them into use, too. With good planning language can ensure proper integration of foreign words within the language standard, because the standard language only in this way can maintain its identity and integrity.

Keywords: globalization, language science, religious service, language planning, identity, integrity, standard , foreign words, neologism, archaism, regional belonging etc.

Globalizms in albanian language, a challenge or a developmental expectation

Linguistic term globalism includes neologisms, historisms, archaisms, professionalisms, orientalisms as well as borrowing of foreign words on sources of various indio-european languages . Knowing and dealing with globalisms we should maintain an attitude toward them. Globalisms are developmental trends for the necessity of the enriching and ''cleaning'' albanian language simultaneously. They constitute a challenge e.x. instead of neologisms we can use pretty well the adequate albanian word obtaining the same meaning in the phrase. Typical in the usage of neologisms is the contemporary albanian author Ismail Kadare. To know better the globalisms it is necessary to use borrowing and their sources.The place of the borrowing in the Albanian lexicon :

1. Many foreign words are part of albanian lexicon and we can't substitute them any more.

2. Many borrowing words have a deteriorating overtone

3. It's necessary to make attempts to refrain borrowing of the words from other languages or foreign words to be out of usage , while we have albanian words, fully in the same meaning, most distinguished, precise and clear for albanian speakers. The broad activity of writers, political social activity of people,in art and culture, for cleaning and enriching of standard language, becomes concrete in the substitution of foreign words with albanian words.

Borrowings can be seen in the way they enter in a language. Are presented in written and spoken form. Our country for a long life history has had relations with other countries as a result have had a strong impact reflected in the albanian lexicon.

1. Words of greek belongings, the earliest borrowings. Words from earlier Greek belong to the social fields , vegetation such as: fern, cabbage, cherry...etc.Some lexical borrowings from greek have remained in spoken language such as regionals and the rest as a usage of outdated words, so historisms.

2.Words of italian belongings: Words from italian in the commerce field, navigation.We can mention some words in the terminology of navigation: boat, sailor, steamboat, sail...etc.

3. Words of french belongings: Words used in administration, judiciary, school, politics, medicine, fashion. French words are part of terminological and professional lexicon. We can mention some words such as:address, embassy, barricade, bureau, grant, bureaucrat.

.**4.Words of latin and roman belongings** albanian lexicon is full of latin words. Roman conquest in Albania lasted 500 years with a great influence of latin words.Gystav Majer supported the idea that albanian language is a "mixed" half-roman language.Terms of latin belongings are even in medicine, animal's names, body parts such as: agriculturist, child, hair, face.

5.Words of slavic belongings usually in albanian lexicon are from slavic and bulgarian language, entered in albanian language during the Medieval Age . Words of slavic language are used in agriculture, farming and handicraft: hammer, dab, punch, bone. There are some toponyms from slavic: Bistricë, Bogovë, Çorovodë, Novoselë.

6. Words of turkish belongings is included terminology of: clothing, urbanization, cuisine, administration. The earliest are words in war and clothing field such as: trumpet, linen, chest, cannon, drum,..etc. Words from other sources: nightingale, father, coffee, window, brandy, violet. There are also some arabian and persian words entered in albanian language through turkish language, thus we use the name orientalisms, with the main source from turkish.

Lexicon and its classification

In the outdate covering of lexicon are included: archaisms, historisms, barbarisms and neologisms. In this lexicon are included words that are no more used in linguistic accordance because of historical or linguistic causes but can be used for stylistic purposes archaisms and historisms .

Archaisms are outdated words almost out of usage, from active to passive part of lexicon. Archaisms are out of usage because there are new words to designate and those realie or occurance. Such words are up to date for such linguistic causes , are called archaisms. We have examples some words from earlier authors, we can't meet any more: përderësi "lypësi-beggar", letërori "letrari-literary, shkrimtari-writer", përmjellet "zbardhet-lightened" etc. It's fair to call archaisms some word forms replaced later with other forms: "botesë" botim, "caktesë" caktim, "mësonjës" mësues.

Historisms are up to date words closely connected with the object or concept that we designate , related to certain historical,economical and cultural stages , meanwhile nowadays are used to prove that stage. Words such as :aga, bej, heshtë, kumbara, shqytë, vergji..etc. Objects or concepts that indicate historisms aren't used today, but are related to a past historical event and dissapeared to it. Outdated words are not part of standard language lexicon, but are used in literature for specific stylistic values. Historisms are used by writers to give a historical overtone to their literary work .E.x.: "Kështjella" of Kadare, "Kalorësi i Skënderbeut" of Haki Stërmilli.

Neologisms or new words (invented words). Continuous development of economy, commerce , transport, science..etc requires the language to complete its dictionary with new words, new expressions totally needed for economical political social and cultural purposes .In language neologisms are used to meet these needs.Usage of new words is stimulated for another purpose: in lexicon there are many word from excessive usage become outdated, to replace them, must invent new words.

Barbarism is from greek barbaros- stranger. These are words and expressions from no other language. These are called unnecessary borrowings.Although they can be used to characterize the characters for humour and satire, to create a context e.x. tiranda(krahoshe), two sta ban(këmbësheshtë), solucion (tretësirë), bulevad(shëtitore).

Neologisms used in Faik Konica's works

What can satisfy our curiosity , is knowing of some created words from Faik Konica's pen that has taken place in contemporary albanian dictionary. We can say there are a lot , but not as much as we would have expected. "We can bring an accurate list : anëtar, atdhe, atdhesi, atdhetar, bashkëqytetar, bashkëvendas, besëlidhje, ckishëroj, dëftesë, drejtshkrim, i cndershëm, gjuhësi, gjuhëtar, fushor, kombëtar, kryeartikull, nënshkrim, nërmjetësi, kushtim, paravajtje, përkujtesë, përvijësim, i tanishëm, themeltar, thellësisht, vetëqeverim, vetor, zyrtarisht". Some of these words, are used by Konica in a different meaning from nowaday meaning. These can be recreated later with new meanings,but the first inventor of these words remains Faik Konica as a phonological-morphological unit . Among neologisms of Faik Konica composites of nouns and adjectives has an important impact, as well as verbs and adverbs . These are composites with the first side nounhead krye-, as kryeartikull-headlines, kryefjalë-subject, kryepunë-main operation, kryeqytetar; and noun self-, such as vetëndjesë-self-feeling "ndjenjë", vetëqeverim-self-govern, vetëurdhërim-self-order, i vetëbotuar-self-published "i vetëshpallur" , i vetëqojtur, i vetëthënë-self-said; with adverb bashkë-, such as bashkëqytetar, bashkëvendas.

a. F. Konica enriched literary language giving new meanings to the well-known words, e.x.:he used anë-side in the sense 'parti-party', noun bushat he used in the meaning 'fermë-farm', cpik, 'shpjegoj-explain', drasë, 'klishe-cliche', lëkurë,

'diplomë universitare-academic grade', lojni, 'politikë-politics',rrëfim 'kuptim-meaning', rrëzë, 'origjinë-origin', sundim-govern, 'administrim-administration'.

b.Neologisms of F. Konica belong to the general cultural lexicon, but there is a great number of terms, such as avulorësi 'fleet', i dielluar (sunny day), dreqtmpronjës 'lawyer', dritëshkrim 'photograph', dytare 'gjeografi 'geography', krye 'capital', kryefiqal 'major official'.

c. F. Konica has given a great contribution in the terminology of linguistics. He has invented almost 30 terms in this field. It's worthy mentioning drejtshkrim-orthography, gjuhësi-linguistics, gjuhëtar-linguist, letrarishte-literature, mashkullore-masculine, nyjë-article, i pazëshmë-voiceless.

Lexical-semantic developments of turkish words in albanian language

In analysis of turkish words in albanian language and their lexical-grammatical treatment there are included some words called 'orientalisms', etymology of which is related to persian and arabic language entered in albanian through turkish language.

Lexical- semantic developments of turkish words in albanian language are conditioned from internal and external linguistic factors . "To clarify more these developments we analyze turkish words: firstly,on the aspect of new word formation based on the theme or a word that origins from turkish, second,on the aspect of creating new meaning formation in these words"On the analysis of 4000 turkish words in albanian language we notice that new word formation based on a theme or turkish word is made through a) affixation, b) composition.

a) Most of affixation words constitute those with productive albanian suffixes such as e.x. from byrek-pie turkish.burek +tore =byrektore. All the used words. Al derived words based on this model constitute almost 60% of new formations that we analyzed so far.

b) Among formed words through composition, dominate those with determinant relation among one side derived from turkish and the other derived from albanian, such as e.x. hallvashitës 'a dessert-seller'(from hallvë + shitës). These composing formations constitute almost 30% of analyzing new words.

1) Derived words with albanian suffix –të, are adjectives that have in common component "lëndë", e.x.i bakërt tq. bakir. **2)** Derived words with albanian suffix – shëm, adjectives the have in common component,"cilësi" e.x. i bereqetshëm, tq. bereket. **3)** Derived words with albanian suffix–ar, -tar have in common the active component such as e.x.: daulltar tq. davul.**4)** Words that are formed with suffix –o –j, are verbs that have in common active component e.x.: cobanoj tq. coban**. 5)** Composite with the first part a turkish word, have in common the component "mjeshtëri", e.x:. teneqepunues, tq. teneke, bakërpunues, tq.bakir.

Semantic developments are derived from turkish in albanian with conative character.

a) with a noted overtone neglective connotation , e.x.: words: cirak, tq. cirak.

b) with a deteriorative and pejorative overtone , e.x.: asker, tq. asker, kallauz tq. kalavuz.

c) with mocking and ironic overtone, e.x.: myteber tq. muteber, tellall tq. telal, kadi, tq. Kadi

Turkish words have their belongings in contemporary standard albanian language, neither can be omitted, nor can be replaced in all contexts of discourse, as sometimes proceeded in wrong way. Fan Noli was right with his reserved attitude toward the omission of turkish words , in which A. Krajni says- he knew to use to get in depth-conversation"për të shtruar muhabetin vendce". This demostrates that between turkish and contemporary albanian lexicon are new connections, as well as other borrowings from other languages. "For this reason, the need for full replacement of turkish words must be seen and reviewed as a viewpoint inconsistent with contemporary linguistic reality ,even though there are no entries of new borrowings from turkish to albanian" . Questionable remains the opinion " only a part relatively small of turkish have a great usage " , despite the fact that usage of historisms in initial sense, continue to be used in spoken and written discourse, in stylistic overtones. Based on analysis of lexical-semantic developments of words derived from turkish in albanian we can draw some conclusions :

1) Almost 4000 words derived from turkish, analyzed almost 500 served as a source of forming inside the albanian derived words , composites or reattached.

2) Semantic developments of derived turkish words in albanian show that in one part of them we notice new derived meanings in chain style , preserving as well the first meaning , or as historicism.

3) New words with albanian affixation or derived meaning in turkish have a broad usage in albanian language . Almost 85% of them have entered in standard language as terms.

4) Lexical-semantic developments of turkish are not only a result of relationships among languages in historical range, when they were in direct contact, but also a result of interaction for the need for languages to assimilate Albanian standard language and its system's abilities and opportunities for the assimilation of foreign element, forming new words in its own source etc.

5) New trends of Turkish in albanian show the importance and complexity of their lexical-semantic values and the necessity of their appropriate codification in dictionaries. Samara says: "There Is a need for redaction and publishing of a bilingual dictionary in our country (turkish-albanian and albanian-turkish), where should be reflected all lexical-semantic trends of Turkish in contemporary albanian ".

Fund of italianisms in albanian language identified as balkanisms

Lexical italian element constitute a great variety of foreign words in all languages of Balcan. "The need to have a look in italianisms in languages of Balcan we can notice during the hard work for conducting a study of italian borrowings in standard albanian". To identify the proper source of words derived from italian into the albanian, we should have a look at balcanic languages. Balcanic languages have been a reception of italianisms. New greek has a wide range of italianisms mediated from turkish, into serbian-croatian italian borrowings through turkish, as for albanian there is a great number of italianisms inherited through greek and turkish . The problem we face is complex with lexical element of italian language in balcanic languages . Common difficulties :

First, the difference between italian and latin element in language, where formal and phonological criteria is not complete .

Second, the omission of venetian derived words common with italian words.

Third, the difference between Italian and French words.

Last, the difference between direct borrowings from italian those infiltrated through balcanic languages themselves . In Albanian the addition of venetian words is infiltrated through historical events between Republic of Venice and other coastline countries in Albania during Medieval Age. . A great number of venetian words, even though partly or fully extended interbalcanic ,are presented through phonological-linguistic units as a unmediator of venetian sources in albanian , such as e.x.: baticë < ven.bataizza, makarona <ven. macaron (tq. makarna).

About Albanian, based on phonology of lexical units,many words are identified as oblique Italian source , and direct greek and Turkish . **Kallo** <it. Callo, **kanellë** <it. Cannella, **salcë** <it. Salsa. Based on Italian sources intermediated from Turkish are units such as: **barbunjë** <tq. barbunya <it.barbone, **gardian** <tq.gardian <it.guardiano, **pupë** <tq.pupa <it.poppa.

In Albanian , it's not so easy the distinction of direct source of a wide range of italianisms.It is supposed an Italian and Turkish influence in the words, such as : **balsam** (it. Balsamo, tq.balsam), **biletë** (it.biglieto, tq.bilet) ,**pandispanjë** (it. Pan di spagna, tq.pandispanya). Based on this category of words as well as the viewpoint of semantical field that they represent based on its influence is configured in a regressing scale , , terms **detarie:** balena, barkë, busull , kallamar, timon, vapor, etc. Words that indicate **clothing and accessories**: bastun, fanellë, fustan, kordelë, portofol, rrobë etc. Designations of **house**: ballkon, banjë, barakë etc. Terms of **war**: batare, bombë, patërshanë etc. Terms of **public life:** avokat, biletë, kancelar.etc.; designations of **plants and animals**: bizele, fazan, kanarinë, limon, sallatë..etc.; designations of **games**: as, damë, fant, pat..etc.

We see a rich variety of a great Italian influence into balcanic languages more than it's confirmed from scholars.

Last, Kristina Jorgaqi says: "… the case of Italian element in Balcan languages,is seen in a profound way , not only for special languages , but also in contrastive plan , remains a research work of great interest".

Investigations about the way of features and peculiarities of infiltration of italianisms in such languages, so far are not completely shown in their completeness.

Some issues about identity of phraseological units

A fundamental problem that arises in general in phraseology as well as in practice of design of a phraseological dictionary is the determination of identity of phraseological units. To give the corpus to phraseological units of language , and to determine their lexicographic treatment first must be identified the content of linguistic phraseology to be distinguished from other units.

a) Phraseological unit is created as a designate sign with a certain specific aim in semantical-functional relatioships .

b) The entire character of meaning is associated with general characteristic and grammatical units of phraseology, in certain terms of phrase.

c) Phraseological unit has features of a linguistic unit with its own functions .

d) Phraseological units are completed linguistic units, thus can be identified and omitted in course of discourse,as well as word.

Identity and boundaries of phraseological units separate them from similar structures and units to them.It is used the axe phraseology- nonphraseology. In nonphraseology there are similar units with phraseology and not such with different features.

a) Nounphrases, where the same word has a literal meaning conditioned in a certain relation of words such as : dog life, childish behavior, genjeshter me bisht, jetë rozë. This is in the function of a determiner and adjectival structure.

b) Nounphrases , of verbal model as equivalents of unified lexical meanings are used in special words, such as: arrij fitoren- fitoj-win, kam shpresë- shpresoj-hope, bëj pushim- pushoj-resting. Every word maintains its autonomy , lexical meaning i.e., word features.

c)Nounphrases formed in the repetition of the same word or words of the same root , where the second part is appart from a lexical unit with it all features, whereas in the functional way we can notice a reinforcing part , such as : trim mbi trima, keq e më keq, plot e përplot, u lodha e u stërlodha.

d) Proverbs and wise words.Proverbs are sayings structurally organized as phrases with closed affirmation, such as : s'ka tym pa zjarr, ç'hedh në det e gjen në kripë, ujku ujkun se ha.Neither proverbs, nor wise words cannot be prototypes of phraseological units , but from proverbs can be gained phraseological units (ujku qimen e ndërron, po zakonin e vjetër s'e harron).

e) Terms and complex designations can have a full clear direct meaning (truri i vogël, poli i Veriut) and literal meaning, motivating directly from meaning of its parts, (Kashta e Kumtrit, ballë kazani "rakia e parë").

f) Literal expressions   "fjalët fluturake", such as : i zbres yjet në tokë, furtunë në gotën e ujit and other literal expressions in artistic literature .

g) "Phraseological clauses " constitute an ambiguous category as well. These structures have a literal meaning as phraseological units, that in linguistic field are equivalents of clauses, such as : njëri i bie gozhdës, tjetri potkoit "cannot deal with each other", punë, punë natë e ditë që të shohim pak dritë; feja e shqiptarit është Shqiptaria.

h) Identity of phraseological unit is related to the case of partial boundaries of this unit . "Boundaries of phraseological unit are determined with constructive elements separated with purely syntactical relations with contextual elements , even though the latter is interinflected through the first elements ". Contextual interinflected elements are pronouns, also other parts of speech can be related with one part of phraseological unit (e ka vënë p u n ë n në vijë).

i) Identity of phraseological unit is related with other occurrences of phraseological system :

-Nominal phraseological units, derived from verbal model, with the first part a suffixed verbal noun (dhënia llogari, from jap llogari).

–Adjectival phraseological units, derived from verbal model , with the first part   a participle noun (i bërë bishë, from bëhem bishë).

 – Adverbial phraseological units, derived from verbal model, with the first part a participle anticipated with a preposition (pa lënë gjurmë, nga lë gjurmë). **– Verbal phraseological units,** derived from verbal model, with the first part a reflexive verb (u bë lëmsh, nga e bëri lëmsh)

Albanian language as balcanic language

Balcanisms haven't had the same extent in all over the languages of Balcanic Peninsula. We find them more in albanian , romanian, macedonian, bulgarian and greek languages. Balcanisms attracted the attention of many scholars. The first scholar that brought into light common features of balcanic languages was Jernej Kopilar. There is almost no balcanism, that we cannot find in albanian language. Balcanisms are present in all subsystems of albanian and other balcanic languages: in dictionary, in phonetic system and in grammatical structure. The presence of a great number of outdated common words almost 60-70 for albanian and romanian such as: i bardhë : barzë (lejlek); bredh: brad, brez : (dash). Scholars admit that these words are inherited in albanian language. It's of great interest the presence of a great number of phraseologisms in albanian language as well as in other balcanic languages : E di ujë, romanian O stiu ca apa, greek To ksero san nero, bulgarian Znam go po voda. Balcanisms, can be noticed mostly in the field of grammar. Amongst the most typical balcanisms is the post-position of definite article in albanian, romanian, bulgarian and macedonian e.x.: albanian   djal-i, vajz-a; romanian baiat-u-l, fat-a, bulgarian mladezh-ët, devojka-ta...etc. Two remarks about balcanisms:

First, should be emphasized that source of this phenomena cannot be required in those languages, when it appeared relatively too late, as in case of bulgarian and macedonian.

Second, this phenomena, from syntactical perspective shouldn't be seen as separate from rules of word order in balcanic languages. Post position of definite article in balcanic languages cannot be a source of bulgarian languages as it might been thought from any foreign linguist.

In albanian language post position of definite article is an ancient phenomena of this language in full accordance to its priority relatively ancient to post position all determiners of the noun. Another common phenomena of balcanic languages is the model of future tense formed with auxiliary verb<< dua>>, which in most cases is petrified , thus transforming into a grammatical format e. x.: compare: do të bëj, gr.: tha kano, bulg. shte pravja, mac. qe pravam, romanian voiu face, serbian croatian cu delati. As for albanian language , it must be considered future model with format **do**, followed by the simple present tense of subjunctive,is all over the language system .

A common phenomena of balcanic languages is the usage of subjunctive mood in cases where other indio-european languages it is used the infinitive or other unexplicated verbal forms . e.x.: compare: dua të bëj, greek thelo na kano, bulgarian iskam da pravja, macedonian sakam da pravam, romanian voiu sa fac. Some linguists have supported the issue that this is an indipendent trend at least in some languages of Balcan. Last, it's worthy mention another syntactical phenomena in albanian,romanian,greek,macedonian,bulgarian,and in some other spoken sud serbian languages. Reclaiming of the(direct-indirect) objects through short forms of personal pronouns. This phenomena is benefitted through some west roman languages such as spanish and traditional italian . The direct object as well , is expressed in a full form of first and second personal pronoun in these two languages and is repeated in a short accountable form of accusative case. e. x.: compare in albanian language: E bleva librin. Bleva një libër. Këtë e di . Ti di vetëm këtë.

Some linguists have supported the thesis that source of this phenomena seeking in vulgar balcanic latin as argued further in thesis . " In this assumption it is clear that Albanian language has maintained the fundamental features characteristics for indio-european languages family (obviously with its evolutions), during its centennial evolution in balcanic region has developed some new features found in some other languages of the Peninsula ". During its historical evolution there are appeared some trends , that can't be found in no other indioeuropean language. "This overall evolution of language is based on internal rules that conditioned its development and its continuous perfection to complete better the continuous needs from a developmental period into another".

About the clearness of albanian language and its attitude toward foreign words

Mass media communication has great chances to be enriched with lexical words. The first impression is that there is a poorness of words and expressions even though this isn't completely true. This because of some reasons:

a) In media there is a wide usage of general abstract words and expressions that give an overtone to the text. e.x.: çështje, problem, detyrë, realizim, arritje...etc. Not to forget some evaluative expressions: Kanë mobilizuar të gjitha rezervat e brendshme; Prodhojnë me cilësi të lartë; U janë përgjigjur gjithnjë e më mirë kërkesave; E kanë vënë në qendër të kërkesave...etc.

b) There are included writings with special words of corresponding fields,but they are meaningless to the wide mass or readers,often taking distorting forms from journalists, and become difficult to understand even for elite reader.

Either for grammatical criteria ,or for lexical criteria we notice some repeating errors. e.x.: dedikohet is wrongly used for i **detyrohet,** premton for **lejon,** rrit for **shtoj** ..etc. The crucial case in these fields remains the conflict for the clearness of language. Many unecessary foreign words can be classified into two groups:

First, are words of general meaning, can be used in various areas even though many of them have the albanian equivalence because of careless usage e.x :influencoj, aplikoj, eliminoj, evitoj, preciz, fenomen, aprovoj, prioritet, princip, determinues, distancë, dominim etc.

Second, in media and television it is used the technical-scientific terminology . e.x. journalists know a little terms of new formation derived from albanian language. Specialists believe that only foreign terms maintain scientific level . " Variety of foreign terms joined with foreign syntactical construction and difficult explanation, make a wide variety of texts meaningless ,even for specialists ".

Synonymy as a richness of albanian language

Synonymy as a linguistic phenomena is related to semantics as a cause of human activity in the process of making sense of the world. Synonyms designate nuances and semantical peculiarities and coexist with other main words that define the same or similar object or phenomena. The reason for appearing synonyms in language , as well as other linguistic phenomenon, is a continuous development and difference of language. This difference stimulates new meanings and new overtones. Synonymic words in unconscious way try to be distinguished in a determined meaning. Definition of synonyms is determined in various ways from many linguists : " synonyms are words with lexical meaning, and change only through modifications of meaning, through expressive colour for the fact that belong to this or that stylistic level of language". A definition that we often see in linguistic literature is this: different words from sound composition in similar or same meaning. There are no absolute synonyms in language. Such considered are double lexical created from lexical units of various linguistic levels: e.x.: vajzë- gocë, çupë, çikë, vashë; treg-pazar ; fshat –katund; oratori-gojëtari; inspirim-frymëzim etc.

Distinctive scale of full synonyms depends on their usage related to the style and discoursive situation . The range of created synonyms in these linguistic conditions raises a great interest for the study of word semantics . e.x:. liken (mjek.) – urdhje, abort, (mjek.) – dështim etc. Synonyms with the same meaning we mostly face in field of terminology.The number of synonymic units of this kind is great in Albanian language . The genuine synonymy is seen in categorical grammatical

nouns as designative units. There is a wide range of synonyms: bregc – balil- brojcë- zog, bletë- gargull- treckë- trishtil- trinckë-tringecë etc. Partial synonyms represent a great linguistic richness . Their meaning constitute distinctive meaningful emotional nuances, whereas genuine synonyms are a source of linguistic phenomena called diglossia (diglosi). Usage of synonyms constitute the richest and the most diversity of language :the more synonyms in language, the more richful it becomes. Synonyms have a great usage in all discourse fields. This usage is associated with fundamental functions: **1.**Function of exchange, when it isn't needed replacement of the same lexical unit, **2.** Function of the appropriate determination of thought, notion**. 3.** Expressive-stylistical function. These functions determine the character of synonyms and their wide usage in language. Meaningful relations of equivalence and similarity are better represented in synonyms. Synonyms in literary context of this verse i: kaloj, kaptoj, kapërcej, hedh,ose hidhërm, zemërim, pikëllim, trishtim. Example: "**Kaluam** male, **hodhëm** përrenj, **kaptuam** gryka, po urinë se **kapërcyem** dot as lodhjen". Synonymy as a rich source of language and synonymy as a richness of expressions in language is considered very important aspect of linguistics in general,as well as an important aspect of aesthetical discourse in general .

Antonyms in school

Antonymy is a general linguistic phenomena that expresses semantic relations through words in opposite sense. Antonym words , that designate objects or phenomena, are very closely connected to the semantical aspect, e. x.: in pupil's mind is bad someone that is not good, meanwhile is bitter something that is not sweet. Denial of the same part of antonymous couple reminds us its opposite. Main classes and groups of antonyms in albanian language, their great richness and diversity, come up in word pairs   in opposite roots and themes (such as: good-bad i mirë-i keq,give-receive jap- marr), with suffixes (i pastër-i i papastër,clean-unclean, kamje- skamje,wealthy-poverty), in paired compound and complex words (gjakftohtë- gjaknxehtë, paradite- pasdite). The scale of contraposition can change inside the same structural feature of antonyms: e.x.: in pair hot-cold i ftohtë- i ngrohtë, because adjective i nxehtë-hot(= shumë i ngrohtë) scores a high rating scale of temperature than the adjective warm- i ngrohtë. "Forms of exercises about antonyms in school are better, but they must be complemented with other new forms to get deeper in semantics of words and multiple relations of meaning amongst them,because antonyms constitute a specific micro-system of lexicon ".
There are three main categories of antonyms: a)antonyms of words that contrast all their senses such as : mirë- keq, b) antonyms of words such in some of their senses, e.x.: too cold ,full of frost. c) antonyms of words such in specific contexts , e.x. he was full of joy, he was full of anger.

Comparings and contrasts of albanian language with other indioeuropean languages

Dividing the richness of words in albanian language from borrowings , after a contrasting analysis of phonological system of some lexical elements , this scholar puts the albanian language in a special place, worthy in subsequent lines . Albanian is a northern-eastern indioeuropean language . According to Çabej: " Indioeuropean languages are distinguished as western(language kentum)and eastern (language satem), according to the criteria of training gutuals k', g'".In northern indioeuropean languages short letter o- is opened into an a. Another ranging criteria creates circumstances that albanian letter f- of latin ph- of greek correspond in words of the same source with one b. Noticing that albanian language belongs to eastern indioeuropean languages , and northern indioeuropean languages and on the other side its b- with most of indioeuropean languages, in its phonological system, and in general linguistic system is far from two classical languages, greek and latin.

Indioeuropean character of albanian language must be seen in the perspective that , not the overall aspect of its linguistic richness derives from the ancient fund of indioeuropean world. Based on the tireless efforts of albanian population with other populations during its history, albanian language has had a huge lost in its authochthonous inherited depository, and on the other side has taken various features from other languages that sorround it. One of main tasks of historical linguistics with a comparing analysis must emphasize one of the coverings of foreign element from inherited linguistic fund . Forms of flexibility: plak- pleq , from plaki. From lexicon we mention some words: ujk, ulk, lat. lupus, greek. likos.

Nor the whole richness of Albanian is inheritance of medieval indioeuropean period . Like any other language, Albanian language has created words from its own subject, which are not foreign,anyway relatively new . During a period of linguistic history it appears a period that includes development of language in its historical age.Based on the relations between Albanian and two classical languages of antiquity in the Middle Ages, very well-known languages of that time, it comes into light the history itself of that language. Saying that inside the indioeuropean territory, Albanian is closely related to this territory such as latin,greek,roman,Italian,French Slavic, Turkish, borrowings treated later on a broader context . With long coexistence of Albanian language with other populations of Balcanic Peninsula,Albanian language prospered along with languages of such new features common with balcanic order.

Chronology of borrowings in Albanian language

The oldest setting of borrowings

In XVIIth century has begun a new age of contacts relationships between turkish and albanian . This was exposed by Andokli Kostallari, factors that determine fundamental features of such relationships in that period were firstly,changes made in this century in economical- social-ideological-cultural life of albanian cities. This background was reflected into albanian lexicon, where turkish borrowings ranged into the highest ratio . Many turkish have entered in albanian in two-three previous centuries. Collected materials still don't permit us having a full exhaustive picture of such linguistic influence in first or second period . Based on research we made, we can bring some data, which lead into a clear idea about the rhythms of this process .

Conclusions

Among the main issues we discussed above, we draw the conclusion that we can't pretend that literary standard albanian language being pure without the influence of globalisms. We have a rich fund of globalisms, thereby albanian language can't avoid 100%. We can't speak about categorical way,that borrowings of indioeuropean languages are 100% harmful or 100% beneficial. We admit they enrich our language, but at the same time "impoverish" it, because we have our equivalent words in a greater sense. The direct influence of powerful languages and cultures represent a great challenge firstly in its own lexicon . Influences among languages are as ancient as languages themselves. Albanian language has survived under such influences. The most influent part from internal and external linguistic pressures is lexicon and linguistic changes in lexicon. Nowadays in albanian language are mostly inserted the anglicisms. Albanian language as other languages accept foreign lexical elements, translates them, adapts them,assimilates them, and creates neologisms with them. According to the scholars in this field , foreign words don't put in danger the corpus of received language .

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The Development of the Tax System in Albania

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Abstract

The history of human society is the history of living together in community. A developed country, where the rights and the freedom of individuals are respected, aims welfare, economic, educational cultural development, educational opportunities and health services for the entire community. There are different countries, which through their mechanisms, enable the distribution of wealth in an integrated way for all members. Development of the tax system in all countries where the economic and political responses. In Albania as a totalitarian society, through the tax system was intended total abolition of private property by changing the structure of income in favor of the state sector income. The tax system contained local and national system of taxes, which were mandatory defined by law, poured on the budget, in a certain amount the amount and period of time. Finances during socialism period were estimated as the most important levers of economic management. They rely on planning and centralization, provided only in terms of the way socialist production, in terms of the existence of socialist social property of the means of production. The democratic changes in the early 90's brought a series of changing in the economic and financial system. The Reforms that were undertaken, in this period were both administrative and fiscal ones. They intended to build the foundations of a new financial system, which had to respond to rapid economic and financial changes. The transformation of the financial system, which began in July 1991, consisted in two types of reform: fiscal reform and administrative reform. Those reforms were made to create a new financial system, which had to answer to rapid economic changes that are happening. Changes in the amount of taxes and fees, are an important link, which governments aim to fulfill their mission.

Keywords: Fiscal policy, Taxation, Fiscal burden, Income tax, Value added tax, Income tax.

Introduction

A developed human society operates on the basis of guarantees and equal distribution of public goods. In the so called totalitarian systems, the state had in his hands the whole capital, income in kind, but also human resources were in his hands. Therefore taxation of citizens was unnecessary, because private property almost entirely was eliminated. While in capitalist society, the state has in its possession a small part of national wealth, therefore it is necessary to create income which are needed to meet the obligations of the state towards its own citizens (budget employees salaries, pensions, investments in infrastructure, schools, hospitals, etc.).But will flow from these financial resources necessary for the state? The main sources used by the state to create public goods, are taxes and fees.

According to Albanian legislation:

Tax is an obligatory and irreversible payment to the state, which include administrative penalties and interest for late payment set out in law. Tax is an obligatory contribution to be paid by any person who directly benefits the public service. Evolution of the tax system in Albania has passed through several stages by responding to country's Economic Development, first-period begins with the declaration of independence in 1912 until 1944. The second period, coincides with the establishment of the socialist system,1944-1990. The third period, the resumption of the tax system, during which financial and tax policies have evolved a lot, from 1991 to 2012.

The historical period from 1912 to 1944.

The Albanian state after the declaration of the independence, inherited a backward tax system, the main base of the Albanian state income taxes were direct, placed on manufacturers at the time of their creation. They were, Xhelepi (tax on Livestock), vergjia (tax on buildings and lands), license tax and profit tax ,etc.

During this period were set customs duties on goods, was changed the import tax on tobacco by 30%, increased, decreased or canceled export taxes in order to protect the domestic production. Laws and orders came out of the export ban of gold, silver, brass and fan. Reorganization of State in 1925, was followed by taking a series of measures.

During this period was forced the collection of delayed obligations, was created the first Albanian coin (Albanian gold francs).

The introduction of foreign capital, became the official policy of the government of King Zog. During 1931-1936, foreign capital, especially the Italian one, dictated to Albanian Governments the accomplishment of an agreement for the union of the Customs. This union at that time, would include the Albanian economy in Italian economic system and also the opening without limitation the Italian capital. Customs Union will be a direct hit in the interests of the newly established Albanian bourgeoisie. But the state budget, will be deprived of an important source of income, as were customs revenue.

At the same time it would increase the financial dependence, Albanian from Italian finance. King Zog formally accepted the agreement, but later he refused it. The improvement of the tax system was based on " The Kingdom Statute fundamental question" who ruled the basic principle that tax is an obligation for people to cope with the general state expenditures.

The Historical Period, 1945-1990

This period begins with the end of the Second World War and ends with the fall of socialist system in Albania. Tax policy based on the principles of Marxist-Leninist classics weakened the private property, by initially setting very high progressive taxes on the rich (to 80%), aiming at weakening of their economic as well as creating a new system. The postwar government through the tax system aimed at the total elimination of private property by changing the structure of income in favor of the state sector income.

The tax system contained local and national system of taxes, which were mandatory defined by law, poured on the budget, in a certain amount the amount and period of time. In Albania during the monism years, was established a unique and complete system of financial authorities. It consisted of organizations of general finance, which included sections Finance and Audit sections , the State Bank, Agricultural Bank and the Institute of Cash Savings and Insurance. Organizations financials enterprises, cooperatives and branches of the economy of finance and accounting in economic enterprises , the agricultural cooperatives , departments of finance and audit control - ministerial and other central institutions.

Albanian state was the main owner of the means of production and the leader of the economy. The finances during socialism were evaluated as the most important levers of economic management. They rely on planning and centralization, which provided only in terms of the way socialist production, in terms of the existence of socialist social property of the means of production and the state of the dictatorship of the proletariat. The distribution of monetary resources in a centralized manner and according to a unique policy for the whole country provides centralized insured the formation of monetary resources in the hands of the socialist state.

The tax system was classified on the basis of residence in the population of the city and the village. The taxation system in the city included income tax derived from the operation of artisans, merchants, tax on income from wages and additional remuneration of employees, taxes on income from single women and income tax from married with children.
The taxation system of the village included income tax from individual agricultural economies, income tax from kulaks, income tax yards from members of agricultural cooperatives, the tax on alcoholic beverages.

Besides the town and village taxes are applied several types of local taxes such as taxes on holders of means of transport, such as cars, motorcycles, bicycles, wagon, tax thick animals, market taxes and weight measurement, cleaning fees, taxes the exercise of the profession and the acts and stamp duty. In 1976 through the adoption of the Constitution was achieved complete elimination of private property, Albania was considered the only place in the world without taxes and tariffs, taxes were hidden in centralized prices of goods and services supplied by the state sector and cooperatives of the economy.

The Historical Period 1991-2012

Democratic changes also brought a number of changes in the economic and financial system. Reforms that took place in this period were comprised of administrative and fiscal reforms, these were intended to build the foundations of a new financial system, which had to respond to rapid changes in economic and financial. The transformation of the financial system, which began in July 1991, at that time consisted of two types of reform, fiscal reform and administrative reform. These reforms were an intensive process of creating from the foundation of a new financial system, which was implemented to respond quickly to rapid economic changes restructuring took State Bank, the creation of foreign banks, cutting ne bank-notes, the privatization of the Saving Bank.

The Tax Structure

Fiscal legislation defines taxes at taxes on incomes, from taxes and spending on capital and property taxes. Also in the tax theory, are used different practices related to the tax rate, they may be proportionate, progressive and regressive. In general, taxes are viewed as a necessary evil. It is said that only two things in life are certain, death and taxes. The new tax system after years 1990, was drafted by virtue of the imposition of direct and indirect taxes.

Albania's tax system is built in such a way, where taxes are paid by the companies where individuals are employed. They calculate and maintain the income tax they pay their employees and for the state. They also collect and pay VAT. While other taxes like income tax, excise, turnover tax, which are actually paid by the customer, are invisible and hidden in the prices of goods and services. In the same way social security contributions are split between employee and employer and paid by the latter. Often businesses pay social insurance on lower wages than workers receive in reality, this is done to reduce business costs.

Tax payers, have a different approach to fiscal experts as regards the taxation system. Individuals complain about taxes, they pay tax on income, whether businesses pay the tax on profits, they also pay the tax on dividends, the amount of direct taxes and indirect taxes, visible and invisible, according to them, they are taxed in any moment in every link. While fiscal specialists believe that we actually have a lower level of taxation compared to other countrie. Recently been made, as never before, a big debate by representatives of political parties on the level and form of taxation in our country. The flat tax or progressive tax on income, increase or decrease of the VAT tax base, increase or reduction of income tax etc. These dilemmas are constant subject of discussion by various researchers.

Several studies made by institutions like The Heritage Foundation, Freedom House and the Fraser Institute have concluded that the higher the fiscal freedom, and the low taxes in a country the more economically powerful it is.

As it is seen in the table 1, the income tax in our country expresses about 25% of GDP, but it has been about 2% smaller in the last two years, especially in 2013 as a result of some changes in the tax structure such as the increase of the minimum limit of the taxed wages, and some exceptions from VAT. Albania has got the lowest tax revenue to GDP in the region. Meanwhile, Bosnia and Herzegovina (46%) is ranked in the first place followed by Montenegro (43%), Serbia (39.5%), Croatia (38.7%), Greece (36.9%), Turkey (39.7%), Macedonia (30.3%) and Kosovo (29.7%). (Source: IMF).

The Personal income tax.

Personal income tax in Albania in about includes about 17% of total revenue and only 1-2% of GDP. However, there is much discussion about it because it affects the personal income especially the income from employment. Albania has been using the progressive tax system especially in the last 14 years, from 1993 to 2007. We removed the high tariff which was about 25% or 30% from the package of the year 2006 leaving it in a maximum fee of 20% and another new tariff of about 1% for the minimum income.

We have been applied the " flat tax" where the personal income and the profit are taxed about 10%, in Albania since January the 1st 2008. The progressive tax system is used in over 164 from the total 196 countries in the world such as: EU, U.S., Japan, Brazil, Australia, China, Egypt, Kosovo etc., while the "flat tax" began to expand after the year 1990. Estonia was the first to use this system in 1994, followed by other Baltic countries, Russia in 2001 and the other republics of the former Soviet Serbia in 2003 and the former Yugoslavia, Slovakia in 2004.Flat tax was firstly applied in Albania during 2008 after two years of debates. The tax refers to the application of a 10% levied on the profit or on the total personal

income. Application of flat tax in our country was associated with a series of measures to eventual avoid negative effects of this tax.

By applying the flat tax it was intended to reduce the tax burden of the workers, but in fact the it pl increased the fiscal burden for the majority of employers.

So we can see that the "flat tax" (table 4) reduces the incomes of the first groups which is the majority, and favors and the fifth group which has got higher incomes.

Considering that the most wages consist of 30-90.000 Lek we can see that the system of the "flat tax" damages the individuals   with   low   middle   personal   income   and   favors   the   individuals   with   higher   incomes. Another change took place at the level of income tax in summer 2013. There were changes in the   boundaries of income tax of the salary level, excluding the income tax on wages up to 30,000 lek (Albanian currency).

 This decision had a positive effect to the a state budget by 2.5 billion, and about 220 thousand people benefited from this change.Another change on the personal income tax liability is the removal of personal income integral declaration , which was introduced in the fiscal package in 2005. This change was thought to have positive effects in fighting the tax evasion but it was not realised because it was considered premature.

The new government has promised to practice the progressive taxation so that to reduce the fiscal burden on the poor and the middle class of the population and to raise taxes on the wealthy people with higher incomes. Fieldhouse (2013) has concluded that the progressive tax increase budget revenues, and improves the public debt and inequality without any negative impact on economic growth.Reduction of taxes, tax procedures and the fairness of tax administration are very important for the development of the economy and welfare of the country. They are also the key for the stability of the economy and the attraction of the foreign investors in Albania.

The Income tax

The reduction of the income tax from 20% to 10 % in 2008 decreased the tax of the business income in the state budget. This reduction intended to encourage the creation of new businesses either foreign or domestic so that to increase the income in the state budget, but in fact it was not successful. It resulted in lower revenues, so it was 2.9% of GDP in 2009 versus to 3% of GDP in 2008.This flat tax had a negative effect on the poor and middle classes and increased the personal income of the   businesses. It didn't increase the income in the state budge. It also increased the difference between the rich and the poor.

The Valued Added Tax (VAT)

The value added tax is a tax on consumption and costs, and for the first time it was applied in France in 1954. VAT also existed in early Egyptian and Greek civilizations and Athens like a tax on sales.It was reflected in the legislation of many countries after World War and continued to appear very quickly in other countries.Since 1967 it has been applied in the majority of countries. The application of VAT has been the most important event in the field of taxation for last 50 years. Being unknown before, in the 50s it became very popular in about 136 countries including France.

The implementation of the VAT developed especially in 90s because it was applied even by the countries in transition. In Albania it was put into practice for the first time in 1996.In the period 2007-2012, the value added tax (VAT) occupied the largest share of revenue to the state budget, by about 44-46%. About 78 percent of this tax revenue comes from customs system, while 22 percent of it comes from the tax administration. The VAT includes 9,1% of GDP. When VAT was put for the first time in Albania in 1996, was valued in 12.5. In September 1997, VAT was increased from 12.5 to 20 percent, close to neighboring countries and beyond. The border remained fixed for many years .

VAT, as a tax on the consumer sphere, turned the majority of firms and individuals in great contributors to the state budget. But as an indirect regressive tax, it damages people with lower incomes.The decision that even those who could circulate about 5 million lek in a year had to obey the rules of the Value Added Tax made the small businesses be included in it. This new scheme of taxation, VAT and income tax, was done in an unsuitable moment, when the payment was very problematic. About 25-30% of the taxpayers don't present their monthly statements, 35-40% claim credit balance (do not pay VAT) or declare that they have not done all activities and only 30-40% actually pay the VAT.Nearly all countries of the world operate mainly with a scheme of a Value Added Tax (VAT.) which is different for different goods and services, i.e. with different parameters for the respective goods and services. In Europe and in countries with rich goods and basic services such as food, medicine, education, medical services, electricity, gas etc. the VAT (VAT) is almost reduced to zero.

For example England, one of the most developed countries of the world has got a zero VAT on food. This tax varies from 0 to 5% in most European countries, and this is done deliberately to protect the people in need as much as possible. The reduction of the VAT for the basket vital foods, medicines and health services, the removal of the VAT on importation of agricultural machinery, reduction or compensation of VAT for the electricity for the consumers of poor families, the exception or reduction of VAT rates for fertilizers, seeds and seedlings for other subjects before being used in agriculture and livestock, are necessary measures to protect high social layer, judging by the poor of the family in our country. Albanians are 8 times poorer than the average families of European zone.

The excise

The incomes from excise are generated by an additional tax called luxury goods. They include goods which are not necessary in everyday life, it is a special type of tax that is applied on either domestic products or foreign ones. Revenue from excise occupy approximately 2 % of GDP in our country . There have been a few changes in fees constituent item , like coffee , drinks, alcohol, tobacco by-product, fuel, cosmetics etc. During these years. Revenue from excise tax for 2012 resulted in 10.5 percent less than forecast and 2.6 percent less than in 2011 . The recession has as excise collected from customs and tax administration . Quantities of fuel clearance , beer , cigarettes and coffee , as the most important articles in budget revenues have declined during 2009-2012 although the market demand and consumption have been increasing . From 1 October 2012, according to law 61/2012 " On Excise Taxes in RA " , all excise tax collected and administered by the customs administration . Law has changed the elements of the declaration payment and control of excise structure for some good , but not their extent .

Conclusions

The history of finance in Albania is characterized by a different policies. These financial policies, with their advantages and disadvantages are trying to respond to the economic and political development of the country.

Unlike economics and finance in capitalism, socialism finances rely on planning and centralization, which are provided only in terms of the socialist way of production, in terms of the existence of socialist social property of the means of production and the state of the proletarian dictatorship. The distribution of monetary resources in a centralized manner and according to a unique policy for the whole country used to provide the formation of centralized fund of the monetary resources in the hands of the socialist state.

After the 90s, the tax system experienced a deep legislative reform, either financial or administrative which used to fight the corruption and helped in giving the highest growth and progress to the country. By placing the flat tax was intended to reduce the tax burden on employees but actually placing the flat tax was lowered income groups before , which favors the majority and the fifth group , with higher incomes .

The implementation of the flat tax aimed at the reduction of the tax barrier to help people. But the "flat tax" reduced the incomes of the first groups which was the majority, and favored the fifth group which had got higher incomes. The reduction of the VAT for the basket vital foods, medicines and health services, the removal of the VAT on importation of agricultural machinery, reduction or compensation of VAT for the electricity for the consumers of poor families, the exception or reduction of VAT rates for fertilizers, seeds and seedlings for other subjects before being used in agriculture and livestock, are necessary measures to protect high social layer, judging by the poor of the family in our country.

Reduction of taxes, tax procedures and the fairness of tax administration are very important for the development of the economy and welfare of the country.

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Tables

Table 1.   The percentage of the income tax to GDP

Percentage to GDP(%)	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total income	25.0	25.0	24.8	24.1	24.5	25.2	26.0	26.0	26.8	26.1	26.5
Tax income	19.9	19.6	20.7	20.9	22.1	22.6	23.3	23.6	24.3	23.7	23.5
From customs and taxation	15.5	15.0	15.6	15.7	16.4	16.6	17.6	18.3	18.9	18.3	18.2
VAT	7.3	7.1	7.4	7.3	7.7	7.9	8.4	9.1	9.8	9.6	9.3
Tax over profit	1.6	1.8	2.0	1.9	2.2	2.9	2.5	2.2	1.7	1.5	1.4
Excise	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.8

Source: Ministry of Finance

Tabela 2. The progressive income tax

Taxable income/month		Employee's personal income tax
0	to 14,000	1%
14,001 to	40,000	140 lek plus 5% amount over 14,000
40,001 to	90,000	1,440 lek plus 10% amount over 40,000
90,001 to	200,000	6,440 lek plus 15% amount over 90,000
200,001	more	22,940 lek plus 20% amount over 200,000

Source Ministry of Finance

Table 3. Employee's personal income tax (based on flat tax)

Taxable income/month		Employee's personal income tax
0	to 10.000	0%
10.001	to 30.000	+ 10% of amount over 10.000 lek
30.001	more	10% of amount over

Source Ministry of Finance

Table 4. Amount of tax paid by progressive and flat tax

Taxable income	By progressive tax	By flat tax	Difference
18.000	340	800	-460
25.000	690	1.500	-810
45.000	1.940	4.500	-2.560
70.000	4.440	7.000	-2.560
90.000	6.440	9.000	-2.560
105.000	8.690	10.500	-1.810
140.000	13.940	14.000	-60
160.000	16.940	16.000	-940
200.000	22.940	20.000	-2.940

Source: Albanian Tax Office Income Report

Using ICT in foreign language teaching – the case of secondary schools in Elbasan, Albania

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Abstract

This article reflects the situation of the use of information and communications technology (ICT) in the teaching of foreign languages in secondary schools in the city of Elbasan in Albania. We are specifically focused on learning more on how ICT is used and integrated in the teaching / learning of the French language in the secondary schools of the city of Elbasan. We think that the younger generation needs new tools to be more attractive, more motivated and more coherent. For this reason we have undertaken this study in the secondary schools in the city of Elbasan. The paper is focused on three main issues related to the following questions: To what extend is ICT used and integrated in the teaching/learning of foreign languages in secondary schools in the city of Elbasan, Albania? Does its usage facilitate the teaching/learning of the foreign languages?; Do the teachers have the proper qualification and knowledge to use ICT in their teaching practices?; We have carried out several questionnaires and interviews with the main stakeholders and we have also carried out experiments that demonstrate the advantages and disadvantages of using ICT in the teaching/learning of foreign languages, in our case of French as a foreign language in the secondary schools. We will also reflect the factors that promote or inhibit the integration and use of ICT in teaching and all the problems that teachers and students encounter while using ICT.

Key words: ICT, teaching / learning, secondary schools ,use, formation

Introduction

The term "Information and communication technologies" is currently used to describe a collection of services, applications and technologies, referring to various devices, which function through networking and telecommunications. For Gerbault J (2002) ICT is defined as "a community of the most advanced technologies used to communicate, share, and address and modify information, asynchronically or synchronically, through the voice, the fixed image or the animated image, and text." Under the same perspective we can find G.L. Baron's and E. Bruillard's definition of ICT in their article, as "composed by audiovisuals on one hand and informatics together with its instruments on the other hand, which administer interactions in distance (...), forming a new area part of the common technologies, which include actions that were previously included in the educational field and in the educational informatics ". Meanwhile, GUICHON N. (2012) in his book defines ICT as "a set of digital technologies, relying on computer use in order to research and disseminate information and communication optimization." In Albania, in the draft on "standards of information and communication technology for teachers" ICT's are defined as: "the totality of electronic means to collect, to store, to process and to present information to users in support of their activities. It consists, among others, of computer systems, electronic office systems and consumer electronics systems. Furthermore, it consists of an information network infrastructure, components of which are: the telephone system, the Internet, fax machines and computers. "

Thus, the notion information and communication technologies universally summarizes "the techniques used in the handling and transmission of information, mainly computers, the internet and telecommunications.". For us, ICT represents the technical union between telecommunications, informatics and audiovisuality. ICT summarizes a set of resources required to manipulate information and especially computers, software and networks necessary to turn, stock, direct, transmit and recapture it. Meanwhile, another problem is noted in the terms "Information and Communication Technologies" and "New Technologies of Information and Communication". Sometimes, we continue to call the ICT "New technologies of information and communication", although fifty years have already passed since the micro-processor began the revolution we witness today. It is true that this label allows us to explicitly refer to advanced technologies relying on computer use to communicate. ICT offer on the one hand a broad range of online clauses, which means, accessible through a communication network (the best known network is undoubtedly the Internet) that enables access to remote computers and servers, and on the other , enabling access to resources offline, which means without communicating with a network (floppy, CD-Rom, DVD).

In practice, today it is easier to access information, where devices can combine online and offline. According to an article published by Le ticanalyste "Les TIC: qu'est ce que c'est?", beyond the content of the expression "Information and Communication Technologies" it is noted that it is the semantics of the term "technologies" that is the subject of controversy in the scientific literature. Nowadays, the word "technology" is used more and more in its plural form and relies on the adjective "new". The term "new technologies" is necessary to evoke the current technical facilities. (Ruffier Cl., 2006). For most researchers, both in English and in French, the term "technology" does not name a word on technique but it enacts a coherent community technique. We think that the concept of "Information and communication technologies' (ICT) refers to numeric type technological equipment, which can serve as pedagogical tools in teaching. (eg. computers, servers, video projectors, CD-Rom, MP3 reader, USB, DVD, TBI, etc.). Finally, ICT means all kinds of technology that are used to exploit and manipulate information, so there is a combination of Technology with Information and Communication. ICT in education is understood as an implementation of technological equipment and tools in the learning process to record and process information in a digital form.

ICT and the practical tool/equipment:

ICT by Dieuzeide (1994, p.11), include "instruments carrying messages (images, sounds, characters)" and historically mean three types of technologies in the field of education: audio – visual technologies of the presentation of information (images and sounds), informatics, whose function is to organize and treat information (computer and interaction) and delocalization technologies and transfer of information (internet and digital resources).

Some ICT, as key tools already used in the teaching / learning of foreign languages, are as follows:

• Laboratories, which are of two types: audio laboratories audio and multimedial laboratories.
• Computer rooms (which have replaced foreign language laboratories)
• Multimedia
• Interactive white board (TBI).
• The Internet
• USB
• CD, DVD
• Multifunctional digital cameras
• Video Projector
• MP3 Reader
• Television
• Radio
• Etc.

Thus ICT include all digital technologies (computers, electronic networks, multimedia ...) and also including vision conference, satellite television, videos, tools (computer programs), CD-Roms and the Internet. We will briefly address a few of them:

*The computer: Having a computer in the classroom is an asset to any teacher. With a computer in the classroom, teachers are able to demonstrate a new lesson, new materials, illustrated and show new web pages. The computer in the classroom motivates and provides immediate feedback to students, especially when giving correct answers. Moreover, a computer is patient and non-judgmental, so he gives students motivation to continue learning, and to correct problems that arise during a task. The computer is seen as one of the most necessary technologies in teaching. Until recently it was considered a novelty, now it is necessary due to technological orientations that have been included in teaching. In this regard, many programs in the district of Elbasan intend to encourage computer skills in the young generation and the desire for the use of information technologies, by adding computers in schools and the using them widely, the free internet application, online learning, etc..

* Video Projector: It is a technology which is easily found in the Albanian education system. Through its usage, it is possible to present various works in teaching and scientific field.

In fact the video projector is a forerunner of the interactive board, but however, due to the conditions of our education system it remains the most advanced technology used in teaching.

* CD-Roms: CD-ROM (Compact Disc Read Only Memory): This compact disc collects digital information; it holds this name

because it does not allow modifications. It is an ideal support for the distribution of assets (computer software) or voluminous documents.

* DVD (Digital Versatile Disc) is an optical numerical disc used for storage and data collection. Was officially launched in December 1995, DVD represents the most widespread digital video format in the world, a descendant of video tape, Laserdisc and Video CD. While the successor to the DVD Video adapted to the TVHD signal is Blu-Ray. The term Digital Video Disc which means "digital video disc" has been used for a long time by the press. The official name "Digital Versatile Disc", which means "Polyvalent Numerical Disc", specifies that this support fits all numeric data types or computing. In 1999, the DVD Forum by regrouping involved community stakeholders specifies that this format can be limited to three letters, noting that the term Digital Versatile Disc remains the official name of the format. DVD marked the beginning of a new era of home cinema. At the time of VHS, the cinematography amateur generally found only films in them. While nowadays in a DVD we can find music concerts, TV series, video clips, humor shows, documentaries etc.

* The internet (Interconnected Networks): This term indicates the global network by adding computers and telecommunications resources, aimed at the exchange of electronic information and multimedia files. It uses a common protocol that allows the closest transportation of the messages separated in independent packages. This journey is based on the IP protocol (Internet Protocol) specified by the Web Association (ISOC-Internet Society). Entry to the network is open to all users who have received an address at an organization or a company. Equivalent terms used in English are: International Networking, Internet, and Net.

* Interactive Table: It is a widely advanced technology which has not yet been massively introduced in the Albanian education system, but because of the facilities, innovations and advantages that it represents, it is quite desirable for the benefit of evert teacher's work. An interactive table provides control and touch of the computer applications from the students, but also in order to enhance the classroom experience we can show anything that might be on a computer screen. This helps not only in visual learning, but also in the students' interaction because they are able to write; present different information and manipulate images on the interactive table. There are many other tools that can be used in the educational process in our schools but that also need a certain fund available. These may include: digital cameras, video cameras, interactive whiteboard tools, document cameras, projectors or LCD.

* USB: It is one of the most advanced technologies in terms of storage and transmission of tasks, projects, photos and different information, they exist in different sizes and are already an integral part of the educational reality.

2. Overview of the high schools in the city of Elbasan

Elbasan, including its communes has a total of 207 nine-year and high schools. There are specifically 175 9-year schools and 32 high schools. In the city of Elbasan there are 47 schools in total; of these 31 are 9-year schools (2 are private) and 16 high schools (four are private). French language is present in 20 9-year schools (7 in the city and 13 in the communes) and in 17 high schools (9 in the city and 8 in the communes). The foreign langauges taught in these schools are: English, French, Italian and German.

In this paper we have included in our study three high schools in the city of Elbasan, which we appreciated not only for their history and tradition in the teaching / learning of foreign languages but also for their elite teaching staff. Two of these schools are very close to each other, "F" and "E", while the other school "D" is a school that for years has been focused especially and specifically on the teaching / learning of foreign languages. The study was focused on the XI year students (ie, 2nd year) and on the teachers who provide French language in these classes for each school mentioned above.

2.1. Overview of school D

School "D", as mentioned above was selected because it has a long tradition on foreign language teaching. It is one of the elite schools of the city of Elbasan and its teachers have a wide experience in teaching foreign languages. It is also equipped with laboratories and technological tools that assist in the teaching of French as a foreign language. The school has 350 students of which 95 are students of the French language. School "D" has 17 teachers of foreign languages (English, French, Italian and German), of which four of them are teachers of the French language. In our study, as mentioned above we have included the XI classes XI (ie II year). The school has only one XI class, unlike other high schools, and this group consists of 32 students who have been included in our study sample.(**Table 1/ 1**)

2.2. Overview of school E

School "E" was opened for the first time in September 1986 with four initial classes and year after year it has grown in number, thus completing the first Matura in 1990. It is a school with a rich tradition that carries great value in the field of education in Elbasan. The school has a total of 835 students, 181 of whom learn French as a foreign language in various classes. School (E) has seven foreign language teachers, two of whom are teachers of the French language. Class XI has a total of 50 students divided into two groups. In our sample we have selected only one group, the one which had the greatest number of students: 42 students.(**Table 1/ 2**)

2.3. Overview of school F

School "F" has currently 830 students. 175 of them learn French as a foreign language. The school has six teachers of foreign languages but only one is a French language teacher. The number of students in class XI is 54 and they are divided into two groups. We have selected in our sample only one group which is smaller compared to the two samples from the two other schools (D, E). This group is composed of only 13 students. Languages are taught from class X to class XII. The school organizes 21 hours a week of teaching in different classes. (**Table 1/ 3**)

2.3.1. An overview of the ICT infrastructure in the high schools

With regard to the equipment of professional labs for teaching foreign languages, we can say that there is only such lab in school "D", but even this one does not reach the latest technology standards, and it functions as a computer laboratory. While the other high schools in the city of Elbasan develop the teaching of foreign languages as normal classes similar to other subjects, and sometimes they use the computer laboratories or other ICT tools such as CD player, video projector or video connected TV.

2.3.2. The technological infrastructure in schools D/E/F

School (D), is the only one that has a foreign language lab even though it is not up to standard, and is currently converted into a computer lab. This has resulted in school (D) to have two computer rooms which are used by teachers of foreign languages based on a graph. The number of computers in these rooms is 25 in total. They have access to the Internet. School (D) does also have other ICT equipment such as: 1 video projector, two TV sets and one video, CD-Rom, DVD, and many VHS tapes with French documentaries but that are not used anymore because they have been replaced by DVD and other online resources.

School (E), has only one informatics lab available that is composed of 24 computers that are connected to the internet. The school does also have 1 video projector and a CD player.

School (F), similarly to school (D), is equipped with two computer labs which have a total of 25 computers. All computers are connected to the Internet, and students have access at all times, similarly to the two high schools mentioned above. This school has other ICT tools as well such as: 1 CD player, one TV set and a video. There are also some DVDs with materials in French. (**Table 1/4**)

2.3.3. Characteristics of the sampled teachers in the high schools

The selected teachers in our sample are of different age groups and have a work experience that start from 1 up to 27 years of teaching foreign languages. In one way or another in this study there have been included different generations of teachers.

2.3.4. Characteristics of the teachers for schools D / E / F

Teacher (6), part of our sample is 24 years old and is the youngest compared to the others. He has 1 year of experience in teaching and works for school "D". Being the youngest, he feels closer to technologies compared to the rest of the teachers. He has participated in three trainings associated with the integration and use of ICT s in foreign language teaching. He also has very good knowledge of ICT and even uses them often.

Teacher (7) is again a teacher is school (D). He is 52 years old and has 27 years of experience in the job. Despite his relatively old age, he has wide knowledge about ICT and has also participated in training in this regard.

Teacher (8) belongs to the school (D) again and is 35 years old. He has 11 years of working experience in teaching French as a foreign language. Although he has not participated in any training regarding the integration and use of ICT s in teaching foreign languages, he asserts that he is familiar with their use.

Teacher (9) of school (D) is 46 years old and has 23 years of experience' in teaching. This teacher has not received any training on the use of ICT s. He even asserts that he has no knowledge about the use of ICT in teaching.

Teacher (10) is a teacher of school (E) and is 28 years old. He has a work experience of three years and has not participated in any training regarding the integration and use of ICT s in foreign language teaching. But he claims to have knowledge about the use of ICT and in some cases he even uses them.

Teacher (11) is again from school (E). His age is 43 years old and he has 25 years of experience in the job. Has not participated in any training and does not have knowledge about the use of ICT s in foreign language teaching.

Teacher (12) is of school (F) and is 29 years old. He has six years of working experience in teaching French language. This teacher has participated in two training sessions regarding the integration and use of ICT s in teaching foreign languages. He has very good knowledge about the use of ICT in teaching and asserts that he uses them often.(**Table 1/5**)

2.3.5. The use of ICT in the high schools

High School (D) as a foreign language school owns two computer labs with 25 computers that are connected to the Internet. There can be found more ICT tools in this school compared to the others due to the same reason. What is more, the teachers of this school are familiar with ICT use them more frequently than the other schools. In the questionnaire addressed to the school principals (see appendices), the director of the school states that the problem is the fact that the two computer rooms are not enough to satisfy the needs of all the teachers and students of the school, because they are numerous and being a foreign languages school, the use of ICT is even more necessary compared to other schools. For this reason, constant demands have been made but the situation remains the same. However, from the completed questionnaires and the observation sessions we noticed that teachers use other ICT tools like: video projectors, recorders and TVs connected to video where students watch documentaries and films in French. They also use USB to distribute learning materials and information related to the topics of the day, DVDs and VHS tapes for documentaries and films in French. They are familiar with the IWB but the school does not have one.

High School (E), as noted above, has only one computer lab which is equipped with 24 computers that are connected to the Internet. The use of ICT is rare in foreign language teaching in this school because the teachers do not have the proper trainings or education for their integration in classes. Only one of the teachers tries to apply ICT in the teaching of French, but this happens no more than once every two weeks. From the results of the teachers' questionnaire it can be shown that the teachers mostly used the CD player, the video projector and computer programs with exercises using various internet sites. Other ICT tools are not used at all. They do not have information about IWB and of course do not know how to use one.

High school "F" has two computer labs, with a total of 25 computers and they also have access to the Internet. The school administration has a project of opening a specialized laboratory for foreign languages which will include all ICT tools because student and teachers altogether are interested in using them. The teacher of French uses the computer lab once a week only because the lab is used by the other teachers in the school as well. In this school the teachers seem to have a relatively good knowledge of the use of ICT s in foreign language teaching. From the questionnaires, we learned that ICT s most widely used are: CD-Rom, working on the computer (of the materials), video, video-projector, Internet programs (with exercises) and the CD player. Meanwhile the school does not use VHS tapes; the radio, the television or other purchased programs like Tell me more, TBI etc.

In connection with the frequency of ICT use in order to develop students' language skills, we can say that the situation is better compared with that of 9-year schools. The following table shows the respective percentages by intensity.(**Table 1/6**)

As a result, we can say that the most frequent use of ICT s can be found in the socio-intercultural competence by 35% and a regular use of ICT with a higher percentage can be found in the oral comprehension by 30%. A lower percentage of use is found in speaking with 44.5%.

 Regarding the efficiency of their use, teachers and school directors have stated in their questionnaires that ICT motivate students and make the class more interesting, especially IWB, internet programs such as Tell me more, radio, TV , video

projector etc.. Their use is seen as an advantage in the teaching of French as it allows students to be in contact with the French language and to benefit as much as they can in the visual aspect as well as in the auditory one.

Conclusions

At the conclusion of our research, we can state that the integration and use of ICT in the high schools of Elbasan is not yet at appropriate levels as are its counterparts in Western countries, where a special attention is devoted to the use of ICT in teaching / learning of foreign languages.

In Elbasan, although many schools are equipped with computer rooms, they are rarely used in the teaching / learning of foreign languages. This happens for various reasons, from which we can highlight the fact that many schools have only one computer lab which is used by all the teachers on the basis of a graph. Logically, a single computer lab can not meet all the needs of a school.

On the other hand it is noted that two or three students work on the same computer, this is because computers are few in number compared to the number of students per class.

What is more, the lack of a specialist or IT specialist that deals with the maintenance of the computer lab makes many computers go out of order and not be used by students and teachers anymore.

Another problem is the inadequate training of teachers in terms of integration and use of ICT in the teaching/learning of foreign languages, who do not have sufficient knowledge in the application and integration of these tools and of the new teaching methods. Fear of their use makes them to prefer traditional teaching, instead.

Finally, we would say that the lack of infrastructure in the high schools, the lack of ICT (limited number of them), malfunction of ICT tools, lack of trained teachers in the integration and use of ICT but also the lack of desire to use them, make teaching / learning of foreign languages in the city of Elbasan to stay within the traditional framework by not being consistent with the technological evolution of time and away from European standards.

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Tables

School D

School	Students of French	Students of the XI class	Teachers of French	Headmaster of the school	Number of students in our study
D	95	32	4	1	32

Table 1/ 1 : Characteristics of school D

School E

School	Students of French	Students of the XI class	Teachers of French	Headmaster of the school	Number of students in our study
E	181	50	2	1	42

Table 1/ 2: Characteristics of school E

School F

School	Students of French	Students of the XI class	Teachers of French	Headmaster of the school	Number of students in our study
F	175	54	1	1	13

Table 1/ 3: Characteristics of school F

Table 1/4. The technological infrastructure in the high schools:

Schools	Computer labs/Language laboratorikes	Nr. of computers	With/without internet connection	Other equipment
School D	2 computer labs	25	With internet	1 Video-projector, 1 CD player, 2 TV sets and 1 video, CD-Rom, DVD, (VHS).
School E	1 computer lab	24	With internet	1 Video-projector, 1 CD player.
School F	2 computer labs	25	With internet	1 CD player, 1 TV set and 1 video, DVD.

Table 1/5. Characteristics of the teachers and their ICT training

	Age	Experience	School	Nr. of tranings on ICT received	Familiarity with ICT usage
Teacher 6	24 years old	1 year	D	Three	Yes
Teacher 7	52 years old	27 years	D	One	Yes
Teacher 8	35 years old	11 years	D	None	Yes
Teacher 9	46 years old	23 years	D	None	No
Teacher 10	28 years old	3 years	E	None	Yes
Teacher 11	43 years old	25 years	E	None	No
Teacher 12	29 years old	6 years	F	Two	Yes

Table 1/6. Intensity of ICT usage in developing language competences in students.

Competences	Never	Rarely	Often	Regularly
Oral comprehension	10 %	29,5 %	30, 5%	30 %
Written comprehension	27,5 %	22,5 %	25 %	25 %
Speaking	5%	44,5%	25,5%	25 %
Writing	14,5 %	35,5 %	25 %	25 %
Interaction	5 %	40,5 %	29, 5 %	25%
Socio and intercultural competences	12 %	25 %	35 %	28 %

A Critical Discourse Analysis of Political Speech of Four Candidates of Rasht City Council Elections in 2013, with a view to Fairclough Approach

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Abstract

The current study is a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) of Rasht City Council Candidates' speeches, slogans, posters, lectures and other campaign propaganda used to take part in City Council Elections. Four candidates were selected to use in this study from which two candidates were succeeded in City Council Elections and the other two were not. All of four candidates had different academic education, working records, behavioral characteristics and thought tendencies. They filled a questionnaire prepared by the researcher containing their biographical information, purposes, motivations, kinds of political propaganda, organizational or other kinds of support, if any, and something else. Researcher also used a controlled interview asking some questions about the important factors influenced on the candidates' succession or fails including occupation, thought tendency, type of sloganeering, discourse techniques and so on. It should be noted that researcher considered some available sloganeering instruments like posters, CDs of lectures, pictures and slogans used by the candidates in Rasht City Council Election Process. Then the collected data were analyzed and compared to each other to identify the candidates' thoughts and ideas represented in their speeches. Using Fairclough framework, this study investigates how the candidates try to justify their ideas and persuade their audiences by utilizing suitable ideological discourse structures in their speeches. Also the aim of this paper is to analyze and compare the candidates' speeches in order to discover the ideological strategies, power relations and persuasive techniques underlying their speeches and to identify the most important factors influenced on their success and fail.

Keywords: Discourse Analysis (DA), Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Political Discourse, Rasht City Council Elections

1. INTRODUCTION:

Discourse Analysis (DA) is regarded as a method to explain and analyze the results of any political elections. In fact discourse analysis techniques seem to be able to identify a general approach toward election and politics through considering some problems, issues and questions. Also the area of sloganeering and propaganda is treated as the area of discourse struggle. Based on this assumption, political parties who can give dominance to their discourse over others' discourse will succeed in political competition and any political party who fails in election campaign he/she will leave the election competition area.

This is discourse that enables us to identify each candidate's capabilities and insight in order to have the best choice in elections. In this direction, our understanding of politics and present conditions of our city and country is very important. A dominant discourse is the one that can find the main problems and requirements of a society and submit a suitable response to them. Furthermore discourse analysis aims to show how changes in the use of language can be seen as a sign of general social and cultural changes in a society, which again have to do with changes in power relations. By doing so, **critical discourse analysis (CDA)** also has a special function in promoting interdisciplinary scientific work (Fairclough, 1992:72).

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Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a branch for Discourse Analysis commonly used for analyzing political spoken and written texts. Fairclough (1995), a pioneer in modern CDA, defined it as: The kind of discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony.

The concept of **hegemony** was proposed by Antonio Gramsci (1971). In a Gramscian view, politics is seen as a struggle for hegemony. Hegemony emphasizes how power depends upon achieving consent and the importance of ideology in sustaining relations of power.

There is also a broader definition of CDA offered by Fairclough (1995) and Fowler (1996) saying that CDA treats discourse as a social practice and analyzes the influence of social, political and cultural contexts on discourse. Since CDA sees discourse as both produced and shaped by ideology, it stresses the essential linguistic characteristics of social relationship, social structures and the power distributed among them.

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is used in different fields. However politics is regarded as the most important social fields in which CDA plays its valuable role that sometimes is called political – critical discourse analysis containing both political discourse and critical discourse. Based on contemporary approaches in CDA, political – critical discourse analysis deals with the reproduction of political power, power abuse or domination through political discourse, including various forms of resistance or counter-power against such forms of discursive dominance (Fairclough 1995; Van Dijk 1993).

In the book of Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language in 1995, Fairclough stated that language is connected to social realities and bring about social change. In the above-mentioned book he argues that government involves the manipulation and use of language in significant ways, and is particularly concerned with the linkage between **Language**, **ideology** and **power relations** within society. In "Language and Power", Fairclough distinguishes between **power "in" and "behind" discourse.** The former is concerned with discourse as a place where relations of power are actually exercised, for example power in "face-to-face" spoken language (as all of the candidates under this study confirmed it), power in cross-cultural discourse where participants are from different ethnic groupings and hidden power of discourse of the mass media. The latter (power behind discourse) states that how orders of discourse are shaped by relations of power. The term "**Ideology**" has several definitions out of which Fairclough chooses two: the first definition states that ideology is "any social policy which is in part or whole derived from social theory in a conscious way" and the Marxist definition according to which ideologies are, when struggle for political power is at issue, "ideas which arise from a given set of material interests" (Fairclough 2001a:77). Fairclough also (1995b) regarded the description of the formal features of text as an important element of CDA.

Van Leeuwen (1996) also offered several techniques that social actors can use in their speech such as: exclusion, inclusion, suppression, thematization, activation, passivation, personalization, depersonalization, determination (including symbolization, reverseness and implicature) and indetermination, association and dissociation, differentiation and indifferentiation, beneficiation, backgrounding, abstraction, generalization, subjection. In this paper, these techniques have been used to analyze the candidates' speech and specially their slogans.

In Critical Analysis of candidates' speech, we can say that one of the most important factors for political candidates to be succeeded in any election campaign is the use of skillful language and their ability to persuade and impress their audiences. Discourse is not just a mental and lingual issue but it contains thoughts, emotions and excitements. The priority of a discourse is not necessarily rooted in reasoning power of that discourse but the priority of a discourse is a variable of mental and rational factors on one part and emotional, inductive and persuasive factors on the other part.

It is crucial to state that discourses are partial and positioned, and social difference is manifest in the diversity of discourses within particular cultural contexts. In this direction, the content of political propaganda is also very important in political election area. The more a political discourse is related to the general political culture of a society, the more the success percentage of that discourse will be. One important point in political-critical discourse analysis is that a successful political discourse is the one that moves toward the expected willingness and desires of a society. In Iran, for example, there are different cultural criteria that help a political discourse to be dominant in election campaigns, including: being management-oriented and program-oriented, having religious thoughts, fighting with immorality and corruption, bravery toward foreigners, willingness to stability and safeguarding the interests of the people, willingness to social and cultural freedoms, submitting effective strategies to have suitable interaction with others, simple-living and avoidance of luxury and so on.

Considering all above-mentioned explanations, this study is intended to use of Fairclough framework adopted from three important items of Language, Ideology and Power to analyze the results of Rasht City Council Election in 2013. This paper also uses of Fairclough approach to detect the candidates' discursive skills and structures and to discover how ideological strategies, persuasive techniques and power relations can help them to have a dominant discourse to attract the voters and to succeed in City Council Elections.

2.   LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.   Discourse analysis and its purposes:

Discourse Analysis may be defined as the study of language viewed communicatively and/or the study of communication viewed linguistically. Such a definition involves reference to concepts of language in use, language above or beyond the sentence, language as meaning in interaction, and language in situational and cultural context. Discourse analysis is not a discipline and it is not a field of study on its own but it is affected by other disciplines.

 Shabanali Bahrampoor (2001) pointed out to the purposes of DA as follows:

- To clarify the relationship between author, reader and text

- To clarify deep structure of text production or discourse analysis process

- To identify the effect of text (general linguistic system) and context (social, historical, political, cultural, …) on discourse

- To identify special conditions of discourse producer

- To show variability of meaning

- To manifest the relationship between text and ideology

- To create a new method and technique in studying text, media, politics and so on

There are some areas of DA such as speech act, pragmatics, conversation analysis, genre analysis, theories of politeness, indirectness, general discourse, discourse and cultures and critical discourse analysis. This study has used a critical discourse analysis in order to fulfill its purposes.

2.2.   Critical Discourse Analysis and its Emergence:

The present study has used the method of **Critical Discourse Analysis** (henceforth CDA) for its purposes. CDA appeared in the 1980s as an approach toward the combination of language studies and social theory (Fairclough 1992) and it stems from a critical theory of language which sees the use of language as a form of social practice. CDA has been used in different subject areas. After publication of some important books such as Teun Van Dijk's Prejudice in Discourse (1984), Norman Fairclough's Language and Power (1989), and Ruth Wodak's Language, power and Ideology (1989), CDA has emerged as a significant paradigm of research within linguistics.

Fairclough (1989, 1995), as a pioneer in modern CDA, identified his approach to a study of language as "critical language study" and proposed some approaches such as linguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, cognitive psychology, artificial intelligence, conversation analysis and discourse analysis. It tells us how language can be represented from different point of view. It is a kind of relationship between or among ideas, power, language and the ordering of relationship within society.

 Fairclough and Wodak (1997: 271-80) summarize the main tenets of CDA as follows:

- CDA addresses social problems

- Power relations are discursive

- Discourses constitutes society and culture

- Discourse does ideological work

- Discourse is historical

- The link between text and society is mediated

- Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory

- Discourse is a form of social action.

CDA tells us why individuals say what they say; what is the intentions underlying their statements. In direction of handling these kinds of questions, another broad definition is offered by Fairclough (1995) and Fowler (1996) as follow: "CDA treats discourse as a social practice and analyses the influences of social, political and cultural contexts on discourse. Since CDA sees discourse as both produced and shaped by ideology, it stresses the essential linguistic characteristics of social relationships, social structures and the power distributed among them.

2.3. Fairclough model for CDA

Fairclough's (1989, 1995) model for CDA consists three inter-related processes of analysis which are related to three inter-related dimensions of discourse. These three dimensions are:

1. The object of analysis (including verbal, visual or verbal and visual texts).
2. The processes by means the object is produced and received (writing/ speaking/designing and reading/listening/viewing) by human subjects.
3. The socio-historical conditions which govern these processes.

According to Fairclough (as stated in Language and Power) each of these dimensions requires a different kind of analysis:

1. Text analysis (description): It is the stage which is concerned with formal properties of the text. In the case of description, analysis is generally thought of as a matter of identifying and 'labeling' formal features of a text in tenns of the categories of a descriptive framework.
2. Processing analysis (interpretation): is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction – with seeing the text as the product of a process of production, and as a resource in the process of interpretation.
3. Social analysis (explanation): is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social context – with the social determination of the processes of production and interpretation and their social effects.

Fairclough refers to what goes on at each of these stages as 'analysis', but it should be noted that the nature of 'analysis' changes as one shifts from stage to stage. In particular, analysis at the description stage differs from analysis at the interpretation and explanation stages. Also Fairclough argues that in order to interpret the features which are actually present in a text, it is necessary to make clear what other choice might have been made, and to discover the systems of options in the discourse types which actual features come from. Fairclough distinguishes between three types of value that formal features may have:

1. Experiential values: It is a trace of or a cue to the method in which the text producer's experience of the natural or social word is represented. It deals with content, knowledge and beliefs.
2. Relational value: It is a trace of or a cue to the social relationship which are enacted via the text in the context. It deals with social relation among people.
3. Expressive value: It is a trace of or a cue to the producer's evaluation of the bit of the reality it relates to. It deals with social identities.

2.4. Political discourse

Politics is a social activity that can be defined, first and foremost, as a struggle for power, between those who are in power and those who are not but would like to be, although it can also be defined as a set of cooperation strategies carried out by some social institutions with a view to solving some social conflicts (Chilton 2004:3). Inherent properties of politics are a clash of interests, persuasion and manipulation, imposition of opinions as commonsensical, defining allies and opponents.

According to van Dijk, "discourse" refers to a description of all genres in politics or to politicians' discourses, so in politics "discourse" is "a socially constituted set of such genres, associated with a social domain or field" (van Dijk 1998:196). Political speech is a genre of political discourse and is part of public discourse. Also Fairclough (1995; Van Dijk 1993)

argued that political discourse analysis pays to reproduction of political power, power abuse or domination and it is based on various forms of discursive dominance.

2.5. Power and ideology in critical discourse analysis:

Ideology which manifests itself in all levels of society is a societal and national phenomenon. It goes beyond our habitus, extending to power struggles in society (Fairclough, 1989). Ideology also can be defined as systematic ideas or ideals which form a base for economic or political theory. Ideologies have a role in legalization of power abuse by dominant group.

In politics, different ideologies struggle together for dominance. In this area language forms related to oral and written political text can signal the **power** by discovering the specific ideology embedded in them. Also power is signaled by a politician control of a social and political occasion by using of specific genres.

In " Language and Power" Fairclough argued that **power** and **ideologies** are not linked to particular groups of people or linguistic forms or permanent attribute of a person or social group but ideology is linked to discourse and other moments of social practices. He also emphasized that orders of discourse vary in different social cultures. In this process all social orders of discourse are put together as a hidden effect of power. Languages provide a fine vehicle for differences of power in hierarchical social structures, because different ideologies struggle for **dominance**. There are several factors which are important in power in language. Power signaled not only by grammatical form within an oral or written text but also by a person control of a social or political occasion by using of the text genres. Fairclough has emphasized that power can be exercised through physical violence and through the manufacture of consent, whereby those who have power can exercise it and keep it by coercing others to go along with them (Fairclough, 2001b, pp. 27-28). Fairclough has been very interested in the role of language in producing, maintaining and transforming unequal power relations and no doubt this has influenced on his perspective.

Van Leeuwen techniques

Van Leeuwen (1996) offered several techniques to be used by social actors as follows: **Inclusion and Exclusion** deals with incorporating and deleting the social agents intentionally or unintentionally. **Suppression** means making hidden. It also means excluding both social actors and their activities so that no trace is left in the representation. **Backgrounding** is a kind of exclusion that leaves traces in the representation. It means that something is deleted in a specific activity but its effect or trace is manifested in other part of the clause. **Thematization** deals with paying more attention to a word or phrase. In **Activation** social actors are presented as active and dynamic forces in an activity**.** In **Passivization** social actors are presented as undergoing an activity. **Personalization and depersonalization**: the former occurs where something inanimate takes the characteristics of human being and in the latter human being takes characteristics of inanimate things. **Determination:** it occurs when the character of social agent is clear but in **indetermination** this character is vague and unspecified. In Determination social agent may be one person or consisted of several individuals. The former itself is from three types including a) **Reverseness** in which social actor has two different and reversal roles, b) **symbolization** in which an ideal and symbolized agent is replaced by a social agent, c) **implicature** is an inference meaning created at the result of floating one or more conversational maxims of Grice. **Association** means two or more social actors associate to each other to perform a social activity and we use of "," among the agents but in **dissociation** two or more social actors are participated in a social activity and we use of "or" among the agents. It means that the social activity can be done by each of them not all of them. **Differentiation and indifferentiation**: differentiation is a kind of separation between two social agents, social activities or social conditions (such as separation between rich and poor people). In **Beneficiation** the social agent benefits from a social act. Beneficialization may also be realized by participation. In this case beneficialized agent is recipient or client in relation to a material process or receiver in relation to a verbal process. In **Abstraction** a special characteristic is abstracted from a group of people and it refers to the members of that group. **Generalization and specification**: in the former social actors can be represented as classes but in the latter social actors can be represented as specific identifiable individuals.

3.   OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:

With a view to Faircough's framework, this paper intends to analyze, compare and contrast the Rasht City Council candidates' speeches, slogans, posters, trackers and interviews for City Council Election in 2013 in order to find out how the candidates try to persuade and justify their audiences to be succeeded in elections. In general the purpose of this study is summarized in two parts as follows:

- To detect the candidates' discursive structures, persuasive techniques and power relations based on Fairclough approach in order to have a dominant and justifiable discourse to attract the voters and to succeed in City Council Elections.

- To identify the ideology underlying each candidate's speech and slogans.

4.   METHODOLOGY

4.1.   Participants:

Four candidates were selected accidently in order to meet the purpose of this study, from among them two candidates (Mr. A and Mrs. Sh[*]) were selected from City Council Office in Rasht[*], Iran who were succeeded in the Elections on 2013, and the other two Candidates (Mr. D and Mr. R) - who experienced a fail in the Elections - were introduced by one of the members of Rasht City Council Office.

4.2.   Data source

The data used in this study included a questionnaire (attached in appendix), oral interviews, trackers, posters having different figures and slogans, CDs of the candidates' propaganda and some written interviews in publications.

4.3.   Analytical framework

The framework used in this study was that of Fairclough's (1989, 1995). Fairclough emphasized on discourse structures and formal features of oral and written text in order to have an effective interpretation. He also stressed on the use of language in significant ways, and his framework is particularly concerned with the linkage between **Language**, **ideology** and **power relations** in order to have a dominant speech.

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[*] Because of observing confidentiality, the use of the candidates' full name is avoided. [*] I'd like to thank all members of Rasht City Council Office and the candidates who help for this research reported here.

This study also used Van Leeuwen social actors' techniques (1996) - all of them described in literature review - to analyze the candidates' statements and specially their slogans.

5.   SAMPLE ANALYSIS

Statements of Mrs. Sh. as the candidate succeeded in Elections:

In general, my main reason to attend in City Council Elections was my serious willingness to serve the civilized people of Rasht city. This is my belief that city councils are not places to do political activities; instead, city council should have efficient plans to manage the city, to provide comfort and security for people and to promote the city's growth and development proportionate to the spread changes of the country and of the world. In my weekly publication [Guilan Child (Farzandane Gil)], I pointed to some propositional plans to improve the city management as follow: 1. to create conditions to participate people in city programming, 2. to increase official health and to create a customer-oriented system in municipalities, 3. to revise municipality's income system, 4. to construct the sport, cultural and amusement places in the city. Another reason that persuades me to attend in Elections was the weak presence of women in city councils area. I emphasized that we, women, can reinforce the woman's management role through our active presence in the field of civil management areas. I had no slogan, no special propaganda or political meetings and no protection by any political parties. I had only some posters with a single figure and I submitted my plans and propositions in my weekly publication for the audiences. The most important factors influenced on my success are as follows: to trust in God, protection of my family members and my presence in national media of Guilan Center (both in radio and television) for 23 years. Media helped me to be an introduced character among Rasht people. Also I stress the need to observe the codes of Islamic government.

5.1.   CDA of Mrs. Sh text

Mrs. Sh. – who is the editor-in-chief of a weekly publication (Farzandane Gil) – used **media discourse** as a part of her campaign propaganda in City Council Election time so the nature of **power relation** enacted in her discourse is not

completely clear; in this respect, Mrs. Sh.' discourse involves **hidden relation of power** as Fairclough called it "power behind discourse". Media discourse is a kind of one-sidedness discourse in which candidate doesn't know who is among the audiences and what they say is addressed to ideal subject.

Different candidates have different kinds of strategies for problem solving. Through detailed describing of a long list of her plans and programs in her weekly publication, Mrs. Sh. tries to show how much problems exist in Rasht City and how she tries to resolve them; by this **persuasive strategy**, she stimulates the sense of hope in audience. In respect to the women's role she emphasized on more active presence of women in city management in order to strengthen the position of women in their social and public life. By using of the words "**emphasize**" and "**point out**" she shows a type of **power** in her statement. Another characteristic of Mrs. Sh.' statements is that she used Van Leeuwen **personification** technique saying "media helped me..." that is a compensatory tendency to give impression o teaching each of the people handled in mass as an individual.

In her final statement, Mrs. Sh. used the phrase "Islamic Government". Although she never speaks about her political tendency, this phrase is the **nodal point** of Principalists party in our country; he also used the word "**stress**" in this sentence that can be good indicators of **ideologies** underlying her speech. The subject position of Mrs. Sh. is a female so she used of another strategy to claim solidarity with women and articulate their desire, hope and wills. She applied a **relational value** by using pronoun "we". **Cultural values** were also influenced in her success. She received a lot of votes because of her justifiable appearance, firm character and religious thoughts indicating the social identity of the woman political candidate in Islamic country.

Statements of Mr A. as the candidate succeeded in Elections:

My main purposes to attend in Rasht City Council Elections are divided in two parts: internal motivation involves my inner apprehensions arising from the problems of management policy that I saw in my city; external purposes involve the problems of Rasht people that persuade me to work as a useful servitor for my city's people; and I think that all of us should manipulate our all efforts to resolve our city's problems. The crucial factors influenced on my success are to trust in God, protection of my family members, my good working records, propaganda such as posters and interviews in publications, but I have to emphasize that the most effective factor was my presence in the most areas of the city and having face to face speech with people, receiving their comments and propositions and submitting my plans and strategies to resolve the current management problems of the city; and finally I requested people for helping me to solve the all mentioned problems. Students, youth and common people cast the most amounts of votes for me. On the subject of women role I have to say that women were my first working group; I believe that women are able to act in some fields better than men and I 'm not agree with any limitation for women in any social activity. During Elections, I had a policy saying that "we do our work and we pay no attention to others"; but in fact, in social, electoral and political processes, you cannot do your work separately through ignorance of political parties, political events and competitors, so a candidate have to observe moderation and to handle the type of his/her political interaction with parties, competitors and influenced individuals.

Slogan: 1. We need no young consulters, we need young managers. 2. Efficient management, Active citizen, an Advanced city.

5.2.   CDA of Mr. A. text

At the beginning of his speech, Mr. A introduced himself as a servitor of people. By this **technical register**, he used two techniques simultaneously; one of them is **persuasive technique** because he uses **emotive language** to create a sense of consensus in audiences, and the other technique is using of **relational value** because of politeness in his language. Also through describing his plans, he used **persuasive strategy** of problem resolution combining **relational elements** of conversational discourse. When he says "all of us", he expresses **solidarity** with relational elements of a more traditional political discourse type and when he uses of **modal verb** "should" he shows **authority** in his speech, so we can also see a sign of **power relation** in this statement.

Mr. A frequently used **face-to-face discourse** during his campaign propaganda in City Council Election and he declared that it was the most effective measure in his succession. In face-to-face discourse he designed his contributions for the particular people he was interacting with. He knew who his audiences were, so he tried to adapt the language he used and to decide to keep this adapting based on the feedback he got from his audiences. The most characteristic of **face-to-face discourse** is that the nature of **power relatio**n enacted in it is often clear. In his tracker,

Mr. A named several responsibilities undertaken in several companies. Fairclough believes that statement of responsibilities is another sign of **power relation** in politicians' discourse. He also **requested** people for helping him. In "Language and Power", Fairclough believes that there is a close relationship between request and power.

Concerning the women's role, Mr. A. emphasized on his objection for any limitation of woman' political and social activity. The strategy existed in this statement is using of **disagreement.** According to Fairclough, candidates use disagreement in their speech in order to exercise **influence** and **power**. Also in the mentioned sentence, an **experiential value** is used because of being negative (I don't agree with any limitation …)**.** Negation is the basic way to distinguish what is not the case in reality from what is the case. In final part of his speech, Mr. A. encouraged political candidates to have a moderate interaction with political parties and influenced individuals. Through analysis of this sentence, we can detect some **ideological strategies**. Although he never speaks about his political tendency, it seems that his thoughts are close to **Reformist party** because **moderation** and **political interaction** are from the moments of Reformists. Also in his slogan he said "we want young manager". By this sentence he used another persuasive technique introducing himself as a capable manager to **persuade** the audiences.

Statements of Mr. D. who failed in Elections:

I lived in Rasht city for many years having different responsibilities and I wished I make my city so beautiful and pleasant with Islamic architecture that people have more comfort and enjoy from living in their city. I was sure that my management records in security, disciplinary and transportation could help me to meet these purposes. From among different types of propaganda I selected these items: being among dear people of Rasht to have an honest speech with them, presence in mosques and social meetings and printing some posters. I failed in City Council Elections but I have to say that my intense tendency towards jurisprudent leadership (Velayate Faghih) and our country's system was from effective reasons to receive the clean vote.

Slogan: Yesterday's sacrifice, Today's management, Tomorrow's development

5.3.   CDA of Mr. D text

All candidates contribute to the emergence of a new hegemonic discourse in their political discourse. Referring to his presence in the War imposed by Iraq and to risk his life for defending our country, Mr. D. used of a **persuasive strategy** to stimulate people's sense of **sympathy**. He also pointed to all of his responsibilities in security, disciplinary and transportation areas. This statement of responsibility is another sign of **power relation.** Mr. D. also believes in the effect of **face-to-face discourse** with people during the Election campaign that is also other sign of **power.** There are some **ideological strategies** beneath Mr. D.' statements, for example sing of some words such as "Islamic architecture" and "presence in mosques" are indicator of his religious thoughts; he also said that his tendency towards "Velayat" is resulted in receiving clean votes by him. By using of the word "Velayat", he clearly introduced himself as a proponent of **Principalists** because "Velayat" is **nodal point** of Principal party in Iran. Also the phrase "clean vote" has an **expressive value**. Also using of the phrase "dear people of Rasht" shows a kind of **politeness** in his discourse and has **relational value** based on Fairclough framework.

Mr. D. had a single slogan in which we can see Van Leeuwen's **determination** technique. This technique has several types. One of them is **reverseness** that is used in this slogan. It means that social actor has reversal roles. Also **multi-temporal reverseness** is used in the slogan. We have three times of yesterday, today and tomorrow.

Statements of Mr. R. who failed in Elections:

Concerning my motivation to attend in City Council Elections, I can point to my sense of personal duty, willingness to try for constitutive changing, development and public welfare, absorbing the certain capitals and promotion of tourism industry, and finally developing the qualitative and quantitative level of amusement places. I think that all of us can play our role based on our capabilities and specialties to create a developed city. I failed in Elections but I believe that the most important factors to be succeeded in any Elections is spending much money and performing efficient campaign propaganda. I received my votes by youth and athletes; I seriously stress that I had no affiliation to any party including principalists or reformists. In respect to women's role I can say that they can act even better than men in some social fields; and my final speech is that in order to succeed in any elections spending enough money and performing massive propaganda are from the most effective items.

Slogan: Truthfulness, Management, Developed city

5.4. CDA of Mr. R. text

At the beginning of his speech, Mr. R. described his attendance in City Council Election as a "**personal duty**" for developing the city. This phrase has an **expressive value**. But the main point of Mr. R. is that he seriously declared that he is not affiliated to any political parties. He separated himself from both Principalists and Reformists. By using of "seriously declare" he somehow shows a **power** in his speech. In another sentence, he showed that he has some capabilities and background knowledge in business and absorbing the certain capitals and acted as a **unifying factor** that want to work with people to meet their **common goals**. He used of the phrase "**all of us**"; this is deictic technique that candidates use in order to create a close relationship with the audiences; this is also **persuasive technique**. Also in political speech, when a candidate uses the phrases such as "we", "all of us" and like these, he/she serves corporate **ideologies** which stress the **unity and solidarity** of a people. Also when electoral candidates use the expressions indicating solidarity, they really speak about **relational value.** He used also **experiential value** when he emphasized he had no affiliation to any party (negative sentence). As other candidates, Mr. R. prepares a long list of his responsibilities and his plans and purposes in his trackers all of which have the theme of **power relation**.

Mr. R.' slogan involves three words. Truthfulness, management, a developed city, by all of which he tried to use of **persuasive techniques** to justify the audience.

6. CONCLUSION

In direction of making this paper, CDA has been a useful instrument to analysis, to compare and to contrast of political speeches of Rasht City Council Candidates, because it helped to realize the interdependency of language and ideology; ideology and socio-cultural practice; and socio-cultural policies. CDA also made possible to excavate meaning from the candidates' utterances enabling more accurate interpretations of their statements. Also the content of each candidate's speech was analyzed based on Faircloughian pattern to discover their **hidden ideologies**, **power relation**, **persuasive technique** and **formal features** manifest in their interviews, slogans, posters, questionnaire, trackers and other propaganda items. The main axis and content related to the candidates' campaign propaganda were excavated based on their repetition and emphasis and their strategic slogans.

In this study the theme of **power** was achieved through the manipulation of technical registers, imperative sentences to invite people to make an ideal city, statement of responsibility of people and themselves, modal verb (such as should), urges, stresses and statement of disagreement. Also we saw that how different candidates tried to impose upon the context for their strategic purposes. They produced various types of problem resolution integrating with the use of relational values which indicated unity or solidarity (such as: we, all of us …) and authority (such as speaking on behalf of people).

Undoubtedly, there were some similarities in the speeches of candidates as regards the formal features and linguistic elements used to explain their ideological beliefs. Three of them stressed the effect of face-to-face discourse in electoral discourse. The main point that I want to make is that although in society such as Iran - where power relationships are clear and stable - we cannot expect to find a great deal of ideological diversity, there is also some degree of ideological difference so that ideological uniformity is never completely achieved.

In general, the result of this study showed that, CDA can be regarded as a valuable opportunity to identify all hidden realities such as power, ideological strategy, persuasive technique and linguistic device underlying a politician discourse which has been naturalized.

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8.   APPENDIXES

The questionnaire submitted to four candidates of Rasht City Council Elections:

Questionnaire

1. Personal information:

    Full name: ………………………….   Age: ………………

    Sex: Male……..   Female ……………

    Education: ………………………………

    Field of study: ………………………………….

2. Please explain about your purposes and motivation to take part in City Council Elections?

3. What slogans you have used in City Council Election?

4. What kinds of sloganeering or propaganda you have used to be succeeded in City Council Election?

5. Please explain about the most important factors influenced on your succession (in case of succession)? e.g. occupation, being handsome, beauty, thought tendency, type of your sloganeering and so on?

6. Have you been received any financial or other kinds of supports by anybody or any organization? How?

7. How do you evaluate women and their management role in society?

8. Which group of people cast the most amounts of votes for you? (e.g. adolescences, students, athletes, market men, common people and so on)

9. Explain about the role of propaganda, picture and posters in your succession?

10. In case of fail, what are your recommendations to be succeeded in a future election?

In Terms of Music Teachers, the Evaluation of Music Types in the Curriculum for Music in Secondary Education in Turkey

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Abstract

Along with the establishment of the Republic, a song repertoire consisting of transferred songs was previously endeavoured to be formed by taking school music samples of foreign countries and writing Turkish words below them. Afterwards, with the same percept, an imitation songs repertoire was attempted to be formed by our composers. Since the 1950s, the idea that school music should be on the axis of folk music and that music education should be carried out through school music samples composed from the close environment of the child has begun to take place. Together with the various developments since the 1970s, the tendency towards soft music has strengthened in society and also interest in Turkish classical music has increased. Moreover, since the 1970s, soft and classical music samples have begun to be used in music education, which was built on folk music in 1968. Thus, high school music teaching programs which went into effect in 1986 were prepared accordingly.

Today, the sense that bringing to the classroom appropriate samples of vital music types in society, getting the student to learn at least one example of each music type and introducing these types is dominating. In this study, music types in middle school music teaching programs in Turkey were endeavoured to be evaluated in terms of music teachers. The subject was researched with the case study method which is one of the qualitative research methods. The oriented exemplification method was used in the study and 5 music teachers working in a middle school participated in the study group. The data was analysed by forming the necessary coding and themes. According to the obtained findings, results and suggestions were given place.

Keywords: Music Education, Music Types, Music Teaching Programs, Middle School

Introduction

Important developments have been made in music education together with the education revolution initiated by the leadership of Atatürk after the announcement of the republic (1923). Within this context, music lessons have started to be compulsory in primary and middle schools (Gül & Bozkaya, 2010).

It is seen that since 1924, music education is carried out from the music concept and theory related to tones, and upon this understanding, the education given at Music Teacher School training music educators was built with the effect of trying to place international art music conception. in the following years, the view arose that the Turkish Music Education System should be organised by having its resource based upon school songs from Turkish Folk Music. Within this context, this thought is enhanced with the view of Paul Hindemith(1895-1963) who prepared a report during the establishment of Ankara State Conservatoire (1936) and said, "….The song repertoire of music lessons in schools should be taken from the magnificent, rich repertoire of the former and strong Turkish Folk Music" (Gedikli, 1999). However, in those years, it is seen that it took time for Turkish Folk Music to be in the repertoire of educational music as it could not find a place extensively at a national level within the widespread music types and carried on as the music of the countryside.

Beginning from the 1950s and together with the 1960s, the concept that school music samples should set out from the child him or herself and his/her close environment and be on the axis of folk music became important (Dinçer, 1988). Furthermore, nursery rhymes and various folk songs were started to be given place extensively in music education (Dinçer, 1988). in this context, significant changes happened in Turkish school music in the 1968 program; school music education entered the process of configuration by being based upon folk music and it took its place in the program (Bozkaya, 2001).

Different developments have begun to take place since the 1970s. While the tendency in the society towards popular music was enhancing, the Ministry of National Education prepared high school popular music competitions. Moreover, the interest in Turkish Classical Music became stronger. Thus, the program in the new curriculum for secondary education which was put into effect in 1987(1986) was prepared in accordance with this statement: "Getting the student to sufficiently comprehend the technical features and values of our national music which is a whole with its classical and folkloric types so that he/she can be an active member of his/her society and introducing this art practically" (Çevik, 1989).

Along with these developments, in the society, the idea of bringing suitable samples of music types to the classroom became widespread. To study this subject and to reach scientific results, a symposium about "The Place of Music Types in Education" was organised at Fatih Education Faculty in Karadeniz Technical University on 26-28 April 1993 (KTÜ, 1993).

An important change occurred in the Turkish Education System in 1994; by having it raised to 8 years, compulsory education was evaluated within the scope of primary education. According to this, with the Board of Education and Discipline of the Ministry of National Education Decision No. 298 dated 22.04.1994, the Curriculum for Music Lessons in Primary Schools, which has been accepted according to be tried out and developed since the academic year 1995-1996, was also re-organized by being divided into 3 periods as 1st, 2nd, 3rd grades, 4th, 5th grades and 6th, 7th and 8th grades. It could be said that the program is an example for a work in terms of the technique used in the preparation of a program. The opinion, "As well as with the obtainment of a shared music repertoire it requires, the common, primary music culture which gives place to the principal music types vital in our country and which preserves, reinforces and develops our national unity and solidarity has been essentially taken" was given place in the information related to school music education in the general explanations part of the program (MEB,1994). Thus, the idea that all the music types vital in our country should be in the program was obtained after long searches (MEB,1994).

In 2006, towards the general aim and principles of the Turkish National Education, the preparation of a music repertoire which gives place to local, regional, national and international music types and which also has music types reinforcing our national unity and solidarity as well as facilitating our integration with the world was essentially taken in the curriculum for music lessons that was prepared and applied with a constructivist approach (MEB, 2006).

When the article related to the field is analysed, the following are observed: Firstly, a study made by Göner (2006) reveals that songs are appropriate for the age of children, more place is given for contemporary songs but there is a need to increase the number of songs and folk songs in music course books in primary schools. Secondly, the students of Varış and Cesur (2012) are generally interested in popular music activities and not in classical music activities. Also, the content of the music lesson does not motivate students to listen to different music types. Thirdly, samples of education music and Turkish Folk Music are mostly allowed for in the teachers books of Gün Duru(2013), but having examples of Turkish Folk Music related to all areas in these books is useful in terms of putting forward our musical variety. Finally, Köroğlu (2014) reached the conclusion that songs students enjoy singing and contemporary songs which appeal to children and which are appropriate for the developing and changing conditions of society could be added to the curriculum for music lessons.

In this study, starting from the idea that art is a universal language and that it is not just an important component of a national culture but also of an international one, the current situation of curriculum for music lessons in secondary education was researched in terms of music types as well as with what the possible developments may be in the future. This was also endeavoured to be put forward with data regarding the opinions of music teachers.

Related to music types given place in the curriculum for music, the purpose of the research is to specify the opinions of music teachers working in junior high schools. Regarding this purpose, the subproblems below have been specified:

1. What are the views of teachers related to which music types should be allowed for in music timetables in secondary education?

2. What are the views of teachers related to how adequate music types in music programs in secondary education are in having the aims and objectives achieved in education?

3. In terms of tune structure and the meaning of words of music types in the repertoire of music programs in secondary education, what are the views of teachers related to their feature of having suitability for the class level?

4. What are the views of teachers related to the students' interest in the types of music in lessons?

5. With regard to the practices of music education, what are the preferences of directors related to music types and what are the views of music teachers related to the requests of the directors in this aspect?

Method

Research model, study group and information about the collection and analysis of data are included in this section.

Research Model

This study is a qualitative case study which is directed towards the evaluation of music types in the curriculum for music in Turkey's secondary education in terms of music teachers. The most essential feature of the qualitative case study is researching one or more cases thoroughly (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2006).

Study Group

Typical case illustration which is one of the oriented illustration methods was used in the research. Oriented illustration methods are useful in discovering and explaining facts and cases in many situations. The purpose of typical case illustration is forming an opinion about a specific field by working on normal situations and then the aim is informing those who do not have knowledge about this field, topic, practise or novelty (Yıldırım ve Şimşek, 2006). Through this illustration, it will possible to have an idea about the opinions of music teachers related to music types in the curriculum for music in Turkey's secondary education. This illustration group was formed by 5 music teachers working in junior high schools and who participated voluntarily in the research.

The Collection of Data

A semi-structured interview form prepared by the researcher was used for the collection of data in the research. Questions are previously specified in semi-structured interviews and data is collected with the questions (Karasar, 1999). First of all, a literature review was made when the questions were being prepared and the effect of music types in the curriculum for music in junior high schools was focused on during the process and duration of music lessons. A semi-structured interview form was prepared by turning fundamental topics into themes. At the end of this process, a trial interview was carried out. Through the prepared interview form, meetings took place with the participants.

The Analysis of Data

In the research, the opinions of the participants were taken in writing on the semi-structured interview forms. A number was given to the interview papers. The data obtained from the research was organized into significant sections by the researcher, and these sections were encoded. These formed codes were used in the analysis and organization of data.

Findings

Themes and according to these themes, codes and sub codes were specified by the researcher as the result of the analysis of the responses the participants gave to the interview questions. Findings related to the specified codes and sub codes have been analysed below.

The Opinions of Teachers Related to Music Types Needed to be Given Place in the Curriculum for Music in Junior High Schools

The music teachers who participated in the interview believe that the music types in the curriculum are appropriate but they also consider the necessity of a program consisting of outstanding classical music samples that will develop the admiration of students and appeal to them and which also includes works of the specific representatives in jazz music and selected samples from our traditional music.

"I think the types in the program are appropriate. However, the most known samples of classical music should be given place and through this, polyphonic music should be tried to be made loveable." (P.1)[1]

"I have observed that students are not aware of nearly all the music types except the ordinary samples of current popular music. At this point, I think outstanding samples of classical music works, works of specific representatives in jazz music and samples of our folk and classical music at the appropriate level of students' appreciation should be included in the program in order to broaden the horizon of our students in terms of music types." (P.2)

"I think all music types should be allowed for in general terms without details." (P.4)

"I think the types in the program are appropriate." (P.5)

The Opinions of Teachers Related to the Adequacy of Music Types in the Curriculum for Music in Junior High Schools in Accomplishing Education Aims and Achievements

Music teachers who participated in the interview specified that they had difficulty in accomplishing the education aims and achievements of music types in the program due to meeting the students for a period once a week. Also, it has been

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[1] P: Participant

specified that students do not willingly study the samples of Turkish Classical Music and therefore, in this music type, difficulty is experienced in the obtainment of aims and achievements.

"We meet the students for an hour once a week. Therefore, I cannot completely accomplish the aims and achievements."(P.1)

"I could never get the children to love Turkish Classical Music. Therefore, I cannot accomplish the aims and achievements relating to this type. I can highly ensure the aims and achievements of samples in Turkish Folk Music and current popular music." (P.3)

"We have a lesson with the students for an hour once a week. Therefore, as a solution, I give an assignment to the students beforehand about the topic in order to accomplish the aims and achievements. Later on, I reach the aims and achievements when I reinforce with song samples relating to the music types, and through this, I think the achievements are more permanent." (P.5)

The Opinions of Teachers Related to the Suitability of Music Types (Turkish Folk Music, Turkish Classical Music, Popular Music, School Music Samples) in the Repertoire for the Class Level in terms of Tune Structure and the Meaning of Words

Music teachers who participated in the interview have specified that the sound limit and tune structure of the songs in the repertoire are generally not appropriate in terms of singing and that the tune structure of the songs are samples which would be difficult to be played with a recorder or even not be able to be played at all. They have also specified that the topics and the song samples regarding the topics are difficult for the class level.

"Most of the sound limits of the songs in the repertoire are not appropriate for children. They need to be transposed in ear-training. Most of the songs are suitable to be played with a melodica." (P.1)

"Most of them are inappropriate for the class level. According to the class level, a very easy and a very difficult song can come one after the other." (P.2)

"In terms of their tune structure and the meaning of words, the songs in the books are inappropriate for the class level. I am constantly searching for sources." (P.3)

"I think most of the samples of education music in the repertoire are inappropriate. Most of the songs are suitable to be played with only the melodica." (P.4)

"Books are inappropriate in terms of topic explanation, examples and visuals. I don't think they are prepared conscientiously. for example, the topics and songs in the 5th grade program are difficult for children who have not had a branch teacher until that time."(P.5)

Furthermore, a music teacher who participated in the research has specified that in the current auxiliary sources and books, the samples concerning school songs are inadequate.

"The school songs in the auxiliary sources and books are always the same. It is boring for both the teacher and the child."(P.4)

The Opinions of Teachers Related to the Attention of Students towards Music Types in Lessons

Music teachers who participated in the interview have stated that students are mostly interested in the samples of popular music and that they enjoy studies which have examples from this type. Also, the teachers have specified that students enjoy studying samples relating to Turkish Folk Music and easy songs with dual beats. However, it has been stated by the teachers that examples concerning Turkish Classical Music do not appeal to students.

"Children are interested in all music types. However, samples of popular music and Turkish Folk Music which are prone to their ears are played and sung by them with a greater interest. Also, they highly enjoy playing easy songs with dual beats." (P.1)

"The environment they are in has a great effect. in one district I worked in, children were interested in samples relating to Turkish Folk Music while in another district, students highly enjoyed studying examples concerning rock and popular music. I have difficulty in getting the students to be interested while studying samples from Turkish Classical Music." (P. 3)

"They are generally interested in current popular songs and samples relating to Turkish Folk Music." (P.4)

The Preferences of Directors Related to Music Types in Practices of Music Education and the Opinions of Teachers about the Directors' Requests

Four music teachers who participated in the research have stated that in their preferences regarding music types they face the restraint of the directors and therefore, they do not adequately feel themselves independent. It is observed that directors particularly prefer practices of music education which have traditional music, request practices from teachers that have music types they listen to and know about and that they do not support studies of various types. Besides this, one participant who specified that his/her work is supported by the school principal said that he/she carries out successful work and that his/her success is greatly affected by the support of the director.

"Directors want mostly samples relating to Turkish Folk Music and Turkish Classical Music to be in the practices of music education. They do not encourage music types they don't listen to or don't know about. in concerts especially in which there are samples from polyphonic music type, directors become disappointed by thinking there is a disorder and something is not going right. Therefore, selections directed towards types which the directors can understand have to be made when there is a school night or a concert."(P.1)

"I face the oppressive attitude of the school administration in the selection of types and works when there is any kind of musical activity at school. All the samples which will be in concerts have to firstly be approved by the administration. Therefore, I believe that I am certainly not independent in the practices of music education I carry out."(P.2)

"Since most of the directors are aged 45 and over, their preferences are mostly Turkish Folk Music and Turkish Classical Music. When I prepare programs with different types, I cannot make them happy."(P.3)

"My principal prefers to see works which feature traditional music."(P.4)

"In my school, the directors do not intervene in preferences about music types. On the contrary, I must say they support me. I believe that they have a great help in the successful programs I perform."(P.5)

Results and Suggestions

Regarding the findings obtained from the research, the following results have been reached:

•The music types in the curriculum for music are appropriate, but samples which will develop the admiration of the student are insufficient.

•There is difficulty in accomplishing the aims and achievements related to music types due to the tightness of periods.

•Teachers experience difficulty in accomplishing the aims and achievements directed towards the samples particularly concerning Turkish Classical Music.

•Most of the songs in the repertoire are inappropriate for the class level in terms of sound limit and tune structure.

•Most of the songs are suitable to be played with only the melodica. It is difficult to play them with the recorder or they cannot even be played with it at all.

•The current auxiliary sources and samples relating to school songs are insufficient.

•Students are mostly more interested in samples relating to popular music and Turkish Folk Music than examples from other music types, but directed towards these types, more outstanding samples which will advance the admiration of children should be allowed.

•Samples relating to Turkish Classical Music do not appeal to students and during studying, difficulties are experienced.

•Teachers face the restraint of directors mostly in the selection of music types and therefore, they cannot feel themselves independent in their work.

As part of the obtained results, the following are suggested:

•Increasing music periods in the weekly timetable.

•Reviewing and re-organising the samples relating to types in the music programs in a way that will advance the admiration of the student.

•Regarding the opinions and suggestions of music teachers working in junior high schools, re-analysing all samples concerning music types in terms of tune structure, sound limit and the meaning of words.

•Selecting songs by taking into consideration the features of the recorder and melodica which are taught along with voice training in secondary education.

•Giving music teachers more sources which have samples of education music in order to assist in the selection of music types.

•For the purpose of using them in music lessons in secondary education, producing more education materials appropriate for the development level of children at that age-group. Organizing competitions for this and rewarding composers.

•Making an anthology by re-evaluating samples of Turkish Classical Music in a way so that they are appropriate for the development level of children and giving place to it in that way in music education in secondary schools.

•Ensuring music teachers to use more effectively explanatory music samples about international classical music which will advance the admiration of children.

• Having directors assist music teachers in the accomplishment of anticipated aims and achievements in the curriculum for music, and having them avoid personal practices which feature their own preferences.

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DISCRIMINATION, ASSIMILATION, and CULTURAL IDENTITY in TAHAR BEN JELLOUN'S LEAVING TANGIER

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Abstract

In today's multicultural countries, cultural diversity, hybridity, assimilation, and cultural identity are key issues. By focusing on the problem of immigration and its inevitable traumatic results on the migrants, Tahar Ben Jelloun's Leaving Tangier fully presents Azel (the protagonist) and his acquaintances' search for identity in terms of history, religion, nationality and cultural identity. Tahar Ben Jelloun's Leaving Tangier is the story of a Moroccan brother and sister who are burning with the desire to migrate to Spain in order to attain better life. The accomplishment of their dreams actualizes at the cost of some compromises and sacrifices that end with the protagonists' physical, emotional failure, and annihilation. The winner of Prix Goncourt for La Nuit Sacrée (The Sacred Night) in 1987, a Moroccan novelist Tahar Ben Jelloun is one of the most prolific and important writers of the recent years. As a novelist and critic, Ben Jelloun artfully combines the fact and fiction, past and present, East and West in his works. in this respect, he creates multidimensional writings that can be read and interpreted from several perspectives. Tahar Ben Jelloun's Leaving Tangier (2006) presents the issues of "wounded childhood," "solitude," "displacement," and "alienation" both individually and collectively in the colonial history of Tangier. This study focuses on the issues of discrimination, assimilation, and cultural identity, experienced by the characters in the novel, resulting from the immigration of individuals from their homelands to Europe in order to find better life conditions.

Key Words: Discrimination, Assimilation, Immigration, Cultural identity, Tahar Ben Jelloun, Leaving Tangier, Postcolonial Literature.

Introduction

In today's multicultural countries, the issues such as immigration, assimilation, and confusion of cultural identity are well known discursive concepts. By depicting the relations between Morocco and Spain, Tahar Ben Jelloun's most recent novel, Leaving Tangier, presents a critical point of view on migration and intercultural exchanges between Morocco and Spain in this framework.

Tahar Ben Jelloun is a well-known Moroccan poet, novelist, and short story writer. Published originally in French as Partir, Leaving Tangier is Ben Jelloun's thirteenth novel. in 1987, Ben Jelloun "became the first Arab writer to win France's most prestigious literary prize when his novel La Nuit Sacrée was awarded the Prix Goncourt." (Rifaat, 1991). in his works, he artfully combines fact and fiction, past and present, East and West and creates multidimensional writings that can be read and interpreted from several perspectives. Leaving Tangier focuses on the problem of immigration and its inevitable consequences on the migrants. The novel presents Azel (the protagonist) and his acquaintances' search for identity in terms of sexual oppression, religion, values, nationality and class struggle. in the novel, the issues such as "wounded childhood," "solitude," "displacement," and "alienation" are narrated as experienced by the characters both individually and collectively in the colonial history of Tangier. This study focuses on the issues of discrimination, assimilation, and cultural identity resulting from the immigration of individuals from their homelands to Europe in order to find better life and chances by referring Ben Jelloun's Leaving Tangier.

Born in Fez, Morocco, in 1944, Tahar Ben Jelloun, at the age of five, "was enrolled in a Koranic school, where he learned to memorize and recite verses from the Koran. Two years later, he entered a Franco-Arab school, studying French in the morning and Arabic in the afternoon. […] in 1971, at the age of twenty-six, Ben Jelloun immigrated to France to complete his studies at the Sorbonne" (Ben Jelloun & Guppy, 1999).

Published his first novel, Harrouda, in 1973, Tahar Ben Jelloun is the recipient of several prizes, including the Prix de l'Amitie Franco-Arabe for in 1976, the Prix Goncourt in 1987, and the Prix Maghreb in 1994. He is "one of France's most celebrated writers" (Ben Jelloun & Guppy, 1999) and his writings "emanate from very real and concrete situations and position him clearly as a postcolonial author on both sides of the Mediterranean, in the Maghreb and in France" (Parekh & Jagne, 1998). Ben Jelloun's personal, political and intellectual experiences also contributed to his development as a

postcolonial author; he spoke out "injustice, racism, indifference, economic oppression, hypocrisy, torture" (Parekh & Jagne, 1998). Due to his Arab/Islamic heritage, Ben Jelloun's identity and the medium of expression in his fiction have been questioned much both in France and Maghreb. He is a Maghrebian Francophone writer, and in one of his interviews, Ben Jelloun, in response to the interviewer's query about the use of French as the medium of expression in his fiction, replied that

I belong to a specific category of writers, those who speak and write in a language different from that of their parents. I am a Moroccan, an Arab. My culture is Arab, Islamic, but it was in French, the language of the former colonial power, that I spontaneously expressed myself when I began to write. This is a paradox which stems from a historical situation. […] I don't feel guilty about expressing myself in French; nor do I feel that I am continuing the work of the colonizers. Actually, what I express in French could very well be expressed in any other language. […] in a sense, we Arab writers who write in French are the ones who offer hospitality to the French language! Not only do we adopt it, we invite it home, we transform it, we take it to places where it is not accustomed to go. (Ben Jelloun, 1991)

DISCRIMINATION, ASSIMILATION, and CULTURAL IDENTITY in TAHAR BEN JELLOUN'S LEAVING TANGIER

The issues of migration and its traumatic results on the migrants have been debated much in multicultural societies. Although immigrants are generally seen as potential threats to the national unity and cohesion, the effects of immigration on the immigrants regarding the constitution of cultural identity, assimilation, and adaptation to a new country have been serious issues that attracted to scholarly studies. Leaving Tangier presents the distressing story of Moroccan characters that endeavor to migrate from Tangier to Spain in order to attain better life conditions. in one of his interviews, Ben Jelloun states that "for an immigrant, life is very different. He is a symbol of the human condition unloved, not recognized, a condition that places each human being at the level of his ability to work. […] My novel Leaving Tangier has a message for the young: Immigration is not a pleasure trip; it is not a fun weekend; it is hard and difficult, because there is racism, humiliation, and loneliness" (Ben Jelloun, 2014). in the novel, regarding their ethic and cultural identity, racial and religious problems in the new country, the migrant characters' dreams turn into nightmares on the way of immigration to achieve a better life.

Throughout the novel, leaving Tangier keeps the characters so busy that they actually lose both their North African and newly gained European identities; they can neither settle nor survive in both of the lands. They are pushed to their fatalistic solitude because of the exclusion of the West; their humanity and physical beings are belittled and humiliated. Regarding the novel and its characters, the novelist states that "this novel was widely read and discussed in Morocco, where I introduced it upon its release. Leaving Tangier was well received in countries very different from Morocco, […]. This is a novel that I rewrote three times by changing the construction. I worked a lot, because I wanted to reach a level where any reader from any country can identify with one of my characters. […] I like my characters, because I identify with each one and put myself in his skin like an actor" (Ben Jelloun, 2014).

Located at the northern tip of Morocco, Tangier is a port and a border town. Regarding the colonial history of Tangier, Melvin E. Page states that Until 1956, Tangier had the status of an international city. Although it had a representative of the royal authority, the city was administered by several different countries: France, Spain, England. After World War II, democratic and nationalist Moroccan parties made claims for independence, which was achieved in 1956. Independent Morocco obtained the Spanish colony of Ifni and began making claims to Western Sahara, Ceuta, Melilla, Mauritania, although making these claims was primarily a strategy to divert attention from internal social, political, and economic problems. (Page & Sonnenburg, 2003)

The novel opens with the Café Hafa which is located in Tangier with a view of Straits of Gibraltar. The narrator describes the thoughts and actions of the young Moroccans who are sitting at the Café Hafa. The sitters gather at the Café and gaze admiringly the glimmering lights of the Spanish coast. They all share the same dream: to quit Tangier and move to the other side of the Mediterranean coast that promises better life conditions and chances for them:

the Café Hafa becomes an observatory for their dreams and their aftermath. Long pipes of kif pass from table to table while glasses of mint tea grow cold, and enticing bees that eventually tumble in, a matter of indifference to customers long since lost to the limbo of hashish and tinseled reverie. in the back of one room, two men meticulously prepare the key that opens the gates of departure, selecting leaves, then chopping them swiftly and efficiently. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

What brings the young Moroccans at the Café Hafa together is to reach the same goal: to land the Spanish shores of Tarifa in order to obtain better life conditions. The novel presents "how poverty, corruption and the lack of employment fuel dreams of leaving Tangier" (Nice, 2009). Azel is the protagonist of the novel and is surrounded by the same feeling of departure from his homeland to arrive Spanish shores. He is an inventive, talented but an unemployed boy despite his law degree.

Azel is fascinated by the feeling of leaving Tangier and burns within the desire of leaping the other side of the Mediterranean passionately: "the idea of sailing away, of mounting a green-painted horse and the crossing the sea of the straits, that idea of becoming a transparent shadow visible only by day, an image scudding at top speed across the waves – that idea never leaves him now" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Azel believes that he is able to achieve the opportunities in the dream land that he has already failed to catch in his own land:

Leaving the country. It was an obsession, a kind of madness that ate him day and night: how he could get out, how could he escape this humiliation? Leaving, abandoning this land that wants nothing more to do with his children, turning your back on such a beautiful country to return one day, proudly, perhaps as a rich man: leaving to save your life, even as you risk losing it [...]. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

While watching the shores of Spain, the survivors of the Café Hafa call the sea "Toutia" which would carry them from homeland to the dream land. Toutia has an ambivalent nature and this ambivalence is explained by the narrator as: "she is a spider that can feast on human flesh yet will sometimes warn them, in the guise of a beneficent voice that tonight is not the night, which they must put off their voyage for a while" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). From the quotation, Toutia sometimes swallows the bodies of unlucky dreamers and sends their dead bodies back to shore. Toutia also warns "them to postpone their voyage when the night is not good enough for departure" (Pireddu, 2009).

While the individuals are sitting at the Café, they are sipping mint tea around which the bees are flying and dropping in the glasses. The narrator makes an analogy between the fates of the bees, which are drowned in the dreamers' big glasses full of mint tea and the dreamers' positions, who are watching the monstrous waves of Toutia. in this respect, the positions of the dead bees foreshadow the fate of the dreamers who are burning with the desire of leaving their countries for a better life. The analogy between the bees and the dreamers is narrated as follows:

In the tall glasses of cold tea, the green mint has been tarnished black. The bees have all drowned at the bottom. The men no longer sip this tea now steeped into bitterness. With a spoon they fish the bees one by one, placing them on the table and exclaiming, "Poor little drowned things, victims of their own greediness". (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

Azel is one of the dreamers among the young Moroccans sitting at the Café Hafa. He thinks that landing on Europe will provide him a chance for freedom, but he becomes a kind of victim in the service of Miguel both sexually and emotionally. Azel is living with his mother, Lalla Zohra, and his sister, Kenza. Although he studied law, he is an unemployed young Moroccan man yearning for leaping to the other side of the Mediterranean to acquire a better life. Azel's innocence and inexperience is narrated thus:

Poor Azel, he never had a chance to live, did everything he could to break free – just think, if he'd managed to set out for Spain, by now he'd be a brilliant lawyer or a university professor. [...] a victim of unemployment, of a carelessly negligent system – such a bright boy, well educated, sensitive, warmhearted, what a pity that he got on that damned bus with those bald tires, [...]. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

Due to its historical and cultural richness, Tangier has been an international city including Muslim, Christian, and Jewish communities. Morocco was exposed to the colonization of many Western countries and the country gained its independence in 1956. Regarding the multicultural status of Tangier, Ben Jelloun notes that

for some forty years, until 1957, Tangier had the status of an international city. […] Although it had a representative of the royal authority, the city was administered by several different countries. However, the most widely spoken language, apart from Arabic, was Spanish, […]. There were as many schools as there were countries represented in the city. Young Moroccans had the choice between the Spanish Institute and the Italian school, the American school and the French lycee. At this time cosmopolitanism was a lifestyle, multi-lingualism was not encumbered by the problem of identity, and the Muslims of Tangier lived in the same neighbourhoods as the Christians and the Jews. The Calle Sevilla was known as the Spaniards' street, but Muslims lived in the same buildings side-by-side with the Spaniards and there was no feeling of mistrust between the two. It was a time when Moroccans wondered how nearby Spain, a fairly poor country, could be capable of colonizing them. (Ben Jelloun, 1997)

Although the country gained independence, the indigenous peoples were exposed to Western degradation and exploitation continuously. Regarding the constant influence of Western colonization on the country, the former King Hassan II states that "Morocco is like a tree whose roots are in Africa but whose leaves are moved by the wind of Europe" (Antonio Azbitarte, interview on 18 May, 2013). Situated in the northern tip of the country, Tangier's geographical position was important because the city was a meeting place for multiple identities, cultures, and traditions. Regarding the strategic position of Tangier, Michael K. Walonen observes that

This colonial presence took on a particularly forceful and idiosyncratic form in Tangier, which had a unique political status, population demographic, and also (and hence) spatiality. Since the nineteenth century an international administration had been in place in Tangier […]. A longtime center for diplomatic relations between Morocco and the nations of Europe, Tangier had for some time been home to an eclectic international population; a port city and a border town on the frontier of a more wealthy region to the north, Tangier had also for some time had its fair share of sex work and trade of contraband goods. As the era of the International Zone moved along, the city's status as an economic free zone attracted a large number of financial speculators and the idle rich, but intertwined with this, the zone's climate of moral permissiveness and the access it afforded to commercial sex, particularly of the homosexual variety, attracted an expatriate population looking to free itself from the moral restrictions of its native lands. (Walonen, 2011)

Due to its geographic position – the city has a large international port – Tangier attracted and hosted many immigrants and writers such as Paul Bowles, William S. Burroughs, Jean Genet, Mohamed Choukri who all stayed permanently or visited Tangier during different periods of the twentieth century. Among these writers, Paul Bowles, an expatriate American writer, was the one who spent nearly half a century living and writing in Tangier. Neil Campbell quotes one of Bowles's impressions about Tangier as follows:

mixture of cultures, where you might run into a Polish refugee [...] an American construction worker [...] a tailor from Rome and where the past and the present exist simultaneously in proportionate degree, where a very much alive today is given an added depth of reality by the presence of an equally alive yesterday. (Campbell, 2000)

Regarding Tangier's position as a meeting place of multiple identities, cultures, and traditions, Paul Bowles also claimed that Tangier was "an enormous market where goods, information, and people were bought and sold [...] unloaded and reloaded [...] without valid documents to identify them" (Bowles, cited in Campbell, 2000). Bowles' quotation reflects a colonizer's perspective which regards Tangier as an enormous market in which people (young naive Moroccans) can be bought and sold like "cabbages or carpets" (Brandabur, 2010). His quote also presents the hopeless situation of the young Moroccans whose identities and individualities are disregarded by the colonizers. in the novel, Ben Jelloun makes reference to Paul Bowles: "an American writer and his wife lived in an apartment building" in Tangier (Ben Jelloun, 2009), who see young Moroccan people as a kind of material to enhance the creativity of their writings. Ben Jelloun depicts the abused positions of the indigenous Moroccans and their exploitation by the Westerners as follows:

That type, they want everything, men and women from the common people, young ones, healthy, preferably from the countryside, who can't read or write, serving them all day, then servicing them at night. A package deal, and between two pokes, tokes on a nicely packed pipe of kif to help the American write! Tell me your story, he says to them, I'll make a novel out of it, you will even have your name on the cover: You won't be able to read it but no matter, [...]. That's what he tells them, without mentioning money […]. They aren't obliged to accept, but I know that poverty – our friend poverty – can lead us to some very sad places. People have to make do with life, that's how it is, and me, I see everything, but I don't say everything. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

As seen in the quotation above, the local Moroccans are in a desperate position due to the country's colonial history. Although the novel depicts the post-colonial period of Tangier, the young Moroccans endeavor to leave Tangier in order to avoid poverty and suffering. Due to the radical differences between the European culture and traditions and those of theirs, the characters experience ambivalent and conflicting ideas. Despite of his conflicting ideas, Azel is eventually able to leave Morocco by the help of a wealthy Spanish man named Miguel. The encounter between Azel and Miguel happens purely by chance. Miguel López is "an elegant man who dressed with exquisite taste. […] He spends the summer in Tangier and the rest of the year in Barcelona […]. A generous man, he has a passion for Morocco because of the quality of life there, its infinite variety" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Just before his departure, Azel writes a letter expressing his feelings and passions for Europe. The letter, as opposed to the latter one, expresses Azel's enthusiasm, excitement, and joy for Spain. By addressing his own land as "Dear country," Azel states that

I finally have the opportunity and good fortune to go away, to leave you, to breathe the air of a new country, to escape the harassment and humiliations of your police. I set out, my heart light, eyes fixed on the horizon, gazing into the future, unsure of what I will do – all I know is that I'm ready to change, ready to live free, to be useful [...]. I am not leaving you forever. O my country, my thwarted will, my frustrated desire, my chief regret! You keep with you my mother, my sister, and a few friends: you are my sunshine and my sadness: I entrust them to you because I will return [...]. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

By the help of Miguel, "who is a rich homosexual art dealer and viveur who rescues him from a police dragnet and ultimately gives him a chance to quit his country, Azel can board a plane with a regular visa application instead of risking an arrest or even his life on an illegal trafficker's boat, and finally lands on the European soil" (Pireddu, 2009). Miguel is a homosexual man: "whenever Miguel forced a man to become involved with him, he regretted it, but he found a kind of perverse pleasure

in feeling lonely and sorry for himself. […] He loved the "awkwardness" of Moroccan men, […]. He loved the oil sheen of their skin. and he loved their availability, which marked an inequality in which the relationship was formed, […]" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). As seen in the quotation, Miguel's perception of the young Moroccans reflects the colonizer's vision which disregards the native's individuality and humanity. As Edward Said puts it, in the mind of the West, Arabs are "shown to be gullible, "devoid of energy and initiative," much given to "fulsome flattery," intrigue, cunning, and unkindness to animals; Orientals cannot walk on either a road or a pavement (their disordered minds fail to understand what the clever European grasps immediately, that roads and pavements are made for walking); and Orientals are inveterate liars, they are "lethargic and suspicious," […]" (Said, 1979). Accordingly, Azel is a colonized man and is always in the need of attention of the West in order to materialize his dreams. So, by the help of Miguel – the protective, benevolent, and masculine – Azel, who is depicted as weak, outsider, and feminine, could actualize his dreams. However, as the time passes, Azel is torn by his dreams and the actual nature of external reality. He lives dilemmas because he realizes the complexity between his Moroccan identity and Spanish culture. Lying in the bed in his little room, Azel once again addresses his own country with a letter. As opposed to the previous one, this letter highlights the opposition between the two coasts of the Mediterranean and includes Azel's yearning, regret, and longings:

Here I am, far from you, and already I miss something of you [...]. You know from Morocco you can see Spain, but it doesn't work like that in the opposite direction. The Spanish do not see us, they don't give a damn, they've no use for our country. I'm in my little room [...]. I'll try to fall asleep thinking of you, my dear country, dearest and the greatest of my anxieties." (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

Captured by the conflicting ideas, Azel's disappointment and loneliness reach climax when Miguel forces him to wear women's clothes for a party that he holds for his guests: Miguel "had invited some thirty people for a disguise party with the theme of "The Orient: Think Pink!" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). While Miguel dresses a vizier of the Arabian Nights, Azel is forced to "wear a caftan, a wig that was almost red, a belt embroidered with gold, babouches, and a veil. Nothing but women's clothes! Azel realized immediately what Miguel had in mind. […] Miguel whispered in Azel's ear, 'you're going to dance. and you'll dance like a whore.' […] He began to dance to some Egyptian music, moving his buttocks […]" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). This scene indicates the abused and humiliated position of the natives at the merciless hands of the colonizers. Azel becomes the "Other" and his humanity and identity are belittled and degraded by Miguel's capricious manners. in this respect, the hospitality of the West is transformed into a kind of ethnocentrism by Miguel. Although Azel is offered job, luxurious clothes and a safe life by his benefactor, an uncompromising gap occurs between his Moroccan roots and the newly adopted Europeanness. Pireddu observes that "Azel's increasing distress for his sexual duplicity, weakening, and confusion caused by his relationship with Miguel is the symptom of a greater ambivalence and crisis common to most allegedly Europeanized immigrants in the novel" (Pireddu, 2009).

Azel gradually "abandons all thoughts of gratefulness to Miguel for granting him the opportunity to cross the Mediterranean" (Pireddu, 2009). He soon learns that day-dreams can be misleading. As the time passes, he realizes his own complexity that pushes him into condemnation. He begins to feel antagonism toward the country and its culture that he has immigrated. He blames Miguel and Spain because he thinks that they are guilty for creating all the problems.

In the novel, dreaming and departure are keywords that obsessively capture mind of the characters. Like Azel, Siham is another character "who yearns no less than Aziz's family members to migrate to the closest piece of Europe" (Pireddu, 2009). Siham is Azel's girlfriend and she is provided an employment in Marbella by El Haj. Although she is inexperienced and isn't being trained for nursing, Siham has to look after a disabled girl, named Widad. Although Tangier is depicted as a city that is incapable to grant security and comfortable life for its residents, El Haj expresses the temptation of Tangier that binds its people together with the feeling of yearning:

Don't go crazy, my dear, you'll see: even if you leave, you'll always miss your country. We become so attached to Morocco that we can't forget it completely, it really sticks to us, like an unseasoned frying pan, and we can't forget it. I travelled quite a bit in my youth, thanks to easy money and parents who never asked questions. I went far away and wherever I was, strangely enough I missed Morocco. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

Despite El Haj's emotional speech, for Siham "the chances offered by her four-month European visa are a sufficiently good incentive to put up with the emotional distress of her current job situation in Spain rather than falling prey to the compromises to which women have to stoop in her home country in order to survive" (Pireddu, 2009).

In the novel, Malika is another character who burns with the desire of leaving her home land for Spain. Fourteen years old Malika is Azel's neighbor and she is forced to leave the school to work for a Dutch factory where "she sorely missed her days at school and her little forays of escape to the Terrasse des Paresseux to look at the sea" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Like the other characters, she enjoys watching the boats for a long time coming and going and she dreams of herself in a "boat

to Algeciras or Tarifa, disembark in Spain, and find a job there. She would be saleswoman, or a hairdresser, or maybe a model" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). This is how the third person narrator expresses the fragmented and traumatic position of the natives who works for the European market:

Like her girlfriend Achoucha, the neighbor lady Hafsa, her cousin Fatima, and hundreds of girls in her neighborhood, Malika went off to shell shrimps in the Dutch factory down in the free zone of the port. Every day refrigerated trucks brought in tons of cooked shrimps, caught in Thailand and shipped through the Netherlands, where they were treated with preservatives. in the factory, small hands with slender fingers shelled them day and night, after which the shrimps travelled to yet another destination to be canned before debuting at last on the European markets. in Tangier, the girls were paid a pittance. Even with the best will in the world, only a very few were able to process more than ten pounds. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

Exhausted by working for the Dutch company, Malika falls fatally ill. When she is taken to hospital, the doctor exclaims "another victim of those shrimp!" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Malika's dreams are so powerful that it "wasn't the examination that frightened her, it was dying – leaving without realizing her dream, leaving without ever having left the country, leaving to be buried in a hole in the cold, cold ground" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Malika becomes gravely ill and she knows that death is waiting for her out in the corridor; she feels the smell of death everywhere in the hospital room. Because of the effects of the medicines, Malika always of dreams at the hospital; she dreams of herself leaving her home country with a passport in her hand:

If only I were in France, I wouldn't be in a hospital – simply because I wouldn't be sick, because I wouldn't have been working in a freezing factory, I wouldn't have caught this lung disease, [...]. I should have left, I should have held on to Azel's hand and never let go, […] he would never have abandoned me. […] My mother told me the other day that Azz El Arab's sister has gone to Spain; even her mother, it seems, is about to go rejoin her son and daughter. They are so lucky! (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

Malika's excessive desire to leave Morocco comes true only by her tragic death. Without fulfilling the European dream in her real life, she succeeds in abandoning her Moroccan existence during her premature death: "Malika stopped screaming. It is in eternal silence that quits the country. She has finally left. Forever" (Ben Jelloun, 2009).

Leaving Tangier narrates the tragedy of the migrants who "turn into paradoxical non-existing human beings" (Pireddu, 2009) because of their estrangement both from their Moroccan roots and from their newly acquired Europeanism. They are "condemned to invisibility by their foreignness even when they are socially and juridically legitimized" (Pireddu, 20009) in Europe. Kenza, Azel's sister, soon joins to the other migrant characters in order to improve her life. Working as a nurse at a hospital in Tangier, Kenza spends her life waiting for "true love, real, sincere, overwhelming love, and for once, just once, to experience those sublime moments described so tellingly in the films and novels she had adored" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Her mother, Lalla Zohra, forces her to find a handsome husband with fine financial prospects; however, Kenza is quite sure that it is impossible to find such a husband and love in Morocco "not because Moroccan men were incapable of such emotion, but because daily life and public opinion would always stifle true love in the end" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Like Azel, Kenza's migration is provided by Miguel who agrees to marry Kenza in order to provide her Spanish citizenship. Before her dream of leaving occurs, Miguel converts into Islam and takes the name of Mounir. Eventually, she safely arrives in Spain by the help of Miguel who welcomes her like a princess in Barcelona. She becomes Miguel's wife on paper. During her stay in Spain, Kenza enjoys her freedom working as a dancer and soon meets a Turkish man, Nazım. However, Kenza's hopes and desires to find happiness in the adoptive European home soon fail due to her relation with Nazım. Nazım betrays Kenza and she falls in to a deep misery and desperation which lead her to commit suicide. Her shattered dreams and nostalgia for the dream land are acknowledged by Miguel ironically toward the end of the novel. Behaving just as a pragmatic colonial, Miguel decides to send Azel and Kenza back to their homeland because he profits them utmost and annihilates them both physically and emotionally:

Miguel now realized that there was something terrifying about loneliness of immigration, a kind of descent into a void, a tunnel of shadows that warped reality. Kenza had let herself be caught in the maze, and Azel, well, he had gone desperately wrong. Exile revealed the true dimensions of calamity. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

For both Kenza and Azel, the life in Spain does not correspond to their ambitions, desires and hopes. Both of them are annihilated and corrupted sexually, individually and morally in the dream land. Due to her nostalgia for homeland and her disappointments, Kenza gets the chance to return for homeland on hearing the death of the despotic King Hassan II: "it was then that Kenza felt the hour had come for her to go home at least to Morocco". (Ben Jelloun, 2009). However, Azel pursues staying in Spain because "there was only one thing he didn't want: to be sent back to Morocco. The shame, the hchouma, and the hegra, the humiliation – no, never, anything but that […] He had left. Left to return only like a prince, not like garbage tossed out by the Spanish." (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Pireddu states that "despite wrong choices and broken

reveries, Azel, now a secret informer for the Spanish police fighting against the terrorism that threatens Europe, still dreams of returning to Morocco like a hero and of appearing on TV" (Pireddu, 2009). According to Pireddu "Azel's increasing distress for his sexual duplicity, weakening, and confusion caused by his relationship with Miguel is the symptom of a greater ambivalence and crisis common to most allegedly Europeanized immigrants in the novel"(Pireddu, 2009). Azel's dreams, hopes, and desire for Europe tragically end with his violent death at the end of the novel: "Azel was on the floor, his throat cut, his head in a pool of blood. The Brothers had slaughtered him like a lamb sacrificed for Aid el-Kebir" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Nicoletta Pireddu states that:

The evolution of Azel's state of mind and personal life is symptomatic of the profound trauma generated by the cleavage between what we may call the migrant's pleasure principle – the easy Europeanization of his dreams – and the reality principle – the concrete social, political, and administrative mechanisms of Euromediterranean relations and of European immigration, laying bare the antinomies of the notion of community and challenging idealized perspectives on hospitality. They are doomed to exclusion on both shores, simultaneously as the hospes, the upsetting stranger demanding hospitality, and the hostis, the enemy, both on the European territory and back to their own homeland. (Pireddu, 2009)

Azel's traumatizing European adventure, along with many characters in the novel, proves the painful truth of Moha's oracle. in the novel, the migrants' experiences such as despair, discrimination, identity crisis, inner conflicts, and alienation are significantly uttered by Moha, an eccentric figure of the madman-philosopher. in Leaving Tangier, almost all characters yearn for leaping to the other side of the Mediterranean for improving life, except for Moha. Although he realizes the wrong applications and traumatic positions in his country, Moha criticizes the young Moroccans who are leaving their country easily in order to get better chances in Europe. Pireddu asserts that "haunted by death, Moha deprecates the Moroccans' facile idealization of departure as the sole remedy for their destitution, and attacks the mirage of Europe and its ideology of discrimination" (Pireddu, 2009). Moha complains that "Leaving! Leaving! Leaving any way at all, at any cost, drowning, floating on the water, belly bloated, face eaten away by the salt, eyes gone. Leaving! That's all you have come up with for a solution"(Ben Jelloun, 2009). Moha's denouncement presents Europe's incongruous policies toward the immigrants. His speech also includes many warnings to the young natives who choose leaving the homeland as an easy solution: This is how Moha puts the painful reality that the native Moroccans will encounter in Europe:

[you] want to take off, leave, quit the country, move in with the Europeans, but they are not expecting you, or rather, they are: with dogs, German Shepherds, handcuffs, a kick in the butt, and you think that there's work over there, comfort, grace and beauty, but my poor friends, there is sadness, loneliness, all shades of gray and money as well, but not for those who come without invitation! Right, you know what I'm talking about: how many guys left and wound up drowned? How many left and got sent back? How many dissolved into thin air and we don't even know if they still exist, their families haven't had any news of them, but me, I know where they are: they are here, in my jebella hood, all piled on top of one another, lying low like thieves, waiting for the light in order to emerge, and that's not a life. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

Moha's painful voice "brings back to the foreground the sacredness of Africa's geographical and cultural roots as the main source of safety and redemption" (Pireddu, 2009). He says: "I'm heading for Africa, land of our ancestors, vast Africa, where people have time to take a look at life even if life isn't generous to them" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Moha clearly expresses the agonizing situation of Africa and its people that have been subjugated and degraded for years by the colonizer countries: "Africa, cursed by heavens, Africa pillaged by Blacks wearing ties, by Whites wearing ties, by monkeys in tuxedos, even by people who are sometimes completely invisible, but Africans know this, they don't wait to be told what's going on." (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Racism and racist attitudes are inseparable parts in the history of colonialism. Moha points out that skin color and physical differences provide superiority or inferiority to people. He criticizes his people for behaving like the superior races toward the black Africans. Accordingly, what brings the white Arabs and Europeans together is the issue of racism for which he is anxious. Moha criticizes that:

the Africans losing just a bit more of their souls, while we white Arabs (well, let's say brown or olive or cinnamon skinned), we feel superior, stupidly despise, with a racism that needed to get some exercise, but when the poor Africans with black skin, we lose our control, we feel justified in looking down on them, we act like certain European politicians, looking down on you when in fact that don't even see you. (Ben Jelloun, 2009)

The novel ends with a part, entitled "Returning" which describes the imagery returning of immigrant characters to their homeland in a dreamy atmosphere, including some mythical allusions. in the last part, not only the novel characters such as Kenza, Azel, Flaubert, Moha, Soumaya, and Miguel, but also some literary figures such as Don Quixote, Emilzola, a librarian in Douala, and M. Panza appear. The author gathers all these characters in a boat, named Toutia, which is mentioned in the first pages of the novel. These characters, who are on Toutia, are the ones that have not found a suitable place either in their Moroccan homeland or in their adoptive home. The ambivalent nature of Toutia is stated by the narrator:

"this boat seems both familiar and strange to me" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). Toutia is "a kind of fatal mediator between the two shores" (Pireddu, 2009) that is carrying away the would-be Europeans from their dream land as Europe's "others" to their own roots. Embarking on Toutia, passengers begin once again an endless journey as spectral characters. The phantoms of Leaving Tangier walk several days "to back to their roots, to their native land, a destiny that has appeared to them as a kind of command, an indisputable order [...]. This is their season, a season for no one but them, for all those who have suffered, who have not found their place in life" (Ben Jelloun, 2009). According to Pireddu, "instead of offering a free zone where exiles, refugees, and immigrants are welcome and protected in view of their future naturalization, Toutia rather generates an ironic "imagined community" (Anderson) made of all the failed and displaced dreamers of Europe, cast off as on a ship of fools without the consolation of a comeback to their own roots" (Pireddu, 2009). Ben Jelloun's symbolic returning represents the migrants' hybrid status torn between home and abroad, dream and actual reality, Africa and Europe. Pireddu explains that:

migration as is far more than a simple physical displacement from one spot to another in a geographical space. It cannot be measured in meters but rather in change indexes. It is about a rupture in a living continuity and a graft onto another living continuity. They are doomed to exclusion on both shores, simultaneously as the hospes, the upsetting stranger demanding hospitality, and the hostis, the enemy, both on the European territory and back to their own homeland. Neither fully present nor radically absent in either location. (Pireddu, 2009)

Consequently, Leaving Tangier presents that regardless of the circumstances and of the outcome of their Mediterranean crossing, migrants turn into paradoxical non-existing human beings. The novel richly includes characters who desire to leap, legally or illegally, the other side of the Mediterranean in order to attain better working and life conditions. Levy notes that the novel "compellingly analyzes postcolonial dreamers and their dreams while critiquing the underside of globalization – the internalized self-hatred that causes one to long for what one is not" (Levy, 2010).

Throughout the novel, leaving Tangier keeps the characters so busy that they actually lose both their North African and newly gained European identities. Torn between the different cultural and life conditions in their homeland and Europe, the migrant characters experience alienation, hybridity, and despair. The fulfillment of their dream comes at the cost of compromises and sacrifices that end with the protagonists' physical and emotional annihilation. Their humanity and identity turn into paradoxical non-existing human beings because of their estrangement both from their Moroccan roots and from their newly acquired Europeanism. They are condemned to invisibility by their foreignness even when they are socially and legally legitimized in Europe.

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ROMANIAN-ROMA INTER-ETHNICAL POLLITICAL AND SOCIAL IMAGINARY FROM BUCHAREST1

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Abstract:

Psychosocial and Identity aspects, inter – ethnical dialogue and alterity issues between the Romanian People and Roma People are some of the analyzed background matters in this Article. Knowledge of the autochthon social and political environment leads inevitably to a possible theory of the imaginary considered an instrument of knowledge and interpretation of the collective psyche. Establishing a collective imaginary map could substantially improve the knowledge and objectification of a civic and political culture. The starting Premise is the post Decembrist Romania perceived as the victim of an aggressive inter – ethnical collective imaginary hence social and political representations of specific divergent political cultures. Taking the history of political representations considering the political imaginary, we're led to both justifying and also comprehending the role of archetypes in building the collective thinking patterns. The recognition of these archetypes helps tracing a mental map of the imaginary. Therefore its analysis portrays the structure of different dimensions as: social, political human and also religious. The political dimension plays a significant role in shaping the fundamental perceptions between "us" and "the others". The methodological contribution belongs to several subjects, as: psycho sociology, social anthropology, social assistance and cultural anthropology. We add to this methodological contribution the use of specific terminology from Sciences of the Image along with specific methods as the symbol analysis and the convergence method.

Key words: Political imaginary, inter – ethnical imaginary, collective imaginary, alterity, inter – ethnical relations, social stereotypes, cognitive symbol analogy, political culture, archetypes, pattern.

Presentation of research subject

The issue of Roma integration is a strongly disputed problem in the last decade both in Romania and in Europe. Although the existence of studies on program integration, politics and strategies for Roma citizens isn't scarce, they are necessary for increasing their own efficacy and coherence. Starting with the intense mediatisation of felonies committed by some Roma citizens in the last ten years, we become aware of an increase in the inter–ethnical intolerance (also present in field research and polls). We also became aware of a launch of radical, ethnocentric campaigns by far right groups which target the Romanian citizens of Roma ethnicity from Bucharest. The general Premise of the current research points to the relation between Romanian and Roma community from Bucharest who still suffers from being identified with stereotypes as: "Roma have a low education level", "Roma only deal with illegal activities" these being social clichés which entertain a noxious relations on inter – ethnical level2. On the other side, in the last two decades we witness the return of Roma to old customs and to their archaic traditions (formally prohibited in the communist period3) and we also witness the resurrection of older customs. The concentration and agglomeration of Roma population mainly in certain areas from Bucharest (also met phenomenon in other countries from Central and Eastern Europe as: Czech Republic, Serbia, Hungary and Slovakia) indicates the lack of communication and homogeneity between Romanian and Roma ethnic as a failure of intercultural integration politics.

On international level, the European Union initiated certain major public politics and strategies in order to strengthen the European citizenship status. The Union is seen as Communities in Communion (based on euro-region model) a multicultural and even pluralist Europe. The investment of funds in the minority integration encouraged the harmony between the small communities. in what extend lead these projects on diminishing of inter – ethnical conflicts? How has been applied the social justice and equality of chances concerning the politics of minorities integration in Bucharest? There

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2 Quotes taken from responses to the interview conducted for research.
3 Like the custom of marriage at the age of 12.

are already both important observations and research studies of social care specialists who stressed the social dimension of these issues, although less on political dimension. in these researches Roma living conditions, the income, the access on healthcare and education and environment conditions were measured. Aspects regarding the existence of a collective imaginary were stated, which leads to a specific research on deeper knowledge of inter – ethnical alterity universe. The Roma civic culture manifested through attitudes and orientations represents the visible part of the political imaginary. This of the imaginary leads to the real anthropological problem of the political dimension. Here we find on an almost intimate level the sensitive space of psychosocial perceptions which were formed through normative and affective3 dimension which explains the attitude functioning from the social representations area. On the same level we can afford an analysis of the Romanian political imaginary. As we already know, the collective imaginary is full of images, symbols and fantasies which according to the French philosopher Wunenburger vision could be situated between perception and ration, between the sensorial representation and the intellectual notion, constituting a crucial substrate in understanding the thinking activity of the psyche4. No doubt, the both social and politic dimensions complete each other and they are in an interdependence and also direct relation to the official rapport between the official culture and local subcultures.

Nevertheless, in order to particularise these anthropological observations taken on a subtle level (as it would be on the collective imaginary) I concentrated more on the political dimension, starting with the following three-way relation: Roma, majority ethnicity and the Romanian political system. Almond and Verba (1996) defined the Political Culture as a ensemble of "individual attitudes and orientations towards the manifested politic among the members of the political system"5. in Roma case, we will take into account other variables of the political structure as characteristic elements for this ethnicity such as the tradition, autochthon identity values of norms, customs, symbols and the very least variables of the religious beliefs – key elements which justify the existence of an independent system of social, cultural and political representations. I mention that in this research the religious dimension has been totally excluded as it is considered to be less relevant for the current research purpose. On the other side a national level research on this subject would be too vast with big variations in determining a certain political culture level of Roma ethnic around the country. Therefore, this project meets a qualitative research limit applied in the urban environment from Bucharest. The hereby paper is oriented especially to durability and consistency level of the obtained results in the relationship between Roma community and the Romanian ethnical majority. Perceptions, symbols and images were analyzed in order to highlight the promoted attitudes taken as values of intercultural relationship between the two communities from Bucharest. Another fact in the current research is 1the aetherogenics between Roma and Romanians; a qualitative analysis was therefore made through interview method applied in two representative districts: Rahova and Ferentari.

Research Methodology

The general and ground question of this research is on what level could be the intercultural issue between Roma ethnic and the ethnic majority approached through political dimension and through political culture. Leading this thread we're going to answer in detail to the following questions (some of these questions are also found in the interview question structure):

Is the political culture an important factor in inter – ethnical relationship between Roma and the ethnic majority?

Which are the attitudes and Roma orientations from Bucharest toward the current political system and in what extent is there an interest in political life from Romania?

In what extent is the inter – ethnical discrimination makes its presence felt in intercultural political relations between Roma and Romanians?

In what degree is the relationship between Roma community and the Romanian society marked by the cultural stereotypes regarding the Roma?

Have the European directives succeeded on including the Roma in order to diminish perception differences between the two communities?

In what extend do Roma succeed in integrating and affiliating to XXI Century actions and activities?

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4 The two dimensions: normative and affective formed the opinion of Almond, G. and Sidney, V. (civic culture) a type of parochial - participatory culture which involves the emergence of two political interests: the national and local levels.
5 Wunenburger, Jean-Jacques, Image Philosophy Polirom, Iasi, 2004, pp.23-24
6 Almond, Gabriel, Bingham Powell, "Comparative Politics: A Developmental Approach", Boston, Ed Little, Brown (1996) [1966], p.50

Could their certain activities be considered a return to archaic customs? How are their traditions kept and reinvented nowadays?

Could the agglomeration in certain districts of the Capital (e.g. Ferentari, Rahova) be considered as their isolation?

These are some im1portant questions which are also found in the interview method which is structured on social and historical context.

The study of political imaginary is therefore limited to the knowledge, evaluation and to interpretation of alterity based perceptions. Defining the key concepts according to Gilbert Durand, the imaginary is "the museum of all past images, possible images produced or which is going to be produced."6 or the entire reported images to the temporal axis and possibility domain, representing the imaginary essence. The alterity is seen as a distinction made by anybody each time when they meet a stranger, by classifying him between "good"and "evil" and then rising questions as: "do I love him/her or [...]; is he/she my equal or inferior (as I usually consider myself good and worthy)"7. When alterity becomes a matter of ethnic nature, multiculturalism and pluralism are treated in this respect as two separate solutions, without taking into account the possibility of combining them. Other important methods used in the research were symbolic interactions (expressed as a method of interpretation of symbols in different situations - in our case the political symbols) and genetic-historical method (covering knowledge of historical contexts past and present). The approach of field data collected from obtained interviews will provide a basis for analysis and interpretation made from the perspective of cultural anthropology school represented by L. White and A. Kroeber. This school of thought focused on the cultural dimension of man and its role in shaping human communities, especially in understanding ethnic relations helps in understanding concrete political imaginary8. Research brings more freedom in the effort for the interpretation of empirical data without slipping in the empirical bias and without departing from its scientific objectives. I emphasize the personal aspect criticizing those kinds of subjective research, leaning on delicate research problems which start with some ideological beliefs. As there always is a distance between the political promoted image reflected in media and the real image, there are researches which appear to be paved with the best intentions. Still, the good intentions cannot be based only on the knowledge of realities without the political interference, as we find them on field. Another important method which will be used is the method of convergence9; being programmatic and 2relativistic, it makes uses of semiotic decoding of symbols structured in different image constellations and imaginary isomorphism. Eliade considers the structure concept as essential from the hermeneutical point of view. All human life manifestations relate into the unconscious structure, analogical, pre-reflexive and collectively shared archaic cultures.

The analogy of the elements and symbols described be the respondents engrams style is an enabling tool for this method that facilitates comparison and selection of the similarities between different signs and meanings, and through convergence will be identified common perceptions that are within similar images. An image can be a multitude of meanings, generally keeping a map made up of specific membranes which represents a way of orientation in perceiving and thinking. The analogy is the similarity of a causal relation, such as X is to Y what Z is to W. Te Convergence method is rather a homology which leads to understanding that the analysis implies a linguistic structure of evolved symbols under various expressions, maintaining a common root10. The method was first promoted by Bergson in his book Pensée et le mouvant, in an attempt to increase the strength of images through descriptions11. Semiotics and hermeneutic images are the most difficult areas of analysis; therefore, it requires specific patience and a careful research of mentally-symbolic similarities.

In this spirit, two research hypotheses were formulated which would confirm or refute the importance of the political dimension to the knowledge of intercultural and interethnic relations in the light of the political culture.

First hypothesis: if the national and European resources and efforts for the ethnic integration of minorities would focus particularly on training and enabling the civic interest participation, namely the increase in Roma political culture, then the intercultural and social relations between them and the ethnic majority would evolve in a better direction.

Second hypothesis: if there were urban and social policies that would enable and facilitate the coexistence in approximately equal numerical measure of the two communities then the ethnic relations would improve considerably.

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7 Tzvetan, Todorov, The Conquest of America. The question of the Other, European Institute, Iasi, 1994, p 173.

8 Kroeber, A. Anthropology: Culture Patterns and Processes, Ed Brace & World New York, 1963 p.10.

9 Durand, Gilbert, anthropological structures of the imaginary, Bucharest, Encyclopedic Universe 1992, p 38.

10 idem, in the chapter Convergence Methods and methodological psychologism, p 39

11 Henri Bergson, Pensee et Mouvant, Edition PUF, Paris, 2003. P. 210. Bergson is the promoter of this method which is recognized by the author himself, it's stating that: "These different images borrowed some categories of very different things, they could through the convergence of their actions conduct the awareness on the precise point where there is a certain intuition to spot "

Therefore, the research approach that we propose combines theoretical and conceptual analysis with the empirical-exploratory analysis materializing through the interview technique and participant observation and, not least, the historical and documentary analysis. The paper includes several other important issues like inclusion and social exclusion, public policy and especially the development of intercultural relations.

The presentation and the advantage of the interview

The interview method has an excellent role in capturing that generally accepted pattern of thought that helps to better understanding the size of inter-ethnical communication and social imaginary perception. This qualitative method used the sampling of research subjects but may be limited by the existence of different parameters of social and intellectual application environment. But like any qualitative method it's not possible to capture the homogeneity of a representative research segment when analyzing such a complex environment, as the Roma political imaginary from Bucharest. We can nevertheless use the complex results coming from direct observation of the operator who not only notes the ideas, but also the given answers on dates of respondent's empathy, emotion, language and especially aspects of body language. in essence, these descriptions made through direct observation of emotional behaviour can provide important data both on the individual and collective imaginary and the cognitive dimension of the respondents.

From the Bucharest urban area were interviewed 20 Romanian citizens in total, from which 10 Roma ethnic citizens and 10 Romanian citizens. Two samples were selected, each of them having in return two subsidiary public target categories which would represent both the intellectual and the ordinary environment. We gather the first group of five Roma students from different colleges and universities from Bucharest and the second group with five randomly selected Roma ethnics aged between 30 and 50 and a primary school education level, situated between 4 to 8 primary grades), all being inhabitants of Rahova and Ferentari districts. in the second sample were selected five Romanian students and another 5 Romanian citizens randomly selected aged between 30 and 50 and a secondary school education level, situated between 8 to 12 secondary grades, all of them living in the same districts, Rahova and Ferentari. in this sample we did not necessarily take into account the gender and social status, considering that this criterion is not relevant for the current research. The reason of choosing the ten studens of Roma and Romanian ethnic was to help locating the standing of both ethnics young people regarding specific policy issues but also to address certain issues and technical terms that imply a certain preparation process. The intellectual environment thus facilitates a broader knowledge of certain psychosocial aspects including a careful analysis of more specialized and semiotic words. in conclusion, the cognitive and psychological condition of a respondent may be an advantage or a communication barrier, but regardless of these difficulties, the interview has the privileged ability of capturing all aspects of improving the means of knowledge of the reality that a questionnaire or other type of research couldn't include. Another advantage to reasoning this method is the operator's ability to capture important details about body language or other data arising from direct observation. Each interview was technically registered in order to be read as evidence or testimony at any time. The other issues will be analyzed according to the importance set by the interviewers; in this case there are three operators[12]. The research was conducted between February 20 and March 10, 2014.

In the following are given 10 questions with different indicators which in ZAMFIR, Elena, (1975); DURAND, Gilbert (1992); TZVETAN, Todorov (1994); KYMLICKA, Will, (1995); LIPS, Hilary (1995); SARTORI, Giovanni, (1997); GIRARDET, Raoul, (1997); ROGER, Caillois, (1997); AGAMBEN, Georgio, (1998); GERHARD, E. Lensky, (2002); GIRARDET, Raoul (2003); FRIGIOIU, Nicolae, (2004);[13] can help in the current research to identifying a specific pattern of inter-ethnical imaginary. The questions were established in a random order[14] for not willingly leading to answers which could stray the respondent from its own beliefs parameters, judgment or perception. The questions were posted here to explain in detail all the desired objectives in this research, the motivations, and especially the results. The questions were mainly intended to follow structure, logic and causality formation of an internal imaginary, among the group of respondents, through the differentiation and similarity of perceptions. The differences and similarities form the most important guidance cues of a possible collective imaginary of Roma, respectively Romanian ethnic, which can generate certain archetypes of collective thinking. The sum of these archetypes shapes the selection criteria on preferences, attitudes and orientations that configure a pattern of ethnic collective imaginary.

Interview questions:

What are your expectations as Roma ethnic (or Romanian) on the European Union's involvement in policies for Roma integration in the labor market?[1]

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12 The three operators present research are even co-authors of this article

Do you consider that the participation and active involvement of Roma in the Romanian political life could improve the inter-ethnic relations between them and the ethnic majority?

What are your hopes and expectations to the current Romanian political system and what level of trust you have in the public institutions and state authorities?

To what extent do you feel discriminated as Roma ethnic (i.e. whether the respondent is ethnic Romanian) in the inter-ethnical interaction plan at work?

What are your first thoughts or images translated into words, which come to your mind when you think of a Roma ethnic person (or Romanian if the respondent is a Roma ethnic)

Would you mind if you had a Roma ethnic as a neighbor (respectively a Romanian in Roma ethnics case)

Let's suppose hypothetically that you'd fall in love with someone and find out later he/she is a Roma ethnic (Romanian when considering otherwise) would you consider marriage?

If you are in between presidential elections, to what extent would you be willing to vote for a president of the Roma? (question addressed only to Romanian ethnics)

What are the main activities of the Roma in Bucharest where they occupy a job? Please list three main trades. (question addressed only to Roma respondents).

Who are the three most important political figures in Romania today?

In your personal or professional life did you ever suffer because of a Roma ethnic? (question addressed only to Romanian ethnics)

Data evaluation

Inter-ethnic collective imaginary can be investigated under certain aspects and details as the knowledge of the political dimension of the imaginary as a structure of civic culture, but in order to capture important symbolic peculiarities is needed a fixed interpretation on decoding of archetypes. As we established, the engrams are substructures of political imaginary which form and shape the beliefs of the group. The final product obtained after the crystallization of these engrams[15] leads to knowledge of cues which are making possible the knowledge of the politically imaginary map present in both groups of respondents.

Therefore after analyzing the responses we have the first important milestone of ethnic collective imaginary: the pro-European attitude. The European Union and its institutions are evaluated with high political authority and legitimacy in the eyes of both ethnicities. Therefore, we explain why expectations about solving political and social issues are moving towards this direction. Legitimacy and especially the authority play a key role in building the political imaginary. Depending on the perception of deontic[16] authority, the image of the European Union becomes in the imaginary a landmark institution because of its association with the only solution to social problems. The interest towards the EU corresponds to respondents' interest in Romanian political life.

On the other hand, the Romanian state institutions identify themselves with an unfavorable image. Following the comments made by interviewers was found that the responses and analysis made on body language, the Romanian political system is seen as being weak and unorganized. His repertoire is extensive, including issues of inter-ethnical conflict between Romanian and Roma. for example: "The Romanian state does not successfully fulfill its constitutional duty by not protecting minority rights."[17] The same proves to the third question when the entire post-revolutionary Romanian political system is considered by all respondents as being very weak and corrupt[18]. in these circumstances it is clear that Romania does not

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13 These authors were chosen as starting points for the construction of the interview, as specialists in the imaginary, ethnic and social issues, multiculturalism, pluralism, integration, European Union, etc. ..

14 The questions were put in the order shown in this study, but were mixed so that each operator has interviewed each time always in a different order. Interview technique has the imparted advantage to avoid possible logic induction to influence an arbitrary quality of spontaneous and frank responses.

currently 1hold ruling elite simply because every elite is an active person in a system that provides a minimal normality environment. The need of Romanian elite is major. Romania needs fierce rising of the education level which would lead to confidence in institutions and political figures. Trust towards the top of the social pyramid can lead to forming a healthy imaginary wherefrom would derive the civic citizenship responsibility accompanied by a participatory political culture. Nonetheless, these changes involve mainly moral reforms in education and not just institutional or legislative reformation. By moral reform we understand an emphasis on politicians' professional quality that represent us as role models for younger generations. in conclusion, the institutional image of the Romanian state and especially the one of the political class towards the European Union is in a lacking position of mutual perception of both ethnicities. We get here a first archetype of the collective imaginary.

Furthermore, we note that discrimination issue is not as simple as it seems at first sight once we analyze the social stereotypes floor in the collective imaginary. Details are often important, so all respondents recalled and emphasized that the presence of discrimination is particularly present in the poor populated areas, as in the case of Bucharest (the two districts, Ferentari and Rahova). I therefore mention two types of discrimination:

The perpetuation political and economic discrimination against Roma ethnics. They are victims of inequality of opportunity, including the right to equal treatment, justice and health problem that is related to their relationship with the Romanian state institutions

Inter-ethnical discrimination as Roma respondents affirmed that income based differences are reported between them and the ethnic majority

In the second type of discrimination the prejudices are affecting labour rights and even human rights. Although the labour code is governing these issues, yet they exist. The issue of wage inequality was not recognized by the Romanian ethnic respondents, but something seems to be confirmed from the answers provided to the fourth question12. As shown in the analysis, from very beginning, the Romanian ethnics are have prejudices which aren't from personal experience (proved to question 11), but influenced by the opinions of others, get to perpetuate a mythical teaching. Therefore, the association of the word "Roma" with certain negative characteristics of Roma ethnic are underlying these biases. When biases become wide in circulation regarding the collective imaginary, they become social stereotypes. in this way they are formed and are born in collective imaginary of the Romanians.

Regarding the question no. four, five, six and eight the analogy executioner-victim is shaped and confirmed. The imaginary is strongly impregnated with this analogy that stands as the main source of conflict in the immediate presence of ethnic discrimination. Many of the ethnic Romanians, as observed in responses, are accustomed to form an evaluative dimension with certain value judgments without using their personal filter. They believe that Roma are apriori blamed by the simple fact that they are Roma ethnic. As consequence, the perception of Roma to these biases generates the image of "unfair executioner" thus self-perception becomes one of a victim of alterity. It is easy to see that this circle is actually one-way directed: the second victim image can only exist depending on the first. I believe that if the image of "unfair executioner" would disappear, then the victim would dissolve by untenable. in conclusion, the analogy "unfair executioner - a victim of inter-ethnic alterity" is another important milestone archetype of the collective imaginary, better acknowledged by the victim and present especially in the collective imaginary of Roma.

Interpersonal relationships as very sensitive and delicate level are affected by the same archetype of thought, excepting that among Roma respondents, this stereotyping did not manifest. The only manifestation criterion of interpersonal attraction for Roma ethnics was the presence of actual true love, while some ethnic Romanian respondents find the idea of having a partner Roma vitiated by a certain fear and distrust. If the partner is Roma, there must be another conditioning: not true love, but honesty. Honesty as priority and not love shows again how bias is felt to the depths and substrates of subtle imagery, locations where we find the depth of the deepest and difficult cues, such as the beliefs, dream symbols, dreams or relationships and interpersonal feelings. The third archetype and important cue we find here is manifested in the collective imaginary of the ethnic Romanian and this is the particular fear to forming a couple with a Romani ethnic.

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15 The engrams can be represented in the form of the collective imaginary parts that are at the basis of the beliefs of the group, where we find the imaginary area including the presence of social stereotypes that we have investigated in this study.

16 Deontic word has here the sense of moral authority.

17 Reply quoted from interview

18 Quote extracted from the analysis of the third question (p. 11 of this article): "overwhelmingly, post-revolutionary political system is seen as" weak and corrupt "general conclusion drawn from almost all respondents regardless of ethnicity . "

19 Quote from interview: "Gypsies do not work and steal" or "gypsies are begging and they embarrass us, the Romanians abroad", these images placed on the imaginary Romanian judges and inquisitors position of Roma. P. 13.

The relationship as inter-ethnic perception and in the political dimension is revealed when some of the ethnic Romanian respondents were against the election of a Roma president. The motivation is similar to the third cue: the fear came from the lack of confidence in Roma. The third cue unfortunately prevents inter-ethnic political cohabitation based on understanding and harmony. I quote: "I personally do not trust the Roma and of course I would never vote for a Roma president ". Remind you that although many of the ethnic Romanian respondents were asked to use the word "Roma", they only used the word "Gypsy". Inter-ethnic communicational barrier is another cue and important archetype which explains the looks and how some intimate beliefs and prejudices work when addressing the political dimension of the imaginary. As observed in responses to the tenth question, Romanian ethnics did not say anything about a political figure of Roma, while Roma have mentioned about two political personalities of Romanian ethnicity.

Roma civic attitude, when it comes to the interest and involvement of Roma in Romanian political life is much higher than the Romanian ethnics', who seem blasé and dominated by passivity atypical participatory culture. The hope for a better future is also more pregnant among the Roma who have tried through different responses to seem more active and solution oriented to improve interethnic relations which leads to the point that Roma are much more open to political and social cooperation.

Conclusions and Solutions

In conclusion, through the present study the first general hypothesis is confirmed, namely that if national and European resources and efforts for integrating the inter-ethnic minorities would focus particularly on training and enabling civic participation interest, namely on the increasing of political culture of Roma then the inter-cultural and social relations between them and the ethnic majority would evolve into a better direction. for this, the civic-participatory interest has to be mutual and not heterogeneous. As long as there is not a list of mutual interests of cooperation based on mutual benefit understanding this harmony can't be achieved. Similarly, the interests are not allowed to leave from the old prejudices and social stereotypes; therefore, I believe what is needed to join both ethnicities has to rely more on the right of citizens of the diversity of interests. Under common nationality can focus interests and results on both sides in a trajectory based on the following hierarchical scheme: people (respected under the umbrella of human rights) Europeans citizens, and then the Romanian citizens.

Locally, at the level of Bucharest, the second hypothesis is being confirmed, but more as an urban strategic solution when we want results from the public policy. The coexistence of the two communities can lead to a considerable improvement of inter-ethnic relations. The dwellings segregation formed from the historical and political experience the cleavage phenomenon and to prevent possible social conflicts, it only takes public policy and urban planning to prevent such tendencies. As final conclusion, knowledge of the collective imaginary plays an important role in understanding of interethnic relations; Discovering the three important archetypes and cues we can identify problems in a deeply conflicted society. Good-evil dichotomy through the "executioner unfair - victim" analogy forms an important pattern as a source of collective imaginary Romanian-Roma inter-ethnic conflict which distorts the reality.

The sociological and anthropological vision of this paper was focused on the political and social imaginary sketched as a map in which we can find answers and maybe even solutions. What has been analyzed so far is only a first step which is going to be continued in the next stage, in order to explore the mysteries and depths of inter-ethnic collective imaginary.

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Lexical Configuration in Adhan: A Semantic Perspective

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Abstract

Adhan is defined as the Islamic call for announcing the time of Salah (practice of formal worship in Islam) which is recited by muezzin at mosques. This study aims to explore adhan from a lexical configuration point of view which has been introduced by English linguist Cruse (1986). As an initial step, lexical configuration of Cruse (1986) is explained from lexical semantic point of view. Hierarchy, then is defined which is a set of elements related to one another in a characteristic way according to Cruse (1986). After elaborating on hierarchical chain of meaning in lexical semantics, the adhan text with transliteration and English meaning is provided. Analyzing adhan from the semantic view point of Cruse (1986) confirms that adhan is the symbol of Islamic belief and ideology. It is not a static chain of words but a dynamic melody that invites people to move to worship Allah. It also reports that worshipping Allah needs a movement toward Him and also moving toward Allah needs The Facilitator or the Leader who is aware of the howness of the moving that can show Allah's order and path to people. The Facilitator is Prophet Mohammad (P. B. U. H.) who shows the path of Salvation and Good Deeds. Based on Islamic philosophy, one can reach to Allah by means of Salah. Also, one will reach to Allah by doing what Allah says. This study also introduces a new hierarchy to broaden the lexical configuration proposed by Cruse (1986) as circular hierarchy.

Keywords: semantics; lexical configuration, hierarchy, adhan (azan), circular hierarchy

Introduction

The adhān (Arabic pronunciation [ʔæˈðæːn]), or Azan (Turkish pronunciation [ˈʔæːzæːn] and Persian pronunciation [ˈʔæzæːn] or other possible dictations and pronunciations) is very common in Turkey, Azerbaijan, Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan and some other countries. It is the Islamic call to announce the time of Salah, recited by the adhan teller (muezzin) at prescribed times of each day to summon Muslims for prayers (Salah [Arabic] or Namaz [Turkish and Persian]).

With regard to etymology, the root of adhan is 'd̠n (Arabic أَذَن [ʔeˈðn]) meaning 'to permit' or ud̠un, meaning 'ear'. In the history of Islam, adhan is called out by the adhan teller in the mosque three or five times a day (three times in Iran or five times in Saudi Arabia for example), traditionally and commonly from a minaret. Many purposes are mentioned for adhan but one of the main reasons embarking upon the multiple loud pronouncements of adhan in every mosque is to show and announce a comprehensible symbolic summary of Islamic belief and ideology to the hearer.

Review of Literature

A review of literature shows that Islamic ideology has been considered from a linguistics point of view, at least by Tavanaei, & Saneipur, (2009), Nasiri, (2009), Yadollahpour, (2009).

Tavanaei & Saneipur (2009) discussed about applying parsing rules to discover the cohesion of the text of the holy Qur'an. They divided verses of Qur'an into the minor portions according to parsing rules and concluded that there is cohesion in Qur'an's text. Nasiri (2009) studies the conceptual domain of Donya (world) in Qur'an from a semantic point of view. This paper also deals with the conceptual of apprised and renounced Donya and its relation to the conceptual domain of Qur'an. Yadollahpour (2009) tried to fix the meaning of human dignity in the discourse of the holy Qur'an with a semantic approach. Among these works, none has investigated a semantic analysis of adhan.

Different aspects of adhan as the symbol of Islamic ideology and belief have been taken into consideration by Muslims. One of the aspects of adhan is its reciting by adhan teller. The adhan teller is the most notable person in the mosque in prayer time since he (not she) is chosen for his talent and ability in reciting the adhan beautifully and loudly for Muslims.

Many adhan tellers have tried to recite adhan in the best way like Rahim Moazzen Zadeh Ardabili, Toghi and Galvash among others. As far as the review of the literature is concerned, no linguistic or specifically semantic analysis of adhan has been carried out so far, and this study is believed to be the first study of the mentioned domain. In other words, this study aims to consider adhan from a semantic point of view. More specifically this study strikes to answer the following research questions:

1. How adhan is in accordance with the hierarchy series introduced by Cruse (1986)?

2. What is the central concept of adhan according to lexical configuration?

3. What are some implications of adhan according to lexical configuration?

Method

Cruse (1986) introduces two types of lexical configurations, namely, hierarchies and proportional series in his seminal work. He categorizes hierarchies into taxonomic hierarchies, part-whole hierarchies and non-branching hierarchies and proportional series into doublets and cluster (for detailed consideration see Cruse (1986)).

Hierarchy is a group of elements related to one another in a characteristic way. In the case of hierarchies, two structural types of hierarchies can be distinguished according to Cruse (1986): those with branch, and those which are not capable of branching, because of the nature of their constitutive relations. Cruse (1986) depicts this classification as the following:

Table1. Cruse (1986)'s hierarchies (p.12).

(a)   (b)
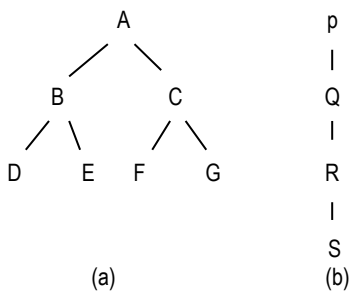
Cruse (1986) points out that relation of dominance is the most fundamental structural relation of any hierarchy, adding that without relation of dominance we do not have any hierarchy at all. In other words, relation of dominance is the vertical relation in the hierarchy. According to the above picture, the relation which connects A to C and B, C to G and F, and B to E and D in (a), and P to Q, Q to R and R to S is what Cruse (1986) calls vertical relation.

In addition to vertical relation, a relation of difference is seen in (a) as well. This is called horizontal relation by Cruse (1986) which holds between C and D, G and F, and E and D in (a).

Cruse (1986) also speaks about a well-formed hierarchy and requirements of a possible hierarchy. He declares that "in a well-formed hierarchy, the relation of dominance and relation of difference are constant through the structure." He also points out that "the minimum requirement for a hierarchy is a set of interrelated elements structured by a suitable relation acting as a relation of dominance," believing that two properties are essential for the relation of dominance of a hierarchy, namely, symmetric and asymmetric.

One of the other concepts that is defined in lexical configuration is 'level' which is shown in the following table by Cruse (1986).

Table 2. Levels in lexical configurations by Cruse (1986, p.12)
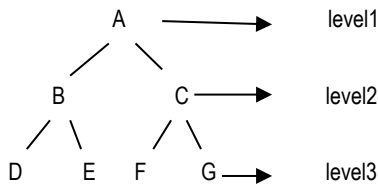
According to Cruse (1986), each element of a hierarchy occurs at a particular level. In this study, adhan is going to be explored according to one of the most complex types of lexical configurations, namely, hierarchy introduced by Cruse (1986).

Adhan as defined earlier is the Islamic call to announce the time for praying recited by the adhan tellers at prescribed times of each day to summon Muslims for prayers. Adhan (in Shia belief) and its meaning, transliteration and translation are presented in the following table:

Table 3. Adhan (in Shia belief) and its transliteration and translation

Recital	Arabic	Transliteration	Translation
4x	الله اكبر	Allahu Akbar	Allah is great.
2x	اشهد ان لا اله الا الله	Ash-had an-la ilāha illa llah	I testify that there is no deity except Allah.
2x	اشهد ان محمدا رسول الله	Ash-hadu anna Muhammadar-rasūlu llāh	I testify that Muhammad (P.B.U.H.) is the Messenger of Allah.
2x	اشهد ان عليا ولي الله	Ash-hadu anna Aliyan wali-ul-lah	I testify that Ali (P.B.U.H.) is the vicegerent (wali) of Allah.
2x	حي على الصلاة	Hayya 'alas-salāh	Hasten to Pray (salah).
2x	حي على الفلاح	Hayya 'alal-falāh	Hasten to Salvation.
2x	حي على خير العمل	Hayya- al Khair al amal	Hasten to the Best deeds.
2x	الله اكبر	Allah-u Akbar	Allah is great.
2x	لا اله الا الله	Lā ilāha illallāh	There is no deity except Allah

Hierarchies

According to Cruse (1986, p. 12), a hierarchy is defined as the following manner, "a hierarchy, which need not consist of lexical items, is a set of elements related to one another in a characteristic way."

For analyzing adhan in a characteristic way, its meaning is given, and then it is shown in the hierarchy.

Table 4. Meanings of different lines of adhan

Adhan		Meaning		Central Concept
Allahu Akbar	------→	Allah is great.	------→	Allah
Ash-had an-la ilāha illa llah	------→	I testify that there is no deity except Allah.	------→	Allah
Ash-hadu anna Muhammadar-rasūlu llāh	------→	I testify that Muhammad (P.B.U.H.) is the Messenger of Allah.	------→	Prophet
Ash-hadu anna Aliyan wali-ul-lah	------→	I testify that Ali (P.B.U.H.) is the vicegerent (wali) of Allah.	------→	Vicegerent
Hayya 'alas-salāh	------→	Hasten to Pray (salah).	------→	Salah
Hayya 'alal-falāh	------→	Hasten to success.	------→	Salvation
Hayya- al Khair al amal	------→	Hasten to the Best deeds.	------→	Best deeds
Allah-u Akbar	------→	Allah is great.	------→	Allah

Results

   As it is seen in the above table, adhan starts with the name of Allah. Then Allah's name represents in another lexical form. It follows Prophet Mohammad (P.B.U.H)'s name and his name follows Imam Ali (P.B.U.H)'s name. Calling people to say their prayers (Salah or Namaz) and speaking about Salvation and Best Deeds which are related to praying, are next steps of adhan. At the end, again the name of Allah (God) is told two times. Summary of adhan is shown in the following:

Table 5. Summary of adhan

Allah
↓
Allah
↓
Prophet
↓
Ali
↓
Pray
↓
Salvation
↓
Good deeds
↓
Allah
↓
Allah
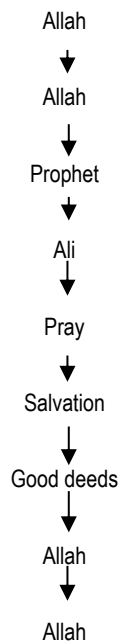
As it is seen in the above hierarchy, four central levels are obvious in adhan: level 1: Allah, level 2: Prophet Muhammad (P.B.U.H.) and Imam Ali (P.B.U.H) (Allah's Agent), level 3: Pray, Salvation and Good Deeds (Pray related words = Allah's order) and level 4: Allah. Now, the mentioned levels are shown in the following table.

Table 6. Different levels in adhan

Allah

↓

Allah's messenger

↓

Allah's order

↓
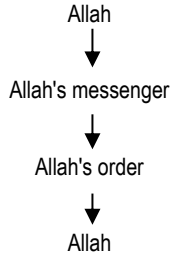
Allah

A glance at the above-presented hierarchy shows that adhan starts with Allah and ends in Allah. Also, the central lexicon of all elements of adhan is Allah. But there seems to be a problem with the hierarchy. Allah has dominance over Allah's messenger and Allah's messenger dominates Allah's order, but Allah's order does not dominate Allah but it cannot be seen in the above hierarchy.

The authors believe that this problem can be solved by proposing a new type of hierarchy. The researchers of the present study recommend a 'circular hierarchy' as the solution to find out the internal configuration of adhan as it is shown below.

Figure 1. Circular hierarchy of adhan

Allah

↓

Allah's messenger

↓

Allah's order
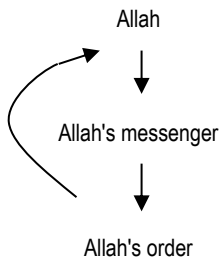
The above-shown circular is shown in a better way as the following:

Figure 2. Full-scale circular hierarchy of adhan

Allah

Allah's order
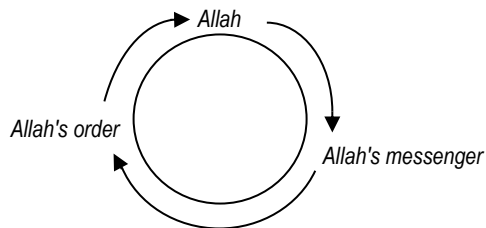
Allah's messenger

It can be proved that Allah is the starting and ending point of the hierarchy. In other words, Allah is linked to Allah's messenger, and Allah's messenger's dominance relates to dominance of Allah's order and Allah's order is connected to His dominance.

If we accept the mentioned proposed hierarchy of adhan, then we can prove some facts about adhan. In the following paragraphs, the mentioned issues will be discussed in details.

With regard to the central concept of adhan, as far as the proposed hierarchy is concerned, Allah is the central concept of adhan. In other words, adhan starts with Allah and ends in Allah.

It is obvious that adhan contains three semantic domains. They are domain of Allah, domain of Allah's agent and domain of Salah or Allah's order. Allah as the central concept of adhan and Allah domain dominates not only the beginning and end of adhan, but also Allah's messenger and Allah's order domains. In other words, the main semantic lexicon of adhan is Allah.

The mentioned movement (circling of adhan) is also visible in its structure. To put it simply, circular hierarchy is implied from adhan's verbal structure. To explain this point, the verbs in each line of adhan will be presented in the following table.

Table 7. Explanation of verbs used in adhan

Adhan	Type of Verb
Allahu Akbar	Copula
Ash-had an-la ilāha illa Ilah	Performative
Ash-hadu anna Muhammadar-rasūlu llāh	Performative
Ash-hadu anna Aliyan wali-ul-lah	Performative
Hayya 'alas-salāh	Imperative
Hayya 'alal-falāh	Imperative
Hayya- al Khair al amal	Imperative
Allah-u Akbar	Copula
la ilāha illa Ilah	Copula

As it is seen in the table, adhan starts with copula in the first level. Next three levels of adhan have performative utterances (the verb Ash-hadu). Performative utterances are followed by imperatives, and adhan ends in two copulas as it is shown in the following figure according to circular hierarchy:

FFigure 3. Performative utterances and imperatives in adhan
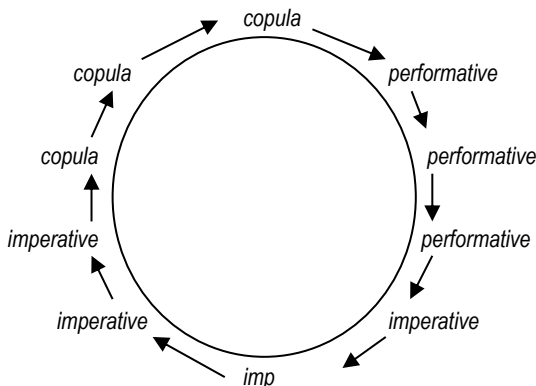
It can be pointed out that adhan is started with a copula verb but it changes to apply performative utterances and imperatives.

As far as the speech act theory is concerned, an action is done in using performatibe utterances. In other words, when a Muslim says Ash-hadu anna Muhammadar-rasūlu llāh, he does an action that is to testify that Muhammad (P.B.U.H.) is the Messenger of Allah.

Imperatives are located after performative utterances in adhan. In imperatives' level of adhan, a Muslim is invited to act and hasten to Salah or Salvation or Good Deeds. It means that there is a need to consider imperatives that is assigned from Allah that should be done by Muslims. In other words, there seems to be movement (both verbal movement (performative utterances) and physical movement (imperatives)) in adhan.

Briefly summarized, the analysis of the verbs in adhan shows that adhan as the symbol of Islamic belief, is not a static prose but a dynamic melody that invites people to move towards Allah. The other point is that moving towards Allah needs a facilitator to show Allah's order or path. The facilitators are Prophet Mohammad (P.B.U.H.) and Imam Ali (P.B.U.H.) that demonstrate the path of Salvation and Good Deeds.

Introducing a noble hierarchy of lexical configuration

As mentioned earlier, Cruse (1986) introduces two types of lexical configurations namely, hierarchies and proportional series in his seminal work, lexical semantics. He categorizes hierarchies into taxonomic hierarchies, part-whole hierarchies and non-branching hierarchies and proportional series into doublets and cluster. A new hierarchy is seen in this study that is called circular hierarchy. It is believed that this new hierarchy could be added to Cruse (1986)'s hierarchies. The hierarchies have been presented below.

Figure 4. Cruse (1986)'s hierarchies and the new hierarchy put forth in the current study
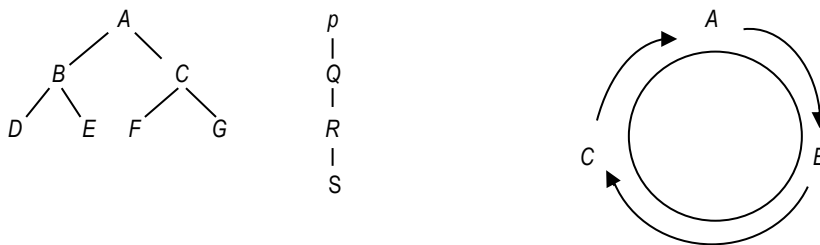
As it is seen in the above categorization, in circular hierarchy, an element is a central concept in the hierarchy that is A in the picture. In circular hierarchy, the central concept has domination over the whole hierarchy and also the central concept or member of the hierarchy is located in the beginning and ending part of the circle of the hierarchy. It is also possible to say that the central concept is located in the middle of the hierarchy and the other elements are going around the circle as it is shown in the following way:

Figure 5. Demonstration of circular hierarchy
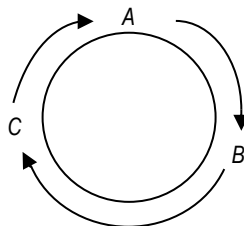
Conclusion

With regard to the first question 'How adhan is in accordance with the hierarchy series introduced by Cruse (1986)?' it can be mentioned that adhan is not completely in accordance with the hierarchy series introduced by Cruse (1986), since according to adhan Allah has dominance over Allah's messenger and Allah's messenger dominates Allah's order while

Allah's order does not dominate Allah. The mentioned points cannot be seen completely in hierarchy series introduced by Cruse (1986) and a finer scale is introduced by the authors of the present study to answer the mentioned shortcoming. Regarding the second research question, 'What is the central concept of adhan according to lexical configuration?', it can be said that Allah is the central concept of adhan according to lexical configuration. Considering the third question of the study, 'What are some implications of adhan according to lexical configuration?' it is conceivable that adhan is a dynamic melody that invites people to move towards Allah by showing Allah's path that is Salah. As far as adhan is concerned, moving towards Allah needs a facilitator that is Allah's messengers who are Prophet Muhammad (P.B.U.H.) and Imam Ali (P.B.U.H).

Dedication

To Prophet Muhammad (P. B. U. H.).

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The unemployment of today and tomorrow in Romania

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Abstract

For any political regime the employment and unemployment of active population represents the most pressing social and economic obligation. in Romania, any comparative study before and after 1990, on 2 x 2 decades of different economic policies, can observe the damaging effects which they had forced privatization of state enterprises on the labor market, with over 1,000,000 declared unemployed in 1999, compared to zero unemployed in 1989. After this disaster, and after a short economic rehabilitation, it followed another crisis, with a further increase in unemployment of ANOFM, from 445,000 persons in 2009 to 626,960 persons in 2010 to 740,000 in 2011 of 674,000 in November 2012 , 512 333 persons in December 2013 to 724,000 persons in March 2014. These data indicate that in Romania the crisis is not over yet. in parallel to these developments there have been published the analyzes of the National Commission for Prognosis, but with some significant deviations in two directions. On the one hand, the calculations are made on the formula BIM records, and on the other hand, they are in the direction of a lower estimates. So, in the estimates of performed forecasts for the years 2014 -2017, with trend analysis and analysis of previous years, the total number of unemployed in 2011 was to be of 730 200 persons. in 2012 the total number of unemployed was to be of 701,200 persons, in 2013 of 726,000 persons, of 705,000 persons in 2014, of 690,000 in 2015 and of 685,000 in 2016. Without contesting the effort to accuracy of this Commission and the fact that any forecast includes a dose of risk too, there are obviously immeasurable variables that were not taken into account. We refer to the quality of business environment, revenues polarization, with decreasing trends in wages, to labor migration especially medium and high qualified. We refer to the existing difficulties in the allocation of development credits, to the corruption of officials from the local councils the excess of electoral concerns of governments, with the necessity of different approaches for each of them. With this supplement of fren factors we can say that on prospective 2 years, the registered unemployment from National Institute of Statistics, will not fall below 740.000 persons. To these things, it must be added the volume of more than twice unregistered persons, which means a total of approx. two million persons, this being the actual estimation of the non-employed population, to which has reached in Romania today.

Keywords: privatization, unemployment, concepts, causes, effects, ILO rate, ANOFM rate, black job, forecasts

Introduction

After 5 years of global economic recession, which appeared from the sovereign debt crisis with austerity policies, but also because of some banking speculations running out of control, it was natural that in the top of issues of social interest to be situated the unemployment and insufficient income. Thus, in a Eurobarometer in autumn 2013, to the question: what are the most important issues facing your country on the first placed fear of unemployment with 49% in August 2013 and of 51% in September, 2013; on the second in the same period (of August and September) placed the economic situation with a percentage of 33%, which is actually a general decline in living standards. in the year 2013, also the Romania communicated unemployment was only 6.7%, the most affected countries being Greece with 26.4% and Spain with 26.3%. But, these figures are relative because an analysis by age groups, at the top of a very early and in whole southern European youth unemployment rates are 100% higher, respectively, 58.4% in Greece, of 55.7% in Spain, 38,2% in Portugal, or 37.8% in Italy. in the case of Romania, the relativity data comes from several sources. A reference example in the recent history of Romania was in December 1999 when it registered over one million unemployed, but to Eurostat, in 2000 it has communicated a rate of only 7.3%.These huge increases of registered unemployment, which represented the greatest crisis in the socio-economic history of the country, were silently neglected by the authority's time. in our opinion, this time require a remember both for risks involved in, but also for the fact that the employment of active population is the first and most urgent requirement of any political regime, regardless of its guidance.

To understand the magnitude of such events requires a retrospective on two decades of different economic policies, one of them national-communist, before 1990 and another after 1990, of such a so-called shock transition, towards a democratic regime. in a paper published in 1994, a former Minister of public administration mentioned that:"In industry in 1992 the activity was carried out in 2,920 companies with 8 million employees, in which 1.817 in public property with 2,782,800 341 employees, in privately property with 44,800 workers, 35 in mixed property with 30.800 employees and 727 in cooperative property with 174.400 employees" (O. Cosmancă1, page 22.). This "Communist economic inheritance" with nearly 3000

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1 Octav Cosmancă and collaborators,, Judeţele şi oraşele României în cifre şi fapte,

industrial enterprises, made with great efforts, each of them with its history, in only 10 years of stupid transition, corruption and incompetence in Government, was destroyed in a percentage of 70%. One example was Automobile ARO-Campulung Muscel enterprise, with 40,000 jobs for the population of the region, where in 1990 started a large stealing of parts of the unit, both from the employees as well as the management.. Is reached as a automobile ARO to sell into a 50% damage for each item. and after 2 years, the State, which was the owner of the company, stopped payment huge damages which gathered and the unit closed. But nobody been held accountable, nor any of the employees anf of the management. in the year 1990 in Combinatul de Utilaj Greu from Iasi worked 12,000 employees, this unit being a major producer of "welded structures ", respectively machine tools, wagons, tanks, with manufacturing secrets of "great importance" and with an guaranteed sales market in the world. After 1991, the unit became company Fortus S.A. and it entered into entered into "the process of privatization", but with repeated failures that have disorganized the activity, have reduced the orders, the employees retired, and in 2008 the unit went into bankrupt with debts of millions euros. Another great industrial colossus, set up on a foundation of a firm in 1916 was producing Combinatul Siderurgic Victoria Călan, with 20,000 employees from Hunedoara area in 1989. Between 1990-2000, to the management difficulties as a great state enterprise, added the internal difficulties with stealing and selling of scrap metal from the unit, in desperately practiced by all unit heads, until it was divided in 1998 in 12 companies. But the plummet with damages paid from the state budget continued. in 2000, the remaining companies were privatized through taking over of multinational Arcelor- Mittal, and the staff has been reduced to 1,000 employees. Another case was Semănătoarea Bucureşti Enterprise. in 1990 it had 7,500 employees and it produced 3,500 combines per year, in competition with the most reputable companies in the world. in 1992, it entered ,,in the process of privatization" too, which resulted very quickly to the output block. Following three unsuccessful auctions, by accumulating large debts and by refusing an offer of $ 50 million from New Holland company, in 1998 with the agreement of the union committee of the enterprise, the State property Fund sold 56.7% of its shares, MYO SA – Bucharest Company and the staff has been reduced to 100 employees. So, we go on with many other examples of "1256 enterprises from Romania closed after 1989", which had between 1,000-20,000 employees and from which today remained just a list on the internet. We mention that this analysis does not question of such assessments, "the communism up ", at least for the fact that there were examples of successful privatizations such as Dacia - Piteşti, Aerostar – Bacău, Silcotub Zalău, Azomures-Targu Mures, synthetic diamonds Rami-Bucharest, enterprises that have won on the market and even raised jobs. But, to major shocks with more than one million unemployed in the years 1993 - 1994, which were also resumed in 1999-2000 with over a million unemployed, we obviously believe that no one has learned anything from these events and at that time there was no political interest and no model of economic thinking for Romania. Everywhere missed sanctioning systems, control systems, prevention, audit, management and economic guidance of these processes. in this respect, an evidence was in 2004 when Năstate Government privatized the Petrom Company by selling it to package with Arpechim Refinery to the Austrian Company OMV-Österreichische Mineralölverwaltung, but then, no one in that Government did not realize it would be bankrupt Oltchim SA -Rm. Vâlcea Company, Arpechim Refinery being the main supplier of raw materials for Oltchim - Rm. Vâlcea. We note that Arpechim had 13,000 employees in 1995, compared to today when when it comes to its closing, being full of debts, while former Combinat Chimic – Rm. Vâlcea, respectively existing company Oltchim SA had 5,200 employees in 1990, compared to 3.538 in 2010. As a culmination of economic commercial spirit of this government, we have to add that in this privatization of great importance it was included not only the sale of refineries and petrol stations in Romania, but also its oil deposits of $ 14 billion at that time, while OMV firm was 11 times less than Petrom SA (!). After this catastrophic privatization, the number of employees from Petrom-OMV has dropped from 50,000 in 2004 to 26.736 in 2010. Also today, after 10 years of transaction conduct complex negotiations with Petrom - OMV for returning to the Romanian state of the Arpechim Refinery - Piteşti, because it appeared investors who intended to purchase company Oltchim SA, but only with the Arpechim Refinery ! This defective economic and political thinking was characteristic for the most of the processes of privatization and in all governments since the year '90. in order to maintain the market, legal transformation, restructuring and large capitalization of Communist companies, slow therapy would be more appropriate and it have resulted to avoid to their collapse, with 4 million people left homeless as starving.

Table No. 1 Evolution of unemployment in Romania between 1991-2005

Publishing the Department for Local Public Administration, Bucharest, 1994

Year	Number of registered unemployed at the end of the year	Unemployment rate Registered	Number of un employed ILO (thousands of people)	Unemployment rate ILO (%)
1991	337,4	3,0	-	-
1992	929,0	8,4	-	-
1993	1.164,7	10,2	-	-
1994	1.323,9	10,9	971	8,2
1995	998,4	8,9	968	8,0
1996	652,0	6,2	791	6,7
1997	816,3	9,3	706	6,0
1998	1.025,0	10,4	732	6,3
1999	1.130,3	11,8	790	6,8
2000	100.7,1	10,5	821	7,1
2001	826,9	8,8	750	6,6
2002	760,6	8,4	845	8,4
2003	658,9	7,4	692	7,0
2004	557,9	6,3	680	6,8
2005	523,0	5,9	650	6,5

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Romania 1992 - 2004; Statistical Bulletin 1997-2006

Investigations in households labor (AMIGO) 1994-2005

It should be noted that the phenomenon of large scale unemployment as a result of this transition, did not exist during the communist period in Romania, but it formally imposed together with these processes since 1991 when the Law no. 1/1991 on social protection of the unemployed and their professional reintegration came into effect. Also, a surprise of these disastrous situations, with millions of registered unemployed, was that Romania communicated to Eurostat in 2000 an unemployment rate (ILO) of only 6.8% ! - see table no.1.

It is very true that on the labor market, as a reality in motion, between the phenomena of employment, vacancy, part time work or inactivity, are difficult to establish differences, but there were accepted some concepts of statistical practice, thus:

The total active population includes the entire the available labor force for producing goods and services, including that one that exceeded a limit of age, variable from one country to another. The active population includes the employed population and the unemployed together and it is representative for employment of population and labor supply.

The active civil population includes the employed population and the unemployed, without military personnel within.

The employed civil population includes the same categories of persons, without military personnel within. in Romanian statistics, the employed civil population includes the individuals older than working age of 16 years, having a job where carry out activities which generating income, except for the military, of the Ministry of Internal, security services and for employees in the public and political organizations.

The active unemployed population represents the one that refers to the unemployed.

Inactive population represents the population which is not employed at work but it was not registered as unemployed.

For example, based on these analytical indicators it can be calculated the gross rate of activity for population by comparing the active population to the total population or employment rate by reporting employed population, either on age intervals of the population in labor, either to the available work resources, either to the total population, each of them with significations. But, in terms of operating mode with these concepts and providing indicators for the labor market, between

Romania and the European Union there are significant methodological differences starting right at the level of definitions. International Labor Office (ILO) defines the unemployed person as person over the age of 15 years and cumulatively meets the following three conditions: those who don't have a job (even he was fired or request the resumption of work after a voluntary interruption); they are at the first search for a job, using in the last 4 weeks different methods to fiind it (even those one still employed in a part time work or still in the temporary work period) and who can start work in the next two weeks, to the first offer of a job.

As compared in Romania, in accordance with the unemployment Law no. 76/2002, with subsequent amendments and completions, the unemployed are people with aged at least 16 years, recorded by the services of the National Employment Agency (ANOFM), which cumulatively meet at least six conditions respectively: persons who are looking for a job; did not comply the retirement conditions according to the law; persons able to perform a work in complete state of physical and mental health; people who don't realize or obtain incomes from legal activities, lower incomes than the reference social indicator1; people who can start work immediately if they find a job and have a minimum contribution period of 12 months in the last 24 months, preceding the date registration of unemployment aid compensation request. So, the unemployment rate as the main analysis indicator of labor market is calculated in two ways:

Unemployment rate in the sense of the International Labour Office is calculated based on data from - Employment inquiries carried out in households (LFS), representative at the national level as - ratio between the number of unemployed people as defined according to the criteria of the International Labor Office (ILO) and total active population, indicator calculated by the National Institute of Statistics, as follows:

total unemployed ILO from inquiries of LFS

Unemployment rate (ILO) = --- x 100

active civil population

While the unemployment rate, indicator calculated by the National Agency for Employment from Romania (ANOFM), is determined by its registrations and civil active population, communicated by the National Institute of Statistics. More precisely, the unemployment rate is determined as the ratio between the number of unemployed indemnified persons, by the county agencies for employment, respectively ANOFM and the municipality of Bucharest, relative to civil active population, according to the formula:

total registered unemployment persons

Unemployment rate (ANOFM) = -- x 100

active civil population

As a result, the differences concerning the unemployment rate are high because NEA takes into account only the unemployed persons. Romanian unemployment law, respectively Law no.76/2002, with subsequent amendments and additions, put a special emphasis on the stages of contribution of the unemployed, the main orientation of this law being the assurance the funding of the budget of unemployment and less the reality employment relations / unemployment in Romania.

Thus, unemployment compensation are paid monthly, for 6 months in quantum of 50% of the reference social indicator, but also differentiated according to the stages of contribution, in the following way: 6 months for a period of at least one year of contribution; 9 months for a period of at least 5 years; 12 months, for a period of contribution higher than 10 years. for those who have contributed at least one year, the unemployment compensation is 75% of the social indicator. Other differences by contribution period are: 3% to a contribution period of at least three years; 5% to a contribution period for at least 5 years; 7% to a minimum contribution period of 10 years; 10% for persons with a contribution period of at least 20 years. The only admitted categories of unemployed without compensated stages to the social security contributions are: secondary and higher education graduates; graduates of special schools for persons with disabilities who within 60 days after graduation were not able to employ; persons before military service were not employed and that within 30 days after the end of this stage could not employ themselves. Basically, this law has especially in view to achieve a balance accounting between indemnified / non-indemnified less knowing of real situations of the economy.

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1 The reference social indicator value is 500 lei, according to the article 40 from the Law no.76 from 2002
   with subsequent amendments and completions, updated in 2014, published on the internet.

Based on these procedures, the unemployment rate by the National Institute of Statistics of Romania1 was of 7,5% to an active population of 9.732.000 people, of which 9.001.000 employed persons and 731.000 unemployed persons, while that communicated in March 2013 by the Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Protection and Elderly Persons (MMFPSPV) based on registration ANOFM2 was lower, at 5.58% value. in the same communication, MMFPSPV indicated that the number of unemployed would have been only 492 427 people, of which 309.379 indemnizate and 183.048 non-indemnizate. The percentage of unemployed indemnified persons was an average of 62.83%, being higher compared the previous months, their percentage in some counties being much larger. for example, during the same period, at county level, the top 10 places, the percentage of the unemployed persons was represented by counties: Teleorman 79,15%, 77,93%, Dolj 77,93%, Galaţi 77,63%, Buzău 77,11%, Iaşi 76,51%, Vaslui 76,03%, Satu Mare 75,64%, Vrancea 74,34 %, Brăila 73,87%, Covasna 72,90%, etc. Also, differences in unemployment rates between the two institutions may occur because in fact, many people declare in inquiries LFS unemployed of the National Institute of Statistics, but no longer registered at county agencies of the NEA. The problem is permanently between the two unemployment rates there is a difference of 2-3 percentage points, lower the NEA compared to INS, which means there is a difference monthly of approx. 200,000-300,000 unemployed people, respectively very high values, resulting only from calculation methodology !

On the other hand, compared to necessity of estimation real situations, differences in these calculations take into account the total occupied active population, respectively the total number of employees. in this connection, a study made in 2014 by the National Trade Union Bloc put in comparison the registrations of employees at the National Agency of Fiscal Administration (NAFA) 6.55 million workers in 2013, compared with 6,48 million registered employees in the same year at the National House for Health Insurance (CNAS). Calculation differences are even greater between insured persons from the CNAS, compared with those of the National House of Public Pensions (CNPP), where 4.5 million employees pay contributions to the pension fund and 6.5 million employees pay contributions to the health fund. Basically, five different public institutions, namely: the National Agency for Fiscal Administration the National House for Health Insurance, National Institute of Statistics, The Labor Inspection the National House of Public Pensions, and a private one, respectively the Association for Pension Funds with retired registered 6,03 million in October 2013-have different statistics about the employed population.

In 2013, the largest differences were noted between those 6,55 registered employees of millions NAFA and 4.3 million people occupied communicated by the National Institute of Statistics. To the question referred by Press of this Institute about the differences between the active population, the number of employees reported in the monthly bulletins (4.3 million people) and low unemployment, of 7%, NIS answered that: "The number of 4.3 million people comes from the monthly research on earnings, which does not include the number of employees small units with less than 4 employees nor armed forces or their assimilated and it has coverage and different reference period compared to the reference period of the survey Labor in households". Referring to unemployed, the answer was: "The number of people registered as unemployed about 730.000 is calculated as a percentage to the total active population, regardless of whether a portion of the active population, are working on the black or is away from the country. Romanians leave the country temporarily to work not included in the system if you are working through employment agencies". Basically, this answer shows that only those officially registered with contracts of employment is the number of employees included in the monthly bulletins (4.3 million). in other words, the very high number of over 2 million people seeking to work abroad, who maintained their domicile in Romania, do not appear in the Employment inquiries carried out in households (LFS-AMIGO) and surveys as a result in estimates of the National Statistics Institute

With all these figures relative can make an analysis on the relationship of job seekers using subcategories with restraint data in annual reports NEA. Thus, towards the end of the year 2013, the unemployment rate registered this institution was increasing compared to the year 2012 when on 31 December 2013 had a value of 5,65%. Total number of registered unemployed persons (registered entered plus unregistered unpaid has known a fluctuating trend from 513.349 persons in January 2013, to 428.866 in September 2013 and to 512.333 by the end of 2013.

The number of unemployed registered persons with unemployment benefits (in terms of stock) has seen also dropping from 208.698 in January to 163.007 people in September and a rise in the last months of the year 2013, reaching 31 December 199.626 at people. in general, increases in the number of unemployed in the summer period correspond to

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1 National Institute of statistics, Press release nr. 148 of 21 June 2013, published on the internet
  http://www.insse.ro/cms/files/statistici/comunicate/somaj/somaj_lr_13.pdf

2 Labor Ministry, Press Release - Employment, Mobility, Unemployment and Social Protection of the Unemployed people,
  published on the internet address: http://www.mmuncii.ro/j33/images/buletin_statistic/somaj%20trim%20I%202013.pdf

periods of registration in the records, as the young unemployed, high school graduates, while during winter the price increases represent the normal tendencies caused, mainly, seasonal activities, 2013 being similar to the year 2012.

Also, the number of unemployed has experienced decreases in benefits, from 208.698 in January to 163.007 people in September and increases at the end of 2013, to 199.626 people. in general, the increasing number of unemployed during the summer periods correspond to the record of the young high school graduates. Comparatively, in winter the increases are normal, and is caused mainly by seasonal activities, 2013 being similar to the year 2012.

The records related to gender, it is found that the female unemployment rate was during the analysis period, less than that recorded among men. While the number of unemployed from rural areas is consistently higher than those in urban areas.

Since January 2013 and by the end of December the collective included 53.059 layoffs, but practice has shown that many economic agents have reviewed the restructuring programmes, so that the actual personnel layoffs in January and December of 2013 were 22.791 people, i.e. a large share of around 43 percent of the total laid off. What would indicate the economic environment of business foresight capacity, relatively low.

It should be noted that in accordance with art. 70 of the labour code, employers are obliged to inform the territorial agencies of labour, within which they are established, the notifications regarding collective redundancies we intend so that people affected by redundancy are entitled to social welfare in accordance with Law no. 76/2002 concerning unemployment insurance and stimulation of employment, with subsequent amendments and additions.

About job vacancies registered in 2013, they were higher than in the year 2012. If in 2012 the number of job vacancies reported by employers was 454.366 in the year 2013 the total number of these was 489.024. Of the total of such vacancies registered in 2013 and made available to for people looking for a job, registered in NEA agencies, 53.690 posts have been repeatedly declared by employers against 44.395 jobs declared repeatedly during the same period of the year 2012. Be noted that, while the number of job vacancies increased in 2013 with 7,63% compared with the year 2012, there has been an increase in the number of registered unemployed in 2013 compared with 2012 with 11,28%.

The main 10 trades as significant vacancy, declared during the period January-December 2013, were: unqualified worker in the demolition of buildings, masonry lining, mosaic tiles, tiles, tiles, parquet; laborer in the textile industry; truck driver / truck machine; seller; freight handler; laborer to the assembling / mounting pieces; confectioner–assembler of textile articles; trade worker; laborer at maintenance of roads, highways, bridges, dams; laborer for packaging solid and semisolid products.

From the evolution of ratio paid unemployed / registered as unpaid persons in the records of employment agencies, it appears that the number of those registered as unpaid recorded high values throughout the year 2013. This represents a big disagreement with permanent basis, between Register of NEA job offers and qualifications unemployed, registered at these local agencies. So, the number of those registered as unpaid was during the year 2013 between 265,000 - 336.000 people / registered as unpaid unemployed persons are, as a rule, persons who either came out of the period of redundancy without having to qualify or do not meet the legal conditions for the redundancy, but resorting to the services of the Agency to find a job. These are people without preparation, or lower education, mostly from rural areas, long-term unemployed, young people under the age of 25 years are over 6 months unemployed and adults older than 25 years, who are unemployed for over 12 months.

In 2013 the structure of unemployment by levels of training was the following:

71,44% unemployed persons with no education and primary education,

secondary education and vocational education,

21,62% unemployed persons with secondary educational level and post-secondary,

6,94% unemployed persons with university studies. But in general, people with a high education and training appeal in the smallest proportion to these agencies.

Regarding the age structure of registered unemployed, we note that the groups groups that are found most unemployed are in the 30-39 years 40-49 years. Both groups have recorded the maximum number of unemployed throughout the year 2013, followed by group under 25 years.

Starting from a number of 493.775 registered at national level at the end of 2012, during the year 2013 were registered the following inflows and outflows:

- the actual entries in the records of unemployment were of 826.142 persons,
- effective outflows of unemployment records were of 807.384 people.

- from the total inflow, 659.484 people who use for the first time to employment services, for support in finding a job.
- At the end of December 2013, occupations with the highest number of unemployed were:
- unqualified workers in mixed farms, 82.726 people
- unqualified workers in manufacturing, 65.404 people
- unqualified workers in public works, 36.634 people
- unqualified in construction of buildings, 35.103 people
- handle merchandise, 27.083 persons,
- builders and fitters structural metal, 15.246 people,
- sellers in stores, 9.276 people,
- other categories.

Regarding the evolutions in unemployment entries as a result of current and collective dismissals of staff (181.886 people) and of the outflows from employment (319.685 people), in 2013 it may be noted that the number of outflows due to employment was significantly higher than the number of people entering through layoff, except for the months of January and December when the obvious seasonal character shows its effects.

Overall, in 2013, the ratio of people who left through employment and those ones unemployed through layoffs was almost 2 to 1. From the total number of 181.886 people became unemployed due to layoffs during the year 2013, only 13.787 people come from layoffs as a result of application of the restructuring and privatization programmes of various sectors of activity, the rest of 168.099 persons from came from current layoffs. The areas that have been the most layoffs were mainly:

- civil engineering works, 2.573 people,
- construction of buildings, 2.039 people,
- manufacture of chemicals and chemical products, 1.628 people,
- land transport, transport via pipelines, 1.596 people,
- activities of services in information technology, 1180 persons,
- investigation and security activities, 905 people.

Regarding the distribution by regions, by the end of 2013, the regions with the highest unemployment rates were recorded in South West (8,57%), South (7.46%) and South-East (6.67%) regions where rural activities are predominant. There is a discrepancy within regions too, where predominantly agricultural counties coexist with the most developed counties. for example, in the South-West region, there were discrepancies between counties, in regards registered unemployment rate: the maximum level has been reached in the counties: Mehedinţi (10,10%) and Dolj (9.03%) and the minimum one was reached in county of Vâlcea (6,10%).

The counties with the highest rates of registered unemployment rates were: Mehedinţi (10,10), Teleorman (10.05), Galaţi (9,05 Dolj (9.03%)%), Vaslui (8,74%) and Dâmboviţa (7.50 percent). The counties with the lowest rates with registered unemployed were: Timis (1.80%), Bucharest (2.06 %, Arad (3.19 %), Cluj (3.59%) and Maramures (3.85 %). in other counties, the unemployed registered rate at NEA varies between 4,04% in Bihor county and 7,83% in Olt county. Between these percentages can be observed very large county differences of about 1/10.

Table nr. 2 Distribution of unemployment rate with registered unemployed at the county agencies of NEA in 2013Source: NEA activity report for the year 2013, published online at the following address: http://www.anofm.ro/files/RAPORT%20ACTIVITATE%20ANOFM%20%202013.pd
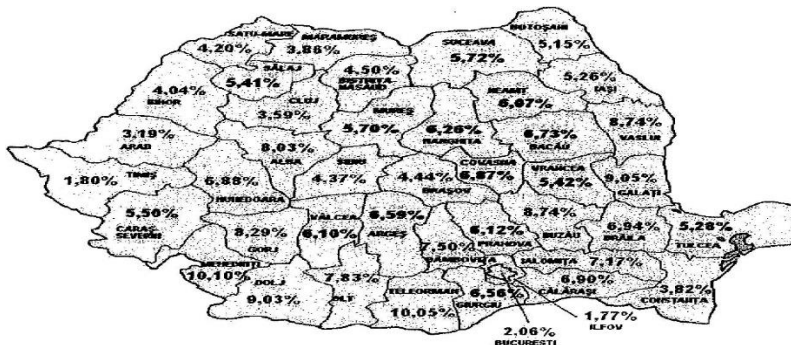
But, for overall, Romania is presented with a population of 20 million people in 2013, in which there are 4.3 million employees (from which 3,1 million in the private sector plus 1,2 million in public institutions), 5.3 million retirees and 7,0 million socially assisted persons. About 3 million people are not present in any statistics, they either work illegally or working abroad or working in subsistence agriculture. Due to the absence of at least 2 million jobs and with a ratio of 1,21 retirees to an employee as well as another report of 1.62 to a employee social assistance These relationships demonstrate a dysfunctional economy through which Romania, on a long term is sentenced to a definite backwardness. Serious is the fact that from various causes, the unemployment has a tendency to increase, the most obvious being the dissolution of over 400,000 jobs between 2010-2012 with losses of approx. 11 billion euros from wages, a difficult situation to recover and only on long term.

Table No. 3 The evolution of unemployment in Romania from

National Institute of Statistics communications in the period 2008 - 2014

Year	Total unemployed ILO	The unemployment rate
2008	575.000 persoane	5,8 %
2009	681.000 persoane	6,9 %
2010	725.000 persoane	7,3 %
2011	730.000 persoane	7,4 %
2012	701.000 persoane	7,0 %
2013	730.000 persoane	7,3 %
2014*	702.000 persoane	7,1 %
* After an estimate disclosed in April 2014		

But, in our opinion, the real question has its origins in the destruction of 4 million jobs in the so-called transitional period 1990-2000 in Romania, after which 4 million people of working age had to continue living in their absence. This percentage of 20% of the population entered into long-term unemployment, that most of them either renounced looking for a job, or withdrew in the underground economy or subsistence agriculture, until they come out in all statistical and of employees and unemployed. Subsequently, the remained active population unemployed and without purchasing power and abandoned the country and after the year 2000 has reached an unprecedented phenomenon in its history, the migration of more than 2 million people to Western Europe. This is the main cause of a whole procession negative effects: on pension funds, on the relationship between the employees and retirees, with the complex phenomenon of demographic aging, and others.

It is obvious that in the absence of major reforms of the country's re'industrialization, there will be a massive decrease in population in Romania, estimated by the National Institute of Statistics, from 20 million in 2013 to 12 million inhabitants in the year 2060.

Another important cause of unemployment in Romania is deficit of professional orientation of youth, with a non-functional adaptation to the labour market. Although youth unemployment has passed 25%, many employers say they cannot recruit young people for jobs because they don't correspond to offer and they don't have sufficient experience in this field. in the "Job fairs" of employment agencies the most deficient vacant positions are in the fields of civil engineering, repair ships, production of electronic and electrical components, engines, textiles and ready-made clothes, wholesale and retail, including from bakery.

Also, it is noted that, for people with higher education, a large number of faculties produce diplomas and specialists that nobody needs. Recruitment services know well how difficult are found jobs for graduates of faculties from: tourism, justice, European studies, public relations, management, public administration, psychology, sociology, philosophy or letters, because the structure of higher education is not directed to the labor market trends of today. The most popular specializations are: medicine, pharmacy, informatics, automatics, electronics, agriculture and foreign languages. in order not to spend the years of youth life, this educational and vocational orientation and selection process must be controlled on all levels of education. On graduation, to become independent, in addition attached to information acquired, any young person in which state and family have invested funds, time and labor, must have strong professional aptitudes. Unfortunately, this important section of juvenile education is not performed. As a proof, the complexity of modern

professional requests, nowadays, most graduates of any level, used to stay one more year at home, "to reorient themselves on the labor market". Others, in finding a job on the capacities, will spend many years of life. for example, in a study done in April 2014, by Samsung Electronics Company from Romania, in partnership with the Ministry of National Education, on a sample of approx. 4,000 secondary school students, between 14 years old and 19 years old, from 15 secondary schools in the cities of Timişoara, Arad, Oradea, Baia Mare, Bistriţa, in the top of most popular were the following careers: lawyers, 15,4% programmer 12.9%, actor 11.4%, computer system engineer 9.8%, surgeon 8.3%, business manager 8.2%, architect 5.5%, secondary school teacher 5.4%, medical psychologist 5.2%, cardiologist 4.7%. We note that these jobs have a liberal character.

But, with such trends, if we consider only this period of age, and those 700,000 unemployed persons already registered at the NEA, as relative are these estimates, about 30% of these young people will enter to the employment agencies, until the expiration of the legal period of three months after graduation. Due to the fact that in 2014 only about 130,000 young people have graduated secondary school, approx. 43,000 will be registered at county agencies for employment, so the minimum number of unemployed in Romania in December 2014 will be at least 743,000 of unemployed people in payment. To these estimates are also added other unemployed people because large steel companies are in recession. in 2014, Arcelor Mittal Combinates from Galati and Hunedoara proposed to employees going into voluntary unemployment. Other 300 layoffs were announced at Hunedoara Energy Complex. Slatina Aluminum Plant is at risk of closing.1,300 A total of 1300 employees were on technical unemployment for over two months to the Special Steel Plant in Targoviste. in the near future, either in chemical and petrochemical industry there will be no new jobs. in this section, an example represents the problems of blockage of company Oltchim SA Rm. Vâlcea, which extended for years, with large accumulations of debts to the state, without the perspective of a privatization of lack of buyers. Neither in the banking field there is no prospects for growth, because in 2014 many banks have closed subsidiaries. The only areas where there have been increases are in the automotive industry and high technology (IT). for example, in 2013, the IT sector had an increase of 4% compared to 2012. This is because Romania is the only country of European Union which does not tax salary incomes of employees in the respective fields. in the automotive sector, in the automotive industry, although in 2013 the Romanian automobile market has been stagnant to 2012, however, Romania stayed in first place in the European Union on automobile sales.

An insidious cause of unemployment with global effects, specified to the times of today, consists in the discrepancy between technological progress speed installation and training. Following this development, only during the last generation disappeared cinemas, using of landline phones was reduced (phones on the street have disappeared), the number of postal items have restricted, it was eliminated using telegraph, etc. These are only some surface aspects of the present technological revolution, the restrictions being in all economic sectors, from the field of the industrial chemistry to the activity of civil servants. The progress is motivated by the simple fact that instead of employees are preferred robotic services that can work day and night without vacation leaves, maternity, aso and not requiring the payment of additional taxes. On this subject, Carl Frey and Michael Osborne[1], in a study entitled ''The future of employment'', estimated that in the future decade, in Europe will greatly reduce the number of jobs, about 40-60%. in the opinion of these authors, regarding Romania, the reduction percentages of jobs reach 62%. The most affected are low-wage positions, which in fact are the most numerous. Therefore, it is necessary a new system of higher education, with focus on technology and automation sectors, to which today in Romania are lowest number of candidates for admission.

A cause of unemployment specific to Romania is the overcharge labor. in a European ladder points concerning contributions paid both employee and by employer, Romania is number six from 26 countries, with a percentage of 46.25%, being exceeded only by Netherlands, the Czech Republic, France, Poland and Albania. At the opposite pole of the Belgium League, United Kingdom and Ireland, where cumulative contributions do not exceed 30%. Higher taxation of work appeared after 1990, due to the explosive evolution of unemployment. The absence of active employment policies, with massive black employments, has led to decrease in the number of contributors in parallel with the rapid growth in the number of retired persons. in this situation, the governments' solution was only to increase social contributions. On the other hand, high percentages of labor taxation have restricted required liquidity for the establishment of new enterprises jobs, and the consumption by decreasing the purchasing power of the population, especially favored black labor growth. According to the estimations of some authors, in Romania their number reached about 3.4 million people[2].

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1 Carl Benedikt Frey and Michael Osborne, The future of employment: How susceptible are jobs to computerization ?, University of Oxford, 2013, în adresa: www.oxfordmartin.ox.ac.uk/downloads/academic/The Future of Employment.pdf

2 Liviu Voinea, Lucian Albu and collaborators: Informal Economy and its impact on the labor market, published on the internet address: http://www.scribd.com/doc/142168475/Economia-Informala-Si-Impactul-Ei-Asupra-Pietei-Muncii;

To underline on this subject, that in all electoral campaigns after 1990 was argued the necessity of "enlargement of the tax base" with principal respect to the creation of new jobs. This was not sufficiently achieved during any government

Another cause is the insufficiency of foreign and public investments, correlated with the existing unemployment and new jobs requirements. in 2013, although Romania has attracted foreign investments of 2,388 billion euros, increasing by 22.3% from 2012, however they were below the net capital inflow since 2008, when they recorded the highest values of 9,496 billion euros, after 1990 - see table no. 4.

Table no. 4

Net inflows foreign

direct investments

Source: National Bank

of Romania reports

Year	Billion euros
2008	9,496
2009	3,488
2010	2,220
2011	1,815
2012	2,138
2013	2,388

For example, in 2013 with the help of foreign investment could generate 6.157 jobs, but at a price down 13% compared to the previous year, when they generated 7.114 jobs. It should be noted that most of these investments take into consideration the privatization through sale of state companies such as: American Airlines Cargo, CFR, Romgaz, Transgaz, Hydro, Nuclear Electrica, Romtelecom and others. for a long time, these units were included in an agreement with the International Monetary Fund for the restructuring of enterprises, but with limited success until now.

Regarding public investment, the present minister delegate for the Budget, Mr. Liviu Voinea, at a meeting of the Commission for Social Dialogue dated 4 March 2014 said that the state investment projects for 2012 were 4.7 billion dollars from a total of 11 billion lei (about 2.5 billion euros), and in 2013 this was of 6 billion lei from a total of about 12 billion lei (about 2.7 billion euro) of the state budget. Basically, the top 20 public investment projects in 2013 are half of the investments in 2012. The duration of the projects is about 12 years, majority of the amounts being allocated for highways and infrastructure works. for example, in 2014, of public investment projects engaged, we can mention: completing the barrage of Constanta port for almost 200 million lei, Oradea airport modernization and the extension Drumul Taberei Subway - Pantelimon in Bucharest with 436 million lei allocated. The auction of this study was gained by companies Association Astaldi Spa -Italy, FCC - Spain, with Delta ACM and AB Construct companies in Romania. We remark that only for this work, Astaldi company doubled the staff in Bucharest to 400 employees in 2011, before work, at 870 employees in 2013, a total of 85% of employees being Romanian and 15% were brought in from Italy. Also, Also, constructors' wages were increased by 20-25% in all the associated companies.

But, the biggest investments deficit and of employments jobs is due to insufficient absorption of EU funds allocated to Romania, respectively 19,67 billion Euro and national co-financing (the State budget, local budgets and the private sector), of 9 billion euro for the period 2007-2013. But, in 2007-2013 to the present the absorption of EU funds was deeply deficient. for example, to the seven Operational Programmes, during the period from December 2008 - May 2009, Romania has submitted financing projects for three billion euro, of which were approved projects only one billion euro, but payments to beneficiaries were below 100 million euros. The percentage of absorption was under 5%.

At the end of September 2013, Romania managed to make reimbursements only for 64 million euro compared to 195 million euro, sum that it had be reimbursed by the European Commission. in august 2013, absorption rate of these funds was only 23.46%. Even with this increase, Romania is still last ranking countries in Europe. Subsequently, for the sums allocated for 2011 and 2012, the Romanian Government has made a proposal to accept the formula "n + 3", which was adopted by the Regional Committee of the European Parliament.

If the European Parliament will adopt this measure, then Romania will be able to spend the allocated funds of 2011 until 31 December 2014 and those ones allocated for 2012 will be able to spend up to 31 December 2015. in this way, the risk of losing EU funds will be reduced significantly. With all this development, Romania occupies the last place in the European rankings concerning absorption of funds, with a percentage of 37% at the end of 2013. in circumstances As compared

other countries such as Estonia, Portugal and Lithuania were able to absorb 78% of EU funds allocated in the budget year 2007-2013 - see table no.5.

Table no. 5 Absorption of EU funds between 2007 - 2013 and money received from EU Member States in the period 2014 – 2020, of the European Commission sources

Member States of the European Union	Sums allocated between 2007 – 2013 (thousands of euros)	Percentages paid by EC*	Sums allocated for 2014–2020 (thousands of euros)
Estonia	3.403	78	3590
Portugal	21.412	78	21.465
Lithuania	6.775	78	6.323
Ireland	751	70	1.139
Greece	20.210	69	15.522
Germany	25489	69	19235
Sweden	1.626	69	2.106
Poland	67.186	67	77.567
Luxembourg	50	66	60
Latvia	4.530	66	4.512
Finland	1.596	66	1.466
Austria	1.204	65	1.236
Spain	34.658	62	28.560
Slovenia	4.101	62	3.075
Netherlands	1.660	62	1.404
Belgium	2.064	59	2.284
Hungary	24.921	59	21.906
France	13449	58	15.353
Cyprus	612	57	736
United Kingdom	9.891	56	11.840
Denmark	510	54	553
Czech Republic	26.526	50	21.983
Malta	840	49	725
Italy	27.958	49	32.823
Bulgaria	6674	49	7.588
Slovakia	11.498	48	13.992
Romania	19.213	37	22.994

* Includes sums paid by EC as pre-financing and reimbursement

Insufficient use of EU funds comes from multiple causes that need separate analysis. It should be noted that until 2013 by using only 37% of the 19.67 billion euro, allocated to Romania, resulting a remaining sum of euro 12.39 billion it could not be capitalize. Such great losses of funds occur in other areas. We refer to ,,black job" with fiscal evasion in this area. It is noted that for a population of 20 million inhabitants,, only 4.5 million are employed with legal papers, with an average salary of 1,700 lei per month (about 380 euro) which must support 5.4 million retirees and about 8.5 million children. There are areas where the percentage on ,,black job" is usually above 60%, such as: in in IT services, 63% in machinery and equipment repairing or 66% in civil engineering, which means that for employees concerned, employers do not pay any form of contribution to the state. Through other forms of tax evasion in 2014, Fiscal Council calculated that only losses to the state budget by not paying taxes on the added value are about 72 billion lei.

Other causes regarding unemployment are income polarization and corruption, that expanded on a large scale. in only 24 years of liberal economy, Romania has the most millionaires and billionaires in RON, USD or EUR that it ever had in its history. in contrast, 90% of the population the average wage is 1,700 lei per month, with 900 lei minimum wage. in 24 years also developed the steepest downward trend in of the population of 20 million inhabitants, meaning it had in 1968. Imbalances are extended not only between rich and poor, they became visible also between regions because 10 of the 42 counties of this country, produces 70% of Romania businesses and have 80% of employees. in this respect, our opinion is not like "millionaires and billionaires down", but how can they be capitalized their resources in national interest.

Note that if you collect all sums that are lost daily basis, only from insufficient absorption of EU funds, of fiscal evasion and from the undeclared work, their total is of 10 times higher than the foreign and public investments in the last 5 years, which shows that the real resources of our country to eradicate unemployment are internal and not external.

Obviously, the question is whether this recession will be unlock, the answer can be only an affirmative one because in the recent Romanian history we can record large economic boom phases, both in the interwar period and in that postwar, performed on completely different socio-political principles. But this subject we'll debate in a future study.

The Role of Music in The Shadow Play "Hacivat and Karagöz"

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Abstract

The shadow play Hacivat and Karagöz has become an important part of the Traditional Turkish Theatre continuing for centuries. The existing shadow play which still preserves its popularity has become a significant entertainment tool for people. According to the local features of the performed characters and the content of the topic, this art type carried out by reflecting on a screen specially designed puppets from behind a lightened curtain and by playing with the voice of the performer has various music types and its instruments, especially Turkish folk music and Turkish classical music. in this study, within the play, the role of the music which is thought to form an important part of the shadow play was researched and the music and instruments used were analysed. The effect and role of the music within the play was particularly tried to be put forward.

Keywords: The Role of Music, The Shadow Play, Hacivat and Karagöz

Introduction

Shadow play is based on the projection of shadows of puppets, which are made up of leather,on a white curtain by light coming from their behind. Karagöz curtain is generally made of cotton batiste and has flowers on the edges. Besides, behind the curtain and on the ground are shelves called destgah on which candles are placed. Puppetsare moved by using 60 cm sticks. The action of playing these puppets is called el peşrevi. Some pictures, relevant or irrelevant to the show, are reflected on the curtainbefore the play, and these are called göstermelik.Karagöz figures are composed of figurative drawings based on abstraction. The dominating colors are red on Karagöz and green on Hacivat figure. There are no decorations on Karagözcurtain as an indication of the setting. Therefore,the existence of a setting is figured out only by the words of puppets or sometimes by little descriptions symbolizing the setting. Karagöz is always on the right side of the curtain and Hacivat is on the left. If there are other characters to be used in the play, they enter and leave the curtain from the left side where Hacivat stays. in accordance with their appearances, places like tents, mountains, rocky or bare lands and fields are situated on Karagöz's side and houses and places of more luxury are placed on Hacivat's side. Karagöz figures are called puppets. They are generally made of calf, cattle or buffalo leather. Puppets are produced by an old hand journeyman or by Karagözcü, a puppeteer in the play, himself. Karagöz puppeteers are generally a crew of five people. Among Karagöz puppeteers areHayali or Hayalbaz(meaning image creator), who is the master puppeteer, Çırak, the helper of the master puppeteer, Hayali, Sandıkkar, the assistant of Çırak, Yardak, who sings songs and Dayrezen, who plays tambourine (Tekerek, 2008). Shadow play is a kind of art indigenous to eastern cultures and there is different information relating its origin in various sources. in one source, it is stated that it first appeared in China before Christ, and according to another source, it originated in India and passed to Java in the 4th and 5th centuries and spread from Java to the western world. There is no definite knowledge about when shadow play technique is adopted and performed by the Turkish society. According to one belief, it is transferred to Mongolians by the Chinese, then to Turks, and then, in parallel with the direction of the Turkish military excursions, to the West. There are different rumors about when this technique came into existence in Turkish Folk Culture. The most common of these beliefs is that it took place during the construction of UluCami (the Grand Mosque)during the reign of Sultan Orhan between 1324 and 1362. The laborers who took part in the construction of the mosque gathered around Ironmaster Kambur Bali Çelebi(Karagöz) and bricklayer HalilHacıİvaz(Hacivat), both of whom worked in the construction, in order to listen to their cheerful conversation, causing the construction to slow down. Informed about the situation, Sultan got both of them executed. But, later on, Sultan regretted getting them killed and felt so sorry for them that in order to cheer Sultan up and comfort him, ŞeyhKüşteritook off his headwear, called sarık, which is like a curtain,lit a candle behind it to create shadows, took of his çarıks, a kind of sandal worn in those days, and animated the figures of Karagöz and Hacivatbehind the curtain and repeated their cheerful conversation. From that day on, Karagöz and Hacivat plays started to be performed in different squares. Today, Karagöz curtain is called ŞeyhKüşteri square and he is accepted as the father of Karagöz Shadow Play. According to Metin And, shadow play entered Anatolia after Yavuz Sultan Selim, who conquered Egypt in 1517 and got Tumanbay, a Mameluk Sultan, executed on Roda Island on the Nile River, watched an imagecreator who depicted the execution on a curtain, and brought him to Istanbul wishing his son

Kanuni Sultan Süleyman see the performance. Turks took the shadow projection technique behind the curtain from Egypt at the beginning of the 16th century. At first, since there were some irrelevant scenes to each other in Egyptian plays, the same practice was applied in the first Turkish shadow plays. Moreover, there are not any certain characters in Egyptian shadow plays. Therefore, Hacivat and Karagöz's names are not mentioned a lot with the 16th century. Turkish creativity was added to this new play in time, then, a very colorful and dynamic form was given to it, and after the play took its final form, it spread the areas within the influence area of the Ottoman Empire. This is how shadow play returned back to Egypt, where it originated, in this new form. As a matter of fact, many travelers, while describing the shadow game in Egypt in the 19th century, stated that it was Karagöz shadow game and it was brought to Egypt by Turks and performed mainly in Turkish (And, 1985).

In the works of some Islamic Sufis, the image curtain is likened to the World, and human beings and other living creatures are likened to temporary images on the curtain. It is told that an invisible creator moves all the creatures in the universe just like the puppeteer behind the curtain moving the images in the play. There are many documents that show how prevalent shadow play is and that it is one of the most important Ottoman entertainment arts. According to the information gathered from local writers', such as EvliyaÇelebiand Naima, works, and journals and travel books of Europeans who had been in Istanbul in that era, these plays, which were performed in cafes in Ramadan and at homes, palaces and residences during special occasions such as marriage, birth and circumcision ceremonies, were among the major entertainments ofthe Ottoman society. Moreover, it is possible to see in local and foreign sources that shadow plays were among the favorite entertainment of the Ottoman Palace and public meetings in the 19th century. According to these local sources, during Sultan Mahmut II's reign, Karagöz shadow plays were performed in eleven different places at nights during the circumcision ceremonies of his sons. Also, some Karagöz puppeteers were allowed to MızıkayıHümayunduring Sultan Abdülaziz and Abdülhamit II's time (Kudret, 1970). Thanks to its flexible structure, Karagöz and Hacivat shadow plays, which were open to improvisation and dealing with current events,became the most important means of satire of its time. Although not yet popular as they were before, Karagöz and Hacivat plays, which have always been popular throughout history, have lost their potency considerably due to the introduction of theatres, cinema and television one after another with the effects of technological developments.

Method

in this study, a descriptive method has been used in order to reveal the role of music in Karagöz and Hacivat Shadow Play.

According to Karasar (1982), descriptive method is a research which describes an event or a situation taking place in the past or today as it really is.

Findings

in this part of the study, sources and previous researches on the subject have been examined, discussed by combining them with expert opinions, and interpreted.

Our country has a rich folk theatre culture. Our own music has an important place in Karagöz and Hacivat Shadow Play, which is the most noticeable example of this culture. Karagöz and Hacivat Music was examined as a separate subjectfor the first time in the book KaragözMusikisi(Karagöz Music), published by Ministry of Culture Publications, by EtemRuhiÜngör in 1989. It has never been the subject of research in any books published on the subject. However, music used in Karagöz and Hacivat plays has gained a distinctive identity and created a typical type of humor music. in the book written by Üngör, the study of Karagöz Music in terms of musicology can be regarded as the first attempt on the subject. According to the results obtained from this study, it is observed that Turkish music is used with all of its features and diversity in Karagöz and Hacivat Shadow Play.

With its compositions, Ağır(Heavy)Semaisi, Yürük(Turkish Nomads)Semaisi, Peşrev(Overtures), Saz(Instrument)Semaisi,Köçekler, Folk songs and Songs, Karagöz music includes all forms of Turkish Music, and, hence, becomes an inseparable part of the play. We can add our characteristic styles, unsystematic beats, to the previous group. for instance, in one of the Karagöz plays, KanlıKavak(Bloody Popler), drum is played with 5, 7 and 9 beat style, and in another play, Tahmis(Extension),Arab's playing the drum with 7 beat style and BebeRuhi's playing it with 9 beat style can be given as an example to unsystematic beats. Moreover, Apart from the folk songs of Anatolia and Rumelia, Arabic and Jewish songs related to the play, tunes indigenous to Greek and Armenian culture, and Western musical forms such as Valse, Polka, and Opera Arias were used when needed. According to Üngör (1989), texts, which gain a different characteristic and depend generally on humor and philosophy, and the compositions, made parallel to these texts, create

a special music style. Therefore, this music style can be called Karagöz music. It is observed that the accessible repertoire of Karagöz music is related more to the 19th and 20th century Turkish music. When Karagöz music is studied, it is seen that it is set up on a triple pattern composed of Semai, Gazel(Ode), and Hayal(Imaginary) Songs.

 Semai: It is one of the small forms of Turkish Art Music (Say, 1992). It carries three meanings in music. The first of these is that it is the name of a triple time and triple beat music style. There are four songns, called Semai, which are among the songs mentioned in the research of Üngör and among the first songs performed at the beginning of the play and have notes and records. The singer of these first songs in the play is Hacivat. Unlike other imaginary songs, only the introduction and chorus parts of Semais are played and sung (Üngör, 1989).

 Gazel: It is a form which is played spontaneously like Taksim(Improvisation)in Turkish Art Music. Lyrics are generally chosen among the poems in the form of Gazel. It doesn't have a style. It is independent and without pattern. Exclamations such as 'ah, of, aman, eyyar etc.(exclamations of mourning in Turkish culture)' which express sorrow amog lyrics (Say, 1992). The music of Gazelhan(gazel singer)gains value with his knowledge and talent. There haven't been any indications of Gazel forms' existence among Hacivat and Karagöz texts. Gazels,which have been performed in a mode up till now, are now being sung like plain texts due to the lack of Karagöz Puppeteers' musical knowledge and Gazel singing skills. Unlike Semai sung by Hacivat, PerdeGazel is performed by Karagöz (Üngör,1989).

 Imaginary Songs: Unlike Semai and Gazel, they present a variety. Generally, they are composed of songs and folk songs. Although they make up most of the plays, half of them have disappeared today. Though repeated in some plays, imaginary songs vary by plays. The repeated ones have been special imaginary songs of Karagöz characters. According to the research conducted by Üngör, the most repeated song among imaginary songs is 'Nice sevmeyeyimdostlarbiracayipdilivar(she has such a good tone, how can't I fall in love with her?)' composed by SeyyitNuh, a 17th century composer and in Şehnazmode. Moreover, according to the same research, among the repertoire of 211 songs, 61 songs by Hacivat, the leading singer, 55 by Çelebi, 43 by Zenne, and 26 by Karagöz. in addition, when Karagöz music is studied in terms of mode, the most used songs and their modes are, from the most to the least, 21 songs in Hicazmode, 13 songs in Uşşakmode, 12 songs in Rastmode, 10 songs in Hüseynimode, 10 songs in Nihavendmode. Apart from these, examples of Muhayyerkürdiand other modes of Turkish music were used in plays.

 The instruments used in Karagöz Shadow Play can be divided into two categories as 'instruments on the curtain' and 'instruments behind the curtain'. Instruments on the curtain are the instrument used in Classical Turkish music such as bağlama(an instrument with three double strings), KaradenizKemençesi (a three string instrument like violin indigenous to the Black Sea region of Turkey), drum, clarion, kabak (a three string instrument like bağlama,but held vertically when played), clarinet and tambourine (http: //turkgolge. sitemynet. Com). Also, cymbal, tong with cymbals and nakkare (a small kettle drum used in mehter music)are used as curtain instruments. The most important instrument used behind the curtain is tambourine. The use of tambourine is a tradition for Hacivat and Karagöz Puppeteers. There aren't any plays in which tambourine isn't used. Because it has an important role especially in the fights of Hacivat and Karagöz, in expressing the jokes, and in the entries and exits of characters, tambourine is seen as an inseparable part of the play.

 Besides, in order to contribute to the research, an interview has been carried out with Hayali Nevzat Çiftçi, who still performs shadow plays in Bursa, who produces Hacivat and Karagöz puppets, and who is also a master of shadow play figures and puppets, regarding Karagöz music. in the interview, Çiftçi's opinions about Karagöz music have been the main topic. He has stated that Karagöz music is a contentful and a special kind of music with its own characteristics, and that a Hacivat and Karagöz play cannot be thought of without music, and that music plays a crucial role in the play. His remarks have been found quite important for the research.

Conclusion and Discussion

 As a result of this research, it is found out that the number of written sources is very limited and the performers of this play do it voluntarily and there are very few of them. According to the information, gathered from a couple of sources that could be reached and, and the information and documents taken from Hacivat and Karagöz Museum in Bursa, music occupies an important placein Hacivat and Karagöz Shadow Play and is an indispensable part of plays.The plays also give place to many kinds of music, mainly Turkish music. It is found out that music types,especially, which reflect the features of characters and are related to the theme of the plays are used. It is observed that all the instruments used in front of and behind the curtain are the instruments used in Turkish Folk Music and Turkish Art Music and there aren't any instruments, but tambourine in today's plays, and even the music is played by CD playersand computers today. Even though the number of puppeteers and audience decreased significantly, shadow plays have reached the present day by the efforts of volunteers. Technological advancements shouldn't be regarded as the reason for decrease in the popularity of Karagöz

plays which run the risk of extinction and are among the most important pieces of Traditional Turkish Theatre. The westernization attempts starting from the 17th century showed their effects in the 20th century, the tradition of improvisation, the most important feature of traditional Turkish theatre, was given up, written texts as in the western theatre replaced it. Karagöz plays, dependent on written texts, couldn't keep up with the age and the cultural developments in human life as no more plays were written, presentation of the same plays repeatedly wasn't able to attract the attention of the public. Karagöz plays can be as prestigious and common as it used to be only if the tradition of improvisation is used once again. Otherwise, Karagöz plays, which are performed by a handful of puppeteers, will end up with extinction in the pages of history books in the next decades. The most important responsibility for the preservation and presence of Hacivat and Karagöz, an important cultural value of our country's culture, is on the Ministry of Culture and institutions of art education. The establishment of Departments of Traditional Turkish Theatre within the Conservatories and Faculties of Fine Arts will make these plays contemporary and increase the number of specialists in the field. in addition, the number of people who think that people who are keen on these plays should be supported by the state will increase. Especially, the increase in the number of museums like Karagöz House supported by the metropolitan municipality of Bursa, the continuous performances in these places and opening courses for interested individuals will carry this form of art to future generations and stop its disappearance.

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"Three Wedding Pitchers" in The Museum of The Romanian Peasant

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Abstract

Traditional peasant crafts are exhibited in the Museum of the Romanian Peasant (Museul Târanului Român) located in Bucharest, capital of Romania. There is a group of ceramic works used as "wedding gifts" among the ceramic works exhibited in this museum. These works are stoneware, glazed, decorated ceramic works which can be called peasant crafts. These ceramic works do not bear only the local, national characteristics of Romania in terms of format, decoration and glazing, but also the ceramic characteristics of the Balkans. Examination of these works has revealed some close-far similarities with many ceramic works produced in Canakkale in the same period. The "horse-headed winged" pitchers, registered under the inventory numbers C2435, C11917, C11918, resemble significant similarities with Canakkale ceramics of the same type. There are three known representative samples of this type in Romania. According to the reviews by Dr. Georgio Rosu, an art historian who has conducted researches on these ceramics, these are the ceramics made in the Curtea de Arges region of Romania.

 Examination of the Romanian representative samples that contain significant visual similarities with the types of "horse-headed winged-neck" of Canakkale Ceramics causes the illusion that these ceramics might have been made in Canakkale. However, we understand that these are the Romanian ceramics made in the Curtea de Arges region when we check dates and places of making of them. Technical and detailed examinations of these ceramics reveal differences in applied decorating techniques, decorating arrangements and in the field of use of glazing comparing to Canakkale ceramics. To date, it was known that "horse-headed winged" pitchers had been made only in Canakkale in the 19th century and there had not been their precedents in our country. However, the relevant finding in Romania reveals the result of interaction of these forms which are very similar to those made in different countries in the same period.

Keywords: Tradition, traditional craft ceramics. Canakkale Ceramics, Horse-Headed Canakkale Ceramics.

Introduction

Canakkale Ceramics first appeared at the end of the 17th century, and have managed to survive in a time course that extends to the present day and have taken their place in the art history (Öney 1971). Canakkale has been an important ceramics centre during the Ottoman era. Canakkale Ceramics reached out the entire territory of the Ottoman Empire during that period. It is known that these ceramics have been exported to the Eastern Mediterranean, the Aegean Islands, Egypt, Syria, Tripoli, Greece and other coastal cities of the Mediterranean by ships (Pekşen 2008) It is known that there were 24 ceramic shops, 9 ceramic workshops and 58 people, mainly Turks, working in this field in the early 19th century (Güler 2008). Canakkale ceramics are original in terms of their forms, decorations, production techniques and decoration methods and styles. Canakkale ceramics have taken their place in our art history and in the world ceramic history due to their originality. There are several samples of this type of ceramics in numerous museums in Turkey, as well as the world's most important museums, such as Sevre Museum in 1845, Victoria Albert Museum in 1885 and Benaki. The current position of Canakkale ceramics, collected by a large number of domestic and overseas collectors, is long way off its position in the beginning of the 19th century. The traditional Canakkale Ceramics art which has been losing its important from the period of division, collapse of the Ottoman Empire as a result of the First World War is currently in the process of fading away. Although researches have been conducted from the nineteen seventies, no adequate information about the background of Canakkale ceramics has been reached. This study, named "Horse-Headed Winged Pitchers", aims at contributing to these researches. The Horse-Headed Winged Pitchers are one of the types of Canakkale-style ceramics. It is Prof. Dr Gönül Öney who has conducted the first research on the Canakkale Ceramics and published the results of this research with a book named "Turkish Period Canakkale Ceramics". Prof. Dr. Gönül Öney mentions of horse-headed winged pitchers under the heading "Horse-Headed on Mouth, Winged on Neck, Free Standing and Pot-Bellied Pitchers" in page 11 of this book (Öney 1971) She says that these ceramics, 35-50 cm, 25-35 cm in diameter, date back to the end of the 19th century and early of the 20th century and look like unappealing statues rather than pitchers. According to the description of these horse-headed pitchers by Prof. Dr. Gönül Öney, mouth of the pitchers has the shape of a horse head. The pitchers have a nozzle

to pour out fluid materials inside. The pitchers are horse-necked, and have wings at either side of the horse neck. Wings overlook the front, wing tips overlook above and have the shape of a leaf. Two legs of the horse stand out forward by curving from the same line of wings. Hooves are mostly assembled with the body and are open toward the front in some samples. The horse figure has even a curb. The pitchers are decorated in a style which we may call baroque, with a tulip flower-shaped component on both sides to put candles on the body; a circle frame consisted on an embossed flower branch and leave like a wreath under the wings and on the side of the neck; an emblem, eagle or flower, bird motif on the front part of the body; rosettes, leaves, several embossing on the other sides of the body. Handle of the pitcher has the shape of a horse tail, and filling mouth of the pitcher is on the upper joint of the handle.(Öney 1971)
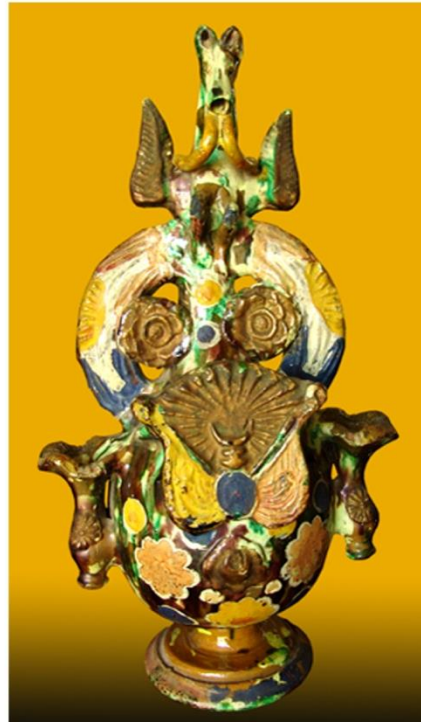
Picture: 1   Picture: 2

The emblem or eagle motif, placed on the front and mostly middle of the body, bears an intellectual or spiritual meaning in general. Pictures 6 and 7 demonstrate an emblem symbolizing the Christianity. Other samples of the emblem which apparently was made for non-Muslim buyers is seen as an Ottoman Emblem in Picture 2. Some of the emblems are placed a mirror in the middle and made to allow for placing a mirror in the middle. The space in the middle of the eagle-shaped emblem in Picture 1 is left for this purpose. The emblems are attached as larger than other motifs to the front of the tumid body which is the most powerful point of the entire figure. They are mostly attached with an additional part with the aim of ensuring them to be seen upright from the front. Picture 6 shows a side view of the emblem. The main body is usually pear-shaped. The lower part is wide and tapers towards the upper part, thus creates the horse head. The pitcher's stand is connected to the pear-shaped body with a neck component. The stand is wide enough to keep the main body in balance. Neck of the stand can be sometimes short and long. Shape of the stand, the part where the stand comes into contact should be wide, and the part where the stand is assembled with the pear-shaped body should be narrow. Decoration techniques of the samples represent decoration practices, such as pasting wet clay (appliqué), priming, glazing, under-glaze, cold ceramic paint and on-glaze with gilts, commonly applied to all type of Canakkale Ceramics. Colour applications are mostly exaggerated as with the decorations as well. Colours applied to Canakkale Ceramics in the 19th century are rich in terms of variety comparing to colours applied Canakkale Ceramics from the period of the end of the 17th century and the 18th century (Öney1971) Differences in shape, product and decoration richness are also seen in colours used.

Colours, such as olive green, bottle green, chrome yellow, rust colour, purplish brown, brown, yellow ochre, white, brick red, were used in under-glaze coating, glazing and on-glaze decorations with various colours and gilts (Laura 2000) .

Picture: 3

Picture: 4

Picture: 6

Picture: 7

Organic, raw paints and gilts were often used for on-glaze painting applications applied to Canakkale Ceramics and Horse Head Ceramics. Hence, these paints are seen to flake off in the samples survived to date. Pictures 1, 2, 3 and 4 demonstrate applications of shapes, decorations and descriptions explained above. We see that all decoration applications of the Canakkale Ceramics have been applied to the Canakkale "Horse-Headed Pitchers". Although single colour, glazing techniques were applied less in colouring applications, under-glaze colouring and on-glaze decorations were used very often.

The above disclosures describe typical characteristics, known samples of the "Horse-Headed Pitchers" of Canakkale Ceramics and information obtained from data of researchers who have conducted researches in this field. Similarities with and differences from the "Horse-Headed Pitcher" ceramics, exhibited in the Museum of the Romanian Peasant (Museul Târanului Român) located in Bucharest, capital of Romania, and with three known samples available, are identified below.

Forms of the "Horse-Headed Pitchers", exhibited in the Museum of the Romanian Peasant (Museul Târanului Român) located in Bucharest, capital of Romania, are pear-shaped and pot-bellied as with their precedents in Canakkale. Mouth part of the Romanian pitchers is in the shape of a horse head. Their wings are on both sides of the head, and the wings have the same form, direction and are positioned in where the horse's neck is assembled with the body as with the Canakkale samples. The handle also creates the horse's tail. The horse's legs are assembled with the body in one of the samples, while they are open toward the front in the other two samples. These pitchers are consistent with their precedents in Canakkale. Flower or candle holders are placed on both sides of the body. Emblems are placed in the most striking part of the body as larger than other motifs as in their precedents in Canakkale. The stands show very close similarities with the Canakkale samples in Pictures 8 and 9. Decorations are made using the technique of pasting over wet clay as in the Canakkale samples. The colour used in these pitchers shows similarity with the sample made in single-colour which is rare in the Canakkale samples. Pictures 11-12

Picture: 8   Picture: 9   Picture: 10

Picture:11   Picture:12

Differences of the "Horse-Headed Pitchers", exhibited in the Museum of the Romanian Peasant (Museul Târanului Român) located in Bucharest, capital of Romania, from their precedents in Canakkale: The horses on the Romanian pitchers are without curbs, and the handle does not resemble the samples in the Canakkale Ceramics at all. The flower or candle holders are placed in the most tumid point and lower part of the body in the Canakkale samples. However, these flower or candle holders are positioned in a higher point where the neck is assembled with the body in the Romanian samples. Motifs, such as wreaths, flowers, leaves, branches, on the neck which we see in the Canakkale "Horse-Headed Pitcher" samples are not applied because candle holders are placed close to their necks. Emblems are applied to the body by pasting in all of the three samples, they cannot be seen upright from the front. in the sample in Picture 10,, there is no neck on the stand of the pitcher. The stand is created using a protruding excess and is wide. Such a stand example is not known in the Canakkale samples. The decoration techniques are the same with the Canakkale ceramics. However, as we see in each of the three samples, these pitchers are free from exaggeration unlike the Canakkale Ceramics. It is seen that under-glaze priming and on-glaze decorations are not applied to the Romanian samples of the "Horse-Headed Pitcher".

METHOD

Similarities of the Turkish "Horse-Headed Pitchers" with the Romanian "Horse-Headed Wedding Pitchers" have attracted our attention, and reasons of these similarities have been investigated. References in Romania and images of the pitchers in the Museum of the Romanian Peasant (Museul Târanului Român) are discussed and compared with the references and visual materials in Turkey. This paper aims at identifying similarities and differences of these samples. Findings are given in the results section.

CONCLUSION

"Horse-Headed Pitchers" a type of ceramic of the Canakkale Ceramics, is one of the type emerged in the 19 th century. There are very significant differences between Canakkale Ceramics from the period of the end of the 17th century and the 18th century and Canakkale Ceramics from the 19th century in terms of significant style and quality change. Traces of the tradition of the 18th century Canakkale Ceramics are vanishingly less comparing to the Canakkale Ceramics from the period of the 19th century. Prof. Dr.Gönül Öney explains this situation saying that "We cannot associate these ceramics with the traditional Anatolian forms, motifs. These ceramics contain unusual, bizarre characteristics incorporated with inspirations from Europe (Öney 1992) Page 175 of the section entitled "Canakkale Traditional Art" of the Catalogue named "The Grandeur of Ottoman Ceramics", published by Suna-Inan Kıraç Research Institute on Mediterranean Civilizations, mentions that Canakkale Ceramics began to be exhibited in the European museums from the 19th century and that there were several Canakkale-type ceramics exhibited in the Sèvres National Ceramic Museum in France. It is also mentioned that there were ceramics from other regions of the Ottoman Empire (such as Anatolia, Rumelia, the Balkans, Romania,

etc.) and strikingly resembled the Canakkale Ceramics(The Grandeur 2000).No research on interactions of Canakkale Ceramics, investigated from 1971, in the Aegean islands, Greece, Rumeli, the Balkans and Romania has ever been conducted, neither a serious publication published focusing on such interactions. There are significant evidences indicating interaction. It is possible to encounter samples of the Romanian Horse-Headed Pitchers, exhibited in the Museum of the Romanian Peasant (Museul Târanului Român), or the wedding gift pitchers, as said in the Romanian culture, in other countries in the region. No reference indicating that the Romanian ceramics show similarities with the Canakkale Ceramics in Turkey has been found either. This article concludes that no awareness has been reached so far between the two countries on the similar traditional ceramic works (horse-headed ceramics and wedding gift ceramics).

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CATALOGUE

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PICTURES:

1, 2, 3, 4by Erdinç BAKLA

5, 6 by Katepina KOPPE.

8, 9, 10by Georgeta ROŞU.

11, 12by Selahattin PEKŞEN.

IDENTIFYING PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS' PERCEIVED COMPETENCE AND NECESSITY REGARDING IMPLEMENTATION OF ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT METHODS AND THEIR FREQUENCY OF USE

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Abstract:

This study aimed at finding out secondary school physical education teachers' overall perception and perceived competence regarding implementing of alternative assessment methods along with frequency of using them. Study participants were comprised of 142 physical education teachers from state schools in Trabzon province during the 2012-2013 education–instruction year. "Teacher Competency" questionnaire developed by Banoğlu (2008) was used. The five-item scale is comprised of four parts. Part one includes demographic data about participants, part two is about "teachers' overall perceptions regarding implementation of alternative assessment methods" (not necessary-quite necessary), part three includes "teachers' perceived competence regarding alternative assessment methods" (unsatisfactory-very satisfactory), and the last part is about "frequency of teachers' using alternative assessment methods (neverquite often)". Data analysis was done at significance level of 0.05 by using "SPSS for WINDOVS 20". in data analysis, frequency, percentage and arithmetic mean were calculated from participants' responses in all of the three parts. Arithmetic mean range was calculated with the logic of 5 columns and 4 ranges. Value of each range was found as 4/5=0,8. Arithmetic mean for teachers' overall perceptions regarding using of alternative assessment methods was found as X= 3.17. According to teachers, alternative assessment methods are moderately necessary as seen from range values obtained from the questionnaire. Portfolio (x=26.1) was found to be the leading alternative assessment method teachers consider not necessary. It was followed by(x=20.4) concept maps. As for the methods considered rarely necessary; performance task (x=17.6) and peer assessment (x=12.7) were found. Under moderately necessary methods, project (x=22.5) and group assessment (x=26.1) were found. Check list (x=49.3) and self assessment (x=43) were listed as necessary methods. Lastly, quite necessary methods were reported as rubric (x=21.1) and check lists (x=14.8). It was understood that mostly teachers regard themselves competent about alternative assessment methods (x=3.53). They find themselves incompetent mainly in relation with concept maps (3.16) and portfolios (x=3.30). The teachers regard themselves competent about check lists, rubric, project, performance tasks, peer assessment, self assessment and group assessment (3.42-4.22). The study revealed that teachers mostly use alternative assessment methods at moderate level (x=3.06). Performance task was found the most frequently used method (x=3.41). It could be inferred from range degrees in questionnaires that according to overall mean of frequency of teachers' using alternative assessment methods (x=3.06), the frequency is low (2,62-3.41). Thus, it could be suggested "frequency of teachers' using alternative assessment methods is mostly not at desired level".

Key words: Alternative assessment methods, education-instruction

Introduction

Today rapidly developing science and technology affect not only science world but also entire of the social life and oblige introducing of new arrangements. As a part of this new paradigm, the phenomenon of education is brought into discussion again and seeking is ongoing for new things. in the face of all these changes, individuals are required to acquire new skills in order to adapt to community and improve. Rapid development of science and technology has also brought requestioning of the concept of education. Main concern of many countries in the information era has been bringing up individuals capable of reasoning, understanding, questioning, investigating, and solving problems.

New quest is sought for a more effective process of education and instruction. Education systems bringing up individuals with conditioned and stereotyped minds lag behind contemporary developments. Those educated with traditional mentality cannot keep up with developments in science and technology or contribute to overall development of their country. The countries which realize that situation have already started questioning their education systems and practices. Departing point for such questioning is how to educate human beings who can access to, use and produce information (Güneş, 2007).

With an eye to harmonize Turkish National Education System with changing conditions of the era, Head Council of Education and Morality of National Education Ministry implemented restructured primary and secondary education curricula based on universal approaches such as "life-long learning" and "learning to learn" within the framework of curriculum

development. As a result of this implementation, the theoretical background of Turkish curricula switched from a rigid behaviourist approach towards constructivism (MEB, 2005).

In this scope, new curricula of Classroom Teaching Programs and Mathematics, Science and Technology, Turkish, Social Studies, Information Technologies, Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge, Physical Education, Visual Arts, English and Music were developed covering the first five grades of elementary education as well as Mathematics, Language and Expression, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Information and Communication Technologies, Religious Culture and Moral Knowledge, Turkish Literature and English for secondary level. Renewed curricula are built on the idea of educating citizens in a way to allow them to investigate, question, learn how to learn, and think creatively and critically (Yıldırım, 2006).

A number of approaches and implementations have come up in Turkey as a result of the constructivist approach along with newly developed curricula in effect since 2005. Similarly, within the context of implementing new approaches of learning-teaching techniques, new applications were introduced regarding redefining teacher and student roles and also determining learning objectives and learning levels.

As a part of the renewed curricula, assessment and evaluation requirement besides expectation from teachers changed as well. Result-oriented assessment and evaluation approach was replaced with process-oriented approach. As for philosophy of instruction, teacher-oriented instruction was replaced with student-oriented instruction. According to constructivist learning, students can learn to learn provided that they are actively involved in learning process and assess themselves within the process. Renewed elementary curricula include not only traditional assessment and evaluation methods but also alternative assessment methods for the learning process. for process assessment, also using of alternative assessment methods such as observation forms, performance tasks, project assignments, self assessment, and group and peer assessment.

The changes implemented in the curricula can bear a positive effect on the education system if they are implemented accurately and effectively. for ensuring this, the biggest responsibility falls onto teachers as practitioners. in this process, some studies found challenges during the implementation phase. The studies showed that capacity of teachers is low in relation with functioning of the renewed curricula and assessment and evaluation methods proposed by the program (Erdal, 2005, Çalık, 2007, Ören and Tatar 2007, Tabak, 2007, Gelbal and Kelecioğlu, 2007).

Physical education is one of the courses whose curriculum was renewed at secondary education level. Physical education lesson is an integral and complementary part of general education. According to objectives of the lesson and students' development features, physical education lesson helps students develop healthy, moral, happy and well-balanced personalities at both individual and social extent (Yılmaz and Gündüz, 2007). Main goal of teaching physical education is given in respective curriculum as follows; "to contribute to individuals' physical, psychomotor, cognitive, emotional and social development, and ensure their life-long participation in physical activities (MEB, 2005). To achieve this goal, students must be involved in gradual learning activities planned for learning by doing-living and must be aware of the extent of their achievement in the end of the activities. To put differently, learners need to be active participants in learning and assessment process. for effective implementation of the renewed curriculum for physical education, alternative assessment and evaluation methods could be useful for process evaluation besides traditional ones.

Objectives of physical education course in physical, psychomotor, cognitive, affective and social domains await measuring and assessing. Since learning objectives of the course cover various areas, teachers must have knowledge about, develop, use and assess different types of assessment and evaluation instruments.

According to Şirin, Yıldız, Mülazımoğlu and Erdoğdu (2007) study "Teachers' Views about New Elementary Physical Education Curriculum" launched in "2006-2007" academic year, physical education teachers find the level of practicality of the 6th grade physical education curriculum is "moderate" against sub-dimensions of "overall curriculum and general aims" and "objectives", while it is "low" for sub-dimensions of "teaching and learning process" and "assessment & evaluation".

In Yılmaz and Gündüz's (2007) study "Views of Physical Education Teachers in Ankara Central Elementary Schools about Implementation of Assessment and Evaluation Techniques", it was found that physical education teachers "do not employ at all" the approach of involving students in the process by means of self assessment, peer assessment and group assessment during measurement of student success. However, no study was found in the literature about physical education teachers' perceived competence and necessity regarding implementation of alternative assessment methods and their frequency of use.

To fill this research gap, this study was carried out to identify physical education teachers' perceived competence and necessity regarding implementation of alternative assessment methods and their frequency of use.

Method

Study Group

Study participants were comprised of 142 physical education teachers from state schools in Trabzon province during the 2012-2013 education–instruction year. The "Teacher Competency" questionnaire in five-item Likert type scale was used. The questionnaire comprised of four parts was implemented in order to find out physical education teachers' perception regarding necessity, sufficiency and frequency of alternative assessment methods.

Data and Collection

Data collection instrument was administered to physical education teachers working in secondary schools at a meeting convening all of the physical teachers from state schools in Trabzon. There are 254 physical education teachers at state secondary schools in Trabzon. Of those, 200 teachers could attend the meeting due to several reasons. 55 of the 200 questionnaires were left out of the study due to missing information. Data collection instrument was developed by Banoğlu (2009).

Data Analysis

Data analysis was done at significance level of 0.05 by using "SPSS for WINDOVS 20". in data analysis, frequency, percentage and arithmetic mean were calculated from participants' responses in all of the three parts. Arithmetic mean range was calculated with the logic of 5 columns and 4 ranges. So, the value of each range was found as 4/5=0,8.

Results

The aim of present study is to find out secondary school physical education teachers' overall perception and perceived competence regarding implementing of alternative assessment methods along with frequency of using them.

For the aim of this study, answer is sought for following research questions:

What is the level of teachers' overall perception regarding implementation of alternative assessment and evaluation methods?

What is the level of teachers' competence perception regarding implementation of alternative assessment and evaluation methods?

What is the teachers' frequency of using alternative assessment and evaluation methods?

Results were presented under respective sub-dimensions.

Results from the first sub-dimension of the study; what is the level of teachers' overall perception regarding implementation of alternative assessment and evaluation methods?

Overall arithmetic mean of participant teachers' perceived necessity of using alternative assessment and evaluation methods was found to be $\overline{X}$= 3.17. Also 49.3 % of the participants (n=70) find check lists necessary, while 8.5 % (n=129) think opposite. 20.4 % of the teachers don't think that using concept maps is necessary. Only 3.5 % of them regard it necessary. While 21.1 % of the participants find rubrics necessary, 12 % find unnecessary. for project assignments, 19 % of participants think it is needed, whereas 7.7 % have opposite views. Moreover, 4.2 % of the teachers have negative thoughts about performance assignments. 12 %, 10.6 % and 12.7 % of the teachers regard unnecessary alternative methods of self assessment, group assessment and peer assessment, respectively. Lastly, the use of student portfolios is regarded necessary by 9.9 % only.

What is the level of teachers' competence perception regarding implementation of alternative assessment and evaluation methods?

It was seen that mostly teachers regard themselves competent about alternative assessment methods (x=3.53). The teachers' highest competence score was obtained from methods such as check lists (x=3.67), self assessment, group assessment (x=3.65), performance tasks (x=3.60) and project assignments (x=3.53), while the lowest competence was found in relation with concept maps (x=3.16) and portfolios (x=3.30). The scores of concept maps and portfolio remained below average. It can be said that teachers perceive themselves competent moderately on these methods.

What is the teachers' frequency of using alternative assessment and evaluation methods?

The study revealed that teachers mostly use alternative assessment methods at moderate level (x=3.06). Performance task (x=3.41) and rubric (x=3.29) were found to be the most frequently used methods, while lowest frequency was found with concept maps (x=2.45) and portfolio (x=2.59). Also frequency of peer assessment (x=3.19), group assessment (x=3.21) and self assessment (x=3.12) methods was above average.

Discussion

Teachers' perception regarding necessity of implementing alternative methods ranged between quite necessary-not necessary at all. Rubrics and check lists were reported as quite necessary methods. As for the methods regarded less necessary, they were found as concept maps, portfolios and performance tasks. The participants could have responded under negative influence of insufficiency of topics suitable for assessment via concept maps, difficulty of preparing and grading them and lack of samples. Furthermore, the teachers could have had relatively negative perceptions regarding portfolios due to the lack of instruction and examples about them.

It is interesting that teachers consider performance assignment unnecessary and rarely use them. Teachers are familiar with that method due to its similarity with homework. in this study, teachers' perception regarding necessity of alternative assessment and evaluation methods was found to be "moderately necessary" against average values. This finding seems in parallel with Çalık's (2007) finding "teachers regard assessment and evaluation process in renewed curriculum" and Banoğlu's (2009) finding "Computer technology teachers consider alternative assessment and evaluation methods on renewed curriculum". On the other hand, Şirin et al. (2007) found "teachers have negative attitude towards assessment and evaluation methods under assessment and evaluation sub-dimension of new curriculum". in addition, Doğan and Kutlu (2007) revealed that both teachers and students are not qualified in new assessment and evaluation methods, which affects their perceptions regarding use of them negatively. in our study, it was seen that teachers regard themselves competent about alternative assessment methods. The result seems contradictory with Çakan (2004)'s finding "Secondary school teachers (Physical Education, Painting, Music, Turkish Language, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, etc.,) perceive themselves less competent than their elementary school peers in assessment and evaluation".

According to our study, teachers perceive themselves most competent in check lists, self assessment, group assessment, performance task and project assignment; whereas they have the lowest perception regarding concept maps and portfolios. This seems similar to the findings by Erdal (2005) "teachers are incompetent in using concept maps", Ören and Tatar (2007) "teachers use concept maps the least". Also it was seen that teachers often use alternative assessment methods at moderate level. This finding is also in parallel with Şirin et al.'s (2007) finding "teachers use alternative assessment methods at a certain extent" and Tabak (2007)'s finding "teachers do not use them sufficiently". The highest frequency of use was found with performance task and rubric, the lowest frequency of use was seen in concept maps and portfolios. This result supports Ören and Tatar (2007) citing "one of the least frequently used alternative assessment methods by elementary school teachers is concept maps" and Erdal (2005) suggesting "concept map is the least frequently used method". It was understood that concept maps and portfolios are the least preferred methods. It can be inferred from the finding that teachers use methods which they think unnecessary less frequently than others. Teachers should be taught well alternative assessment methods, given practical training, and trained about easily accessed sources. in this way, their perceptions regarding necessity of alternative assessment methods and thus their attitude and frequency of use can be improved. Moreover, it deserves further research why teachers do not prefer certain methods. Present study lacks dimensions about using physical suitability and skill tests by physical education teachers. Hence, another study is recommended to be carried out by adding those methods.

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Tables

Table1. Range Values of Questionnaire Items

Not Necessary	Incompetent	Not at all	1.00-1.80
Rarely necessary	Rarely Competent	Very rarely	1.81-2.61
Moderately necessary	Moderately Competent	Rarely	2.62-3.41
Necessary	Competent	Often	3.42-4.22
Quite necessary	Quite Competent	So often	4.23-5.00

Table 2. Frequency, Percentage and Averages of Teachers' Attitudes towards Implementing Alternative Assessment Methods

Method	Unnecessary		Rarely necessary		Moderately necessary		Necessary		Quite necessary		
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	X
Check List	12	8.5	16	11.3	23	16.2	70	49.3	21	14.8	3.51

	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	or
Concept Map	29	20.4	20	14.1	39	27.5	49	34.5	5	3.5	2.86
Rubric	17	12	13	9.2	22	15.5	60	42.3	30	21.1	3.51
Project Assignment	27	19	17	12	32	22.5	55	38.7	11	7.7	3.04
Performance Task	26	18.3	25	17.6	30	21.1	55	38.7	6	4.2	2.92
Portfolio (Student Product File)	37	26.1	25	17.6	29	20.4	37	26.1	14	9.9	2.76
Self Assessment	17	12	14	9.9	30	21.1	61	43	20	14.1	3.37
Group Assessment	15	10.6	15	10.6	37	26.1	60	42.3	15	10.6	3.31
Peer Assessment	18	12.7	18	12.7	30	21.1	53	37.3	23	16.2	3.31
									General Average		3.17

Table 3: Frequency, Percentage and Averages of Teachers' Perceived Competent regarding Implementing Alternative Assessment Methods

Method	Incompetent		Rarely competent		Moderately competent		Competent		Very competent		
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	or
Check List	3	2.1	13	9.2	33	23.2	71	50	22	15.5	3.67
Concept Map	10	7	27	19	47	33.1	46	32.4	12	8.5	3.16
Rubric	4	2.8	17	12	31	21	64	45.1	24	18.3	3.64
Project Assignment	6	4.2	16	11.3	34	23.9	68	47.9	18	12.7	3.53
Performance Task	3	2.1	19	13.4	32	22.5	65	45.8	23	16.2	3.60
Portfolio (Student Product File)	12	8.5	16	11.3	46	32.4	53	37.3	15	10.6	3.30
Self Assessment	7	4.9	11	7.7	33	23.2	64	45.1	27	19	3.65
Group Assessment	7	4.9	11	7.7	37	26.1	56	39.4	31	21.8	3.65
Peer Assessment	8	5.6	12	8.5	32	22.5	60	42.3	30	21.1	3.64
									General Average		3.53

Table 4. Frequency, Percentage and Averages of Teachers' Frequency of Using Alternative Assessment Methods

Method	Never		Very Rarely		Rarely		Often		So Often		
	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	or
Check List	19	13.4	15	10.6	42	29.6	42	29.6	24	16.9	3.26
Concept Map	43	30.3	19	13.4	55	38.7	22	15.5	3	2.1	2.45

Rubric	18	12.7	12	8.5	41	28.9	52	36.6	19	13.4	3.29
Project Assignment	17	12	18	12.7	54	38	44	31	9	6.3	3.07
Performance Task	10	7	15	10.6	39	27.5	62	43.7	16	11.3	3.41
Portfolio (Student Product File)	34	23.9	27	19	48	33.8	28	19.7	5	3.5	2.59
Self Assessment	21	14.8	20	14.1	38	26.8	46	32.4	17	12	3.12
Group Assessment	20	14.1	13	9.2	46	32.4	43	30.3	20	14.1	3.21
Peer Assessment	23	16.2	10	7	45	31.7	44	31	20	14.1	3.19
							General Average			3.06

THE EVALUATION OF MUSIC EDUCATION DOCTORAL PROGRAM IN TERMS OF CONTENT AND APPLICATION WITHIN THE SCOPE OF ULUDAG UNIVERSITY SAMPLE

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Abstract

Music, with its various functions in human life, is not only an instrument of education but also a field of it. Basically, music education leads an individual to develop a behavior, or forms a behavioral change by changing and developing a gained behavior. Music education is carried out in a planned and programmed way at every level, from kindergarten to university. Besides the training of individuals through music, this situation necessitates some individuals, chosen especially for this training, to be trained in particular fields of music. In Faculties of Education within Turkey's Higher Education System, the specialization in the field of Music Education in Master's Degree level has been put into practice with the Higher Education Law No.2547, which took effect in 1982, and institutions were able to constitute only some parts of their academic staff with master's programs opened until 1990s. There has been a more active education for the last 20 years; however, there isn't satisfactory music education in our country especially in PhD level. Uludağ University Education Faculty the Department of Music Education (1982) is the fourth well-established educational institution in our country in terms of the date of establishment subsequently after Ankara (1924), İstanbul (1969), İzmir (1973). It has a more than 30-year-experience and knowledge. Master's Degree Education has been carried out since 1986. Up to now, there have been many graduates, significant contribution to the art and culture of Music with many studies carried out different fields of Music Education, and many scholars have been trained. As of 2013, within Uludağ University Institute of Educational Sciences, Music Education PhD Program has been opened and the education is carried on since then. in this paper, there will be evaluations and introductions in terms of education, syllabus and application regarding this program.

Keywords: Music, Music education, PhD Program.

Introduction

With its individual, social, cultural, economic and educational functions and versatile effects in human life, music is an inseparable part of life. for centuries, music has been used as an important educational tool and given a place and great importance in social life by giving consideration to its educational role.

Music education basically develops an individual's musical skills or leads to a behavioral change by changing and developing already learned skills. Furthermore, it educates an individual by furnishing him/her with skills necessary for musical hearing-reading-writing, singing, playing an instrument, listening to music, composing music, musical enlightenment-acculturation, developing musical inclination, musical personalization, increasing musical sensibility, musical communication and interaction, and taking advantage of music in different ways.

With this educational function, music is an educational instrument. Formal music education is carried out in a planned and programmed way at every level, from kindergarten to university. However, there is another educational function of music, which is being anprofessional education field. This necessitates that some specially chosen individuals be trained in specific branches of music. Thus, branches of music have separated from each other and each has become a professional field itself in time.

In Faculties of Education within Turkey's Higher Education System, the specialization in the field of Music Education in Master's Degree level has been put into practice with the Higher Education Law No.2547, which took effect in 1982, and institutions were able to constitute only some part of their academic staff until 2000s. It is believed that, although there has been a more productive education for the last 15 years, there isn't satisfactory music education in our country especially in PhD level, and it looks as if this gap won't be able to be filled in near future.

Nowadays, higher education institutions experience important changes. İnternational student exchange, distant learning regulations, rapid developments in information and communication technologies, adult education and the increase in student admission, regional and global increase in competition are some examples of these great changes. The importance of higher education increases significantly day by day.

Uludağ University Education Faculty the Department of Music Education (1982) is the fourth well-established educational institution in our country in terms of the date of establishment subsequently after Ankara (1924), İstanbul (1969), İzmir (1973). It has a more than 30-year-experience and knowledge. Master's Degree Education has been carried out since 1986 (1986-1995 as a part of Institute of Science, 1995-2010 as a part of Institute of Social Sciences and 2010-up till now as a part of Institute of Education Sciences). Up to now, there have been 49 Master's degree graduates. Moreover, there has been significant contribution to the art and culture of music with 49 studies carried out different fields of Music Education, and many scholars have been trained.

In addition to train qualified music teachers of the information society, Uludağ University Education Faculty Department of Education of Fine Arts Department of Music Education aims to be an institution which produces information regarding education and the profession of music teaching, develop itselfcontinuously, offer solutions to society's problems related to education and music teacher training in national and universal extent by using scientific methods, sets an example with its graduate music teachers, remains at the forefront with its qualitative works of art, and whose members and graduates are proud of themselves(Demirbatır,2005)..

As of 2013, Uludağ University Department of Music Education has shown the academic development required for PhD programs and been officially registered by the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) to be academically able to give this education.

The PhD Program of Music Education Discipline includes two basic aspects in terms of its aims. The first one is to make the graduates of the Master Program more competent in their profession, and the other is to prepare the graduates of the Master Programwho want to become academicians for PhD education.In order to do so, there are some aims to be achieved, which are;

to enlighten the candidates' knowledge of Music Education and pedagogy,

to help the candidates correlate Educational Music and the types of music which has gained a place in society and help them find ways to transfer this knowledge to students,

to help the candidates learn the national and international modern music teaching methods and literature related to it, and help them pave the wayfor new researches,

to keep them well-informed about scientific developments, field studies and literature in music education,

andto develop the strategies to prepare proper learning environment and to increase students'performanceby directing this process well.

Music Education Field PhD Program Student Quotas and Acceptance Conditions

The student quota for The Field of Music Education PhD Program is 5. There is no quota for international students yet. But, some quotas can be given to international students on demand. in 2013-2014 Academic year, 7 students were admitted, 3 in the first academic term and 4 in the second academic term. Candidates holding a diploma of masters with thesis in the field can apply for the program. in addition, there is a requirement for a score of 55 in academic personnel and postgraduate education entrance exam (ALES) and a score of 55 in foreign language exam (YDS). 50 % of ALES, 20% of Masters Diploma Grade and 30% of PhD exam is taken into consideration during the evaluation of student admission. in order to be accepted, a candidate needs to have at least a score of 70.

The Number of Credits and Compulsory and Elective Courses in order to get a PhD Degree

ULUDAĞ UNIVERSITY	
INSTİTUTE OF EDUCATİONAL SCİENCES	
ACADEMIC YEAR COURSE PLAN	
I. TERM / FALL	II. TERM / SPRING

Code	Course Title	Type	T	P	L	Crd.	Code	Course Title	Type	T	P	L	Crd.
6101	ADVANCED MAİN INSTRUMENT	C	3			3	6102	ADVANCED MAİN INSTRUMENT and ITS TEACHİNG METHODS	C	3			3
6103	QUALİTATİVERESEACH METHODS	C	3			3	6104	STATİSTİCS	C	3			3
6105	SCHOOL INSTRUMENT and ITS PEDAGOGY	E	2			2	6172	SEMİNAR(COURSE)	C	0			0
6107	CONTEMPORARY TURKİSH PİANO MUSİC REPERTOİRE	E	2			2	6106	PRİNCİPAL MUSİC EDUCATİON METHODS	E	2			2
6109	ACCOMPANİMENT WİTH KEYBOARD INSTRUMENT	E	2			2	6108	ADVANCED PİANO TECHNİCS and ITS TEACHİNG METHODS	E	2			2
6111	PSYCHOLOGY OF MUSİC	E	2			2	6110	PİANO PEDAGOGY	E	2			2
6113	ASTHETİCS OF MUSİC	E	2			2	6112	MUSİC EDUCATİON and ITS ISSUES İN TURKEY	E	2			2
6115	ADVANCED CHAMBER MUSİC I	E	2			2	6114	WORLD MUSİC	E	2			2
6117	APPLİCATİONS and ANALYSİS OF POLYPHONİC MUSİC WRİTİNG I	E	2			2	6116	ADVANCED CHAMBER MUSİC II	E	2			2
6119	APPLİCATİONS and ANALYSİS OF TURKİSH FOLK MUSİC	E	2 2			2	6118	APPLİCATİONS and ANALYSİS OF POLYPHONİC MUSİC WRİTİNG II	E	2			2
6121	VOİCE EDUCATİON TECHNİCS İN DİFFERENT AGE GROUPS	E	2			2	6120	TEACHİNG METHODOLOGİES OF MUSİCAL HEARİNG and READİNG	E	2			2
6123	PEDAGOGİC METHODS OF MUSİC	E	2			2	6122	APPLİCATİONS and ANALYSİS OF TURKİSH ART MUSİC	E	2			2
							6124	VOİCE HEALTH and PROTECTİON	E	2			2
							6126	RECİTAL	E	2			2
Total Credits						12	Total Credits						12
III. TERM / FALL							IV. TERM / SPRING						
YET 6177	PROFİCİENCY EXAMİNİATİON	C	0			0	6182	PHD SPECİALİSED FİELD COURSE II	C	3			0

STAGE

6173	SEMİNAR (THESİS)	C	0			0	6192	PHD DİSSERTATİON II	C	0			0
6181	PHD SPECİALİSED FİELD COURSE I	C	3			0							
6191	PHD DİSSERTATİON I	C	0			0							
Total Credits						0	Total Credits						0
V. TERM / FALL							VI. TERM / SPRING						
ENS 6121	DEVELOPMENT and LEARNİNG	C	3			0	ENS6122	PLANNİNG and EVALUATİON İN TEACHİNG and INSTRUCTİO	C	3	2		0
6183	PHD SPECİALİSED FİELD COURSE III	C	3			0	6184	PHD SPECİALİSED FİELD COURSE IV	C	3			0
6193	PHD DİSSERTATİON III	C	0			0	6194	PHD DİSSERTATİON IV	C	0			0
Total Credits						0	Total Credits						0
VII. TERM / FALL							VIII. TERM / SPRING						
6185	PHD SPECİALİSED FİELD COURSE V	C	3			0	6186	PHD SPECİALİSED FİELD COURSE VI	C	3			0
6195	PHD DİSSERTATİON V	C	0			0	6196	PHD DİSSERTATİON VI	C	0			0
Total Credits						0	Total Credits						0
TOTAL CREDITS: 24													

According to the program, students are required to take minimum 24 credits in total. There are 4 compulsory courses. 2 (2x3 credits) of these lessons are in the 1st term and the other 2 (2x3 credits) arein the 2nd term. in addition to compulsory courses, students need to take 6 elective courses, 3 courses for each term and each course is 2 credits. Students take 12 credits of elective courses in two terms in total. These 6 courses are chosen among 21 elective courses. Courses are given by 3 professors, 3 associate professor and 6 assistant professors.

THE COURSES AND THEIR CONTENTS IN MUSIC EDUCATION PHD PROGRAM

1st Term Compulsory Courses

Advanced Main Instrument

By advanced main instrument, it is aimed that students are able to gain advanced skills in their fields (instrument, voice, theory), sing samples of works of Turkish and world-wide known composers, constitute a repertoire and develop skills to sing in front of groups.

Qualitative Reseach Methods

This course includes, on a basis of basic concepts of science and research, the comparison of quantitative research and theoreticalbases and qualities of qualitative research, planning of qualitative research, data collection methods and material preparation for data collection, analysis of collected data and use of the results in application.

2nd Term Compulsory Courses

Advanced Main Instrument and Its Teaching Methods

By advanced main instrument, it is aimed that students are able to gain advanced skills in their fields (instrument, voice, theory), sing samples of works of Turkish and world-wide known composers, constitute a repertory and develop skills to sing in front of groups. in addition, it is aimed that students improve their teaching methods and techniques.

Statistics

For the education of PhD students doing research with quantitative data, this course includes basic statistical terms and concepts, the classification, process and interpretation of data by statistical methods.

Field Elective Courses

Principal Music Education Methods

Acquiring extensive knowledge and skills by Kodaly and Orff methods, two of the methods used in music education, authentic model building, getting used to the materials used in these models and perform applications by using own authentic materials are the main focus of this course.

Contemporary Turkish Piano Music Repertoire

The exploration of contemporary Turkish Piano Music Repertoire, analyzing it and creating a repertoire from the beginning level is the aim of this course.

Accompaniment With Keyboard Instrument

The main focus of this course, which has an extensive content about keyboard instrument techniques, is the improvement of transposition and transcription skills by playing pieces starting from baroque period and the applications of correpetition.

Psychology Of Music

This course aims to furnish the students with knowledge and concepts regarding music's relation with psychological processes in an individual, social and cultural level. The course starts with individual psychological processes such as voice and auditory perception, and reaches the subjects of emotion and meaning with music via sophisticated perceptional processes such as intonation in music and perception of melody and time.

Advanced Chamber Music I

It is a course designed to perform works of chamber music written during contemporary reorganization and teach performers the advanced forms and performances of chamber music. Besides, it aims to evaluate and perform 19th and 20th century chamber music samples with an extensive analysis of this period.

Aesthetics Of Music

Students acquaint themselves to principal aesthetics theories with the terms beauty and beautiful by beginning the origin of the word "aesthetics". They search for the formation and development of the expression language special to art of music with an analysis regarding the structure and meaning of works of music in accordance with monophony and polyphony.

Applications and Analysis Of Polyphonic Music Writing I

This course includes writing and analysis activities in polyphonic musicwithin the scope of advanced theoretical knowledge related to music theory and musical hearing,reading and writing training. in addition to vertical and horizontal polyphonic melody dictation performances, the course involves analysis, recognition of polyrhythmic structures, song analysis, deciphering, solfege and rhythmic reading-writing techniques. Furthermore, it includes contemporary notation techniques and creative studies in the scope of modern music and contemporary teaching methods and techniques related to musical hearing.

Applications and Analysis Of Turkish Folk Music

The content of this course is the correlative analysis of verbal and written sources, which take a part in the development of Turkish Folk Music, and the studies in the field such as researches, books, presentations, articles and vocalization samples. It also includes the evaluation of data gained.

Voice Education Techniques in Different Age Groups

Voice education is a process which differs considerably according to age groups. This course includes the teaching of methods and techniques related to voice education before puberty, during puberty and after puberty.

Pedagogic Methods Of Music

Pedagogical methods in music researches have gained importance in both theory and practice since the 20th century. The application fields of these methods have expanded with the widespread use of pedagogical methods in practice and musicology's becoming a scientific discipline itself. in this course, the application fields of pedagogical methods in music and the application of pedagogical methods to music are the main concerns.

School Instrument and Its Pedagogy

The use of instruments and setting a model so as to use these instruments by getting accustomed to the instruments which are being used and which will be used in schools is the main goal of this course. Compositions, experimental studies and applications for school instruments are also of great importance.

Advanced Piano Techniques and Its Teaching Methods

It is a course specially designed to introduce the new approaches in today's music. The study of the introduction, learning, application and teaching methods of 20th century contemporary piano techniques is aimed at in this course.

Music Education and Its Issues in Turkey

In this course, the research of system approach and the qualifications of education system, the place of music education in Turkish Education System, music education programs and the basic concepts they depend on, the qualifications of music education programs in different countries in kindergarten, primary and secondary education levels, the problems caused by music education applications in Turkey and attempts to solve them is the main focus. Education planning for music education in the future is also a subject of this course.

World Music

To discuss the social and cultural features of music by learning ethnical music in various parts of the world is the goal of this course. Also, this course introduces the Indian culture and music with a wide range of listening exercises by extensively giving a lot of information about Indian music philosophy, structure, theory and application.

Applications and Analysis Of Polyphonic Music Writing II

This course includes writing and analysis activities in polyphonic music within the scope of advanced theoretical knowledge related to music theory and musical hearing, reading and writing training. in addition to vertical and horizontal polyphonic melody dictation performances, the course involves analysis, recognition of polyrhythmic structures, song analysis, deciphering, solfege and rhythmic reading-writing techniques. Furthermore, it includes contemporary notation techniques and creative studies in the scope of Contemporary Turkish music and modern music and contemporary teaching methods and techniques related to musical hearing.

Advanced Chamber Music II

It is a course designed to perform works of chamber music written during contemporary reorganization and teach performers the advanced forms and performances of chamber music. Besides, it aims to evaluate and perform 19th and 20th century chamber music samples with an extensive analysis of this period.

Teaching Methodologies Of Musical Hearing and Reading

Rhythmic, melodic and harmonic analysis that constitutes music's structure,all tonalities, main modes and developments causing atonal music, 12 voice systems and their structures, melodic and harmonic hearing studies formed by these structures, musical reading techniques, resources in local and foreign literature and developed educational materials are the subject of this course.

Applications and Analysis Of Turkish Art Music

The content of this course is the correlative analysis of verbal and written sources, which take a part in the development of Turkish Art Music, and the studies in the field such as researches, books, presentations, articles and vocalization samples. It also includes the analysis of data gained by evaluation by using statistical and other research methods in a critical way.

Voice Health and Protection

The voice formation process in human body is a quite complicated one. Learning the systems taking part in this formation, the organs in these systems and their duties, the things need to be done to be able to use the voice in an effective and healthy way for years constitute the content of the course.

Piano Pedagogy

This course includes the introduction of basic piano teaching methods to beginner, intermediate and advanced piano students beginning from kindergarten, the activities to form a rich piano repertoire by examining various piano teaching methods used in the past and being widely used now.

Recital

It is a performance oriented course designed for PhD students having taken Advanced Main Instrument Course. With this course, PhD students are able to present their studies, make preparations for their recitals and get used to preparation and presentation levels of their studies.

Conclusion

Uludağ University Institute of Educational Sciences Department of Music Education is an institution which aims not only to conduct theoretical and applied scientific researches in the field of education and teaching, especially in Music teaching, in a graduate level, but also to train distinguished music teachers and researchers who have professional competency and sensibility, performand compose music, contribute to the development of society's musical culture in a national and universal level, have analytical and critical thinking ability, communicate well, and who are at peace with themselves and others, creative and constructive. It also aims to present music education programs to some institutions on subjects that society requires, do researches and organize scientific and artistic activities intended to enlighten the personnel in educational institutions(Demirbatır,2005). The institution has a long-established education tradition with the history of 34 years of undergraduate and 30 years of graduate programs. With this, it is one of the most forefront educational institutions of the country which train music teachers.

As of 2013, Music education PhD Program has been opened in order to make the graduates of Music Education Master's program not only more competent in their professions, but also to make those who want to be academicians ready for PhD level. The program is sustained by 12 faculty members, 9 within the field of Music Education and another 3 from other fields.

The curriculum and facilities are approved by the Council of Higher Education. The capacity of Uludağ University in terms of faculty members, adequate facilities, library and access to electronic publications is relatively high. Cooperation between universities, both national and international ones, is not only given importance but also supported considerably.

With the thought that universities can perform their tasks in a pioneering and effective way and achieve their expected goals only with researchers who are qualified, who are dedicated to education and research and who follow the contemporary education applications and developments in the world, it is observed that music education becomes more and more important in the globalizing world day by day. Therefore, in addition to related institutions and researchers, international cooperation also needs to be supported more.

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MARITIME ENGLISH LANGUAGE RESTRICTEDNESS

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Abstract

Maritime English is a specific register. Therefore, it requires a specific treatment. This paper implies the restricted aspect of a complex system such as English for specific purpose in the nautical education and profession. The sophisticated system of the maritime English makes it a plain instrument of communication. The opposite "tides" govern the system: creative and economical tendency. The creative side of the maritime language is evident in the forming of new words and meanings, combining of existing units, various metaphors, etc. We have tried to look into certain subregisters within Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) by pointing to the main characteristics. Seaspeak is a vital instrument of communication on board a ship. The importance of English language has always been emphasized, especially the importance of the standardized maritime phrases used in vessel-to-vessel vessel-to-port communication. By trying to encode the Maritime English world, we will look into the structure of Maritime English communication terms and phrases. However, we cannot make artificial borders between Maritime and General English. These two registers intertwine and it is impossible to eliminate Maritime English from General English and vice versa. As far as restricted aspect of Maritime English is concerned, Standard Marine Communication Phrases are used in both ship-to-ship and ship-to-shore communication.

Keywords: SMCP, linguistic, restricted language, lexicology, maritime terms, discourse analysis, pragmatics, seaspeak, specific purpose, ship, sail, rudder, derrick, VHF-equipment, needs analysis.

I Introduction

The Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) is a set of key phrases in the English language (which is the internationally recognized language of the sea), supported by the international community for use at sea and developed by the IMO.They aim to explain:1) external communication phrases – ship to ship & ship to shore communication; 2) on-board communication phrases – communication within the ship. The SMCP were adopted by the 22nd Assembly of the IMO in November 2001 in a resolution which also promoted the wide circulation of the SMCP to all prospective users and all maritime education authorities. The SMCP includes phrases which have been developed to cover the most important safety-related fields of verbal shore-to-ship (and vice-versa), ship-to-ship and on-board communications. The aim is to reduce the problem of language barriers at sea and avoid misunderstandings which can cause accidents.

As navigational and safety communications from ship to shore and vice versa, ship to ship , and on board ships must be precise, simple and unambiguous, so as to avoid confusion and error, there is a need to standardize the language used. This is of particular importance in the light of the increasing number of internationally trading vessels with crews speaking many different languages since problems of communication may cause misunderstandings leading to dangers to the vessel, the people on board and the environment. in 1973 the IMO Maritime Safety Committee agreed at its twenty-seventh session that, where language difficulties arise, a common language should be used for navigational purposes and that language should be English. in consequence the SWNV was developed, adopted in 1977 and amended in 1985. in 1992 the IMO Maritime Safety Committee at its sixtieth session instructed the IMO Sub-Committee on Safety of Navigation to develop a more comprehensive standardized safety language than the SMNV, 1985, taking into account the changing conditions in modern seafaring and covering all major safety-related verbal communications. At its sixty-eighth session in 1997 the IMO Maritime Safety Committee adopted the Draft Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) developed by the IMO Sub Committee on Safety of Navigation. The Draft SMCP, following international trials, was amended at the forty-sixth session of this Sub-Committee and final consideration given at the IMO Maritime Safety Committee. Under the International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watch-keeping for Seafarers, 1978, as revised 1995, the ability to understand and use the SMCP is required for the certification of officers in charge of a navigational watch on ships of 500 gross tonnage or more. Committee at its session in the light of remarks received by the Organization.

1.1 Position of the SMCP in maritime practice

The Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) has been compiled:

- to assist in the greater safety of navigation and of the conduct of the ship,

- to standardize the language used in communication for navigation at sea, in port-approaches, in waterways, harbours and on board vessels with multilingual crews, and

- to assist maritime training institutions in meeting the objectives mentioned above.

These phrases are not intended to supplant or contradict the International Regulations for Preventing Collisions at Sea, 1972 or special local rules or recommendations made by IMO concerning ships' routeing, neither are they intended to supersede the International Code of Signals, and when applied in ship's external communication this has to be done in strict compliance with the relevant radiotelephone procedures as set out in the ITU Radio Regulations. Furthermore, the SMCP, as a collection of individual phrases, should not be regarded as any kind of technical manual providing operational instructions.

The SMCP meets the requirements of the STCW Convention, 1978, as revised, and of the SOLAS Convention, 1974, as revised, regarding verbal communications; moreover, the phrases cover the relevant communication safety aspects laid down in these Conventions.

Use of the SMCP should be made as often as possible in preference to other wording of similar meaning; as a minimum requirement users should adhere as closely as possible to their wording in relevant situations. in this way they are intended to become an acceptable safety language, using English for the verbal interchange of intelligence among individuals of all maritime nations on the many and varied occasions when precise meanings and translations are in doubt, increasingly evident under modern conditions at sea. The accompanying CD/Cassette is designed to familiarize users with the pronunciation of the phrases.

1.2 Organization of the SMCP

The SMCP is divided into External Communication Phrases and On-board Communication Phrases as far as its application is concerned, and into PART A and PART B as to its status within the framework of the STCW, 1978, as revised. PART A covers phrases applicable in external communications and which may thus be regarded as the replacement of the Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary, 1985, which is requested to be used and understood by the STCW Code, 1995, Table A-II/I. This part was enriched by essential phrases concerning shiphandling and safety of navigation to be used in on-board communications, particularly when the Pilot is on the bridge, as required by Regulation 14(4), Chapter V, SOLAS 1974, as revised.

PART B calls attention to other on-board standard safety-related phrases which, supplementary to PART A, may also be regarded useful for Maritime English instruction.

1.3 Position of the SMCP in Maritime Education and Training

The SMCP does not intend to provide a comprehensive Maritime English syllabus which is expected to cover a far wider range of language skills to be achieved in the fields of vocabulary, grammar, discourse abilities, etc., than the SMCP could ever manage… However, PART A in particular, should be an indispensable part of any curriculum which is designed to meet the corresponding requirements of the STCW Convention, 1978, as revised. in addition, PART B offers a rich choice of situations covered by phrases well suited to meet the communication requirements of the STCW Convention, 1978, as revised, which are implicitly expected to be satisfied by mariners.

The SMCP should be taught and learnt selectively, according to the users` specific needs rather than completely. The respective instruction should be based on practice in the maritime environment and be implemented through appropriate modern language teaching methods.

1.4 Basic communicative features

The SMCP builds on a basic knowledge of the English language. It was drafted on purpose in a simplified version of Maritime English to reduce grammatical, lexical and idiomatic varieties to a tolerable minimum, using standardized structures for the sake of its function aspects, i.e. diminishing misunderstanding in safety related verbal communications, thereby endeavouring to reflect present Maritime English language usage on board vessels and in ship-to-shore/ship-to-ship communications. This means, in phrases offered for use in emergency and other situations developing under considerable pressure of time or psychological stress as wells as in navigational warnings, a block language was applied

which sparingly uses, or frequently omits, the function words the, a/an, is/are as done in seafaring practice. Users, however, may be flexible in this respect.

Further communicative features may be summarized as follows:

avoiding synonyms

avoiding contracted forms

· providing fully worded answers to "yes/no"-questions and basic alternative answers to sentence questions

· providing one phrase for one event, and

· structuring the corresponding phrases after the principle: identical invariable plus variable.

1.5 Typographical conventions

( ) brackets indicate that the part of the message enclosed within the brackets may be added where relevant;

/ oblique strokes indicate that the items on either side of the stroke are alternatives;

... dots indicate that the relevant information is to be filled in where the dots occur;

(italic letters) indicate the kind of information requested;

~ tildes stand for the invariable part of an aforementioned standard phrase which is followed by a variable addendum

II LINGUISTIC RESTRICTEDNESS AND ACCURACY IN SAFETY-RELATED COMMUNICATION

2.1 Procedure

When it is necessary to indicate that the SMCP are to be used, the following message may be

sent:

"Please use Standard Marine Communication Phrases."

"I will use Standard Marine Communication Phrases."

2.2 Spelling

2.2.1 Spelling of letters

When spelling is necessary, only the following spelling table should be used:

Letter Code Letter Code

A Alfa N November

B Bravo O Oscar

C Charlie P Papa

D Delta Q Quebec

E Echo R Romeo

F Foxtrot S Sierra

G Golf T Tango

H Hotel U Uniform

I India V Victor

J Juliet W Whisky

K Kilo X X-ray

L Lima Y Yankee

M Mike Z Zulu

2.3 Responses

2.3.1

When the answer to a question is in the affirmative, say:

"Yes, ... " - followed by the appropriate phrase in full.

2.3.2

When the answer to a question is in the negative, say:

"No, ..." - followed by the appropriate phrase in full.

2.3.3

When the information requested is not immediately available, say:

"Stand by" - followed by the time interval within which the information will be
available.

2.3.4

When the information requested cannot be obtained, say:

"No information."

2.3.5

When an INSTRUCTION (e.g. by a VTS-Station, Naval vessel or other fully authorized personnel) or an ADVICE is given,
respond if in the affirmative:

"I will/can ... " - followed by the instruction or advice in full; and,

if in the negative, respond:

"I will not/cannot ... " - followed by the instruction or advice in full.

Example: "ADVICE. Do not overtake the vessel North of you."

Respond: "I will not overtake the vessel North of me."

2.3.6

Responses to orders and answers to questions of special importance both in external and onboard
communication are given in wording in the phrases concerned.

2.4 Distress, urgency and safety signals

2.4.1

MAYDAY to be used to announce a distress message

2.4.2

PAN - PAN to be used to announce an urgency message

2.4.3 SÈCURITÈ to be used to announce a safety message

2.5 Standard organizational phrases

2.5.1

"How do you read (me)?"

2.5.1.1

"I read you ...

bad/one with signal strength one (i.e. barely perceptible)

poor/two with signal strength two (i.e. weak)

fair/three with signal strength three (i.e. fairly good)

good/four with signal strength four (i.e. good)

excellent/five with signal strength five (i.e. very good)

2.5.2

When it is advisable to remain on a VHF Channel / frequency say:

"Stand by on VHF Channel ... / frequency ... "

2.5.2.1

When it is accepted to remain on the VHF channel / frequency indicated, say:

"Standing by on VHF Channel ... / frequency ... "

2.5.3

When it is advisable to change to another VHF Channel / frequency, say:

"Advise (you) change to VHF Channel ... / frequency ... ."

"Advise(you) try VHF Channel .. / frequency... ."

2.5.3.1

When the changing of a VHF Channel / frequency is accepted, say:

"Changing to VHF Channel ... / frequency ... ."

2.6 Corrections

When a mistake is made in a message, say:

"Mistake ..." - followed by the word:

"Correction ... " plus the corrected part of the message.

Example: "My present speed is 14 knots - mistake.

Correction, my present speed is 12, one-two, knots

2.7 Readiness

"I am / I am not ready to receive your message"

2.8 Repetition

2.8.1

 If any part of the message are considered sufficiently important to need safeguarding, say:

"Repeat ... " - followed by the corresponding part of the message.

Example: "My draft is 12.6 repeat one-two decimal 6 metres."

"Do not overtake - repeat - do not overtake."

2.8.2

When a message is not properly heard, say:

"Say again (please)."

2.9 Numbers

A few digits and numbers have a modified pronunciation compared to general English:

number spelling pronunciation

0 zero ZEERO

1 one WUN

2 two TOO

3 three TREE

4 four FOWER

5 five FIFE

6 six SIX

7 seven SEVEN

8 eight AIT

9 nine NINER

1000 thousand TOUSAND

2.9.1.

All numbers except whole thousands should be transmitted by pronouncing each

digit separately: "Wun-fife-zero" for 150

2.9.2.

Whole thousands should be transmitted by pronouncing each

digit in the number of thousands followed by the word TOUSAND

2.9.3

 Numbers continuing a decimal point should be transmitted as above, with the

decimal point indicated by the word DECIMAL.

"Two decimal five" or Two point fivefor 2.5

Note: Attention! When rudder angles e.g. in wheel orders are given, say:

156.8 becomes ONE FIVE SIX DECIMAL EIGHT

2.10 Positions

2.10.1

 When latitude and longitude are used, these shall be expressed in degrees and minutes (and decimals of a minute if necessary), North or South of the Equator and East or West of Greenwich.

Example:

"WARNING. Dangerous wreck in position 15 degrees 34 minutes North

061 degrees 29 minutes West."

2.10.2

 When the position is related to a mark, the mark shall be a well-defined charted object. The bearing shall be in the 360 degrees notation from true north and shall be that of the position FROM the mark.

Example:

 "Your position bearing 137 degrees from Big Head lighthouse

distance 2.4 nautical miles."

2.11 Bearings

The bearing of the mark or vessel concerned, is the bearing in the 360 degree notation from north (true north unless otherwise stated), except in the case of relative bearings.

Bearings may be either FROM the mark or FROM the vessel.

Examples: "Pilot boat is bearing 215 degrees from you."

Note: Vessels reporting their position should always quote their bearing FROM the mark.

2.11.1

 Relative bearings

Relative bearings can be expressed in degrees relative to the vessel's head. Morefrequently this is in relation to the port or starboard bow.

Example:

 "Buoy 030 degrees on your port bow."

(Relative D/F bearings are more commonly expressed in the 360 degree

notation.)

2.12 Courses

Always to be expressed in 360 degree notation from north (true north unless otherwise stated). Whether this is to TO or FROM a mark can be stated.

2.13 Distances

Preferably to be expressed in nautical miles or cables (tenths of a mile) otherwise in kilometres or metres, the unit always to be stated.

2.14 Speed

To be expressed in knots:without further notation meaning speed through the water;

or,"ground speed" meaning speed over the ground.

2.15 Times

Times should be expressed in the 24 hour UTC notation; if local time will be used in ports or

harbours it should clearly be stated.

2.16 Geographical names

Place names used should be those on the chart or in Sailing Directions in use.

Should these not be understood, latitude and longitude should be given.

2.17 Ambiguous words

Some words in English have meanings depending on the context in which they appear.

Misunderstandings frequently occur, especially in VTS communications, and have

produced accidents. Such words are:

2.17.1

The Conditionals "May", "Might", "Should" and "Could".

May

Do not say: "May I enter the fairway?"

Say: "QUESTION. Do I have permission to enter the fairway?"

Do not say: "You may enter the fairway."

Say: "ANSWER. You have permission to enter the fairway."

Might

Do not say: "I might enter the fairway."

Say: "INTENTION. I will enter the fairway."

Should

Do not say: "You should anchor in anchorage B 3."

Say: "ADVICE. Anchor in anchorage B 3."

Could

Do not say: "You could be running into danger."

Say: "WARNING. You are running into danger."

The word "Can" either describes the possibility or the capability of doing something.In the SMCP the situations where phrases using the word "Can" appear make it clear whether a possibility is referred to. in an ambiguous context, however, say, for example:

QUESTION:"Do I have permission to use the shallow draft fairway at this time?",

Do not say: "Can I use the shallow draft fairway at this time?", if you ask for a permission. (The same applies to the word "May")

CONCLUSION

We can conclude that maritime English is a restricted language which is characterized by a great many specific features on the phonological, morphological, lexical and syntaxical level. These particularities are the most obvious on the lexical level, for it implies maritime terms. This level is also under the greatest influence of the real world, that is the world outside language sphere.

Since the maritime language is further subdivided into registers and subregisters, we can make a distinction between maritime language and maritime languages. The complexity of the nautical register makes learning, that is acquisition very difficult. One should firstly learn maritime terms in his own mother tongue and then move into the maritime English world.

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CONCEPT OF FREEDOM IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF FICHTE

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Abstract

The concept of freedom is the central theme of all philosophy of Fichte. The study aims to determine the meaning of the concept of freedom by Johann Gottlieb Fichte. His fundamental philosophical problematic characterizes as "analysis of the notion of freedom". The methodology of this paper supported in a systematic review of the literature, description, comparison of different concepts and philosophical notions of the nineteenth century on freedom that coming as a result of different research as writings, works and articles. The main issues of the study relates to analysis of the subject as a creative activity, report subject to freedom and concept of freedom as a self-development. Problem that appears has to do with the subject which should be a self conscious that to create his freedom. The whole philosophy of Fichte relates to three main issues: the subject, the activity and freedom. His philosophy is defined as a philosophy of practice and freedom. The basic motive of subjective idealism is search of freedom according to which freedom is a field of opportunities that are offered to us in the world. The meaning of freedom is the form of expression that will, of individual action as something natural. Freedom is not absolute and an empirical given, but it should be a creativity. Real freedom is it that rational subject creates itself.

Key words: Aim, Freedom, Methodology, Practical Philosophy, Subjective idealism

Introduction

Freedom is the ability of man to act without restrictions lust, interests, his goals, ability to self-determination in his election to operate without infringing on others. The concept of freedom is a widely used in various fields. Freedom as a concept has acquired a broad meaning in philosophical literature, social and everyday language. This term is treated by different philosophers but, to Fichte the way of freedom that it represents is special. The study refers to

the concept of freedom as one of the basic points in the philosophy of Fichte. The way how it sees the subject, its activity and report subject to freedom is a key element in the philosophy of Fichte. His work "Foundations of natural right: according to the principles of the

Wissenschaftslehre" crosses a spirit to show original nature of what Fichte calls "self- conscious".

In the central basis of his philosophy is an "absolute self", an agent, a product and autonomous action.

For the realization of this topic have been exploited different literature, works, articles from other philosophers where some of them had influential philosophical formation of Fichte. This study aims to show which is the meaning the use of freedom by Fichte and where it consists. The main task of the system of his philosophy is to reconcile freedom with necessity. Freedom is possible and actual only within the context of restriction and the necessity because, it is not absolute. His passion for education of society as a whole seen as a necessary consequence of his philosophical system, which continues the Kantian tradition to establishing of philosophy in service of lighting reason.

Philosophy of Fichte has the same attitude as it Kantian. He divided by Kant in the conception of the present as the point where the converging lines of historical development. Each period has its own features which penetrate into every detail of life and Fichte set himself the task to examine the specific characteristics of its period1. The main task in the philosophy of Fichte

"Wissenschaftslehre" or "theory of knowledge" is to reconcile freedom with necessity, to explain how freely and morally ready agents may be considered at the same time as part of a world of material objects conditional in time and space. Fichte had a great desire to be a teacher of humanity and superintendent of its progress.

He saw himself researcher with a broader role in academia. He had suggested that self which often referred to ego it is not a static but, an auto-process and such a process it must be free. The human being as a "self-conscious" should be able to achieve freedom and understand the nature around. Freedom is the highest principle and all human activity. True freedom is what creates its rational and conscious entity. All core of human activity is the world, world of freedom where man realizes himself.

Review of literature

To be free means affirming the independence of your will. The concept of freedom characterizes the human condition when one starts to realize themselves. Realizing freedom in time achieved the distinction between subject and object. Freedom is an opportunity action and lies in self-determination. Therefore, to Fichte is emphasizing the idea of an active and creative subject.

Freedom is the power of our reason, in the power of our will. Only free life can have a moral value. It is important that we should to be able to know the conditions that surround us and to know how to create, to achieve our freedom within certain limits. Transcendental philosophy that describes

1 Sinan, G. Philosophy of history. SHBLU: Tirana, 1999, p. 77.

Fichte is an attempt to analyze what is the synthetic act by which ego decide freely for themselves and their world. Freedom is important because it holds the potential of liberating by a single way to understanding of the world. For as long as we live in a community, in a given society and interact and other human believe that we are not free in every activity of ours. When we talk for freedom understand that every human activity not realized without being previously free.

Freedom as the highest principle of human vital activity.

To talk about freedom means a specific task as the most indispensable and necessary for every human being. But, how conceives the freedom Fichte? Freedom is the highest principle, the essence of all things. Freedom is the highest truth, a great reality. How to understand this? This reality is the source of all other realities because, it is freedom and cannot be given an empirical, a given instant, a fact.

If freedom is given or made (as are produced evidence of physical order) it will not be freedom. True freedom is the freedom that creates itself being so, a self-realization and a self-realization means self- development. The concept of freedom understood in time, time to realize the opportunities that the subject of his activities.

Time is a priori theoretical reason, a form of understanding a necessary tool of freedom. Fichte makes freedom principle higher the natural law but, of course it comes to freedom in the form of the individual isolated. Fichte uses the idea of the "sphere of freedom" to create

"original right" which is a fictitious concept. To trample this right, according to him, means that you have violated freedom.

In philosophy of Fichte note use of the term "agent" or conscious action where each agent conscious should keep this "sphere of freedom" where they are free from external forces. Like Descartes and Kant, he was motivated by the problem of subjectivity and awareness.

Fichte had proposed to replace term philosophy as "love for knowledge" with the term "Wissenschaftslehre" as a theory of knowledge. Fichte is for a real coexistence of free individuals, the existence of a society built deliberately free.

The existence of a subject lies in an experience interpersonal, for mutual recognition of their freedom. This experience can occur just as a reality a call for an "ego" that exercising and limits at the same time his freedom.

So, according to the general principle of philosophy of Fichte, such freedom can be developed in a freedom more perfect producing the opposite of its2.

Methodology

The method used is it systematic review of the literature. This study is based in the principal work of Johann Gottlieb Fichte "Foundations of natural right: according to the principles of the Wissenschaftslehre".

Through this work is issued central notion that runs philosophical system of Fichte, freedom of subject. The study aims to show the way as Fichte introduces the concept of freedom to showing its necessity and realization. So, to highlight the application for a freedom not just a theoretical but, and the practice of the subject in order to be able to create his freedom within society.

The methodology of this study supported in describing the diverse ways to concept of freedom, literature, works by the other author where a part of them had an impact on the philosophical formation of Fichte.

The key question that the study focuses connects with the main characteristics of the subject, stages, conditions that must to complete a subject and its relation to freedom.

Results

As a primary task to Fichte is to explain what is human mission and tools to be used to achieve this mission better. His philosophy has to do with subject matter, the activity and his freedom. Therefore, philosophy of Fichte aims to become a philosophy of free action, free movement of people. As the only right philosophy he considered idealistic philosophy because ego is giving us directly. Ego sets itself independent and unconditional. Ego to exist and to act must have its opposite, non- ego, which is the product of the ego. Although, ego and non- ego are different, they are in unity because can not be ego without non- ego. So, ego itself contains non- self.

The first and fundamental motive of subjective idealism of Fichte is the search of freedom for a freedom to biuld from a creative and conscious subject. His philosophy is a call for the formation of mind and for integration into human society. Freedom can not be realized in the hood but, in social phenomena, in the nature of human society. The study shows that one of the basic tasks of philosophy is to provide rational guidelines therefore, ends to be appropriate for a free society and in harmony with each other.

Freedom lies before us as a field of action and continuous interaction. Truly, it appears in our lives as needed, as necessity. Where lies essence of the action? To answer this question should start its own notion of consciousness respectively, from productive activity, by human work.

The problem of real freedom and human efficient not lies only in the fact that a man may choose but, as chooses and for what desides. Freedom can not be required in the arbitrariness of choise and the lack whatever the motivation but, in leadership of volition recognizing the natural and social laws. Freedom should not be understood as a gift but, as an attempt to create it.

Discussions

Fichte, as Descartes, begins with "I think so, I am" after brings this statement to mind that ego as an activity is knowledge. Ego according to what he presents is source categories and ideas but, all concepts reduced in a synthesis through thought. Each concept has a logical structure which includes three main phases;

Thesis→ ego

Antithesis→ non-ego

Synthesis→ unity of ego and non-ego

Freedom is a reality, source of all other realities and is not a given empirical. On the contrary, it is a self-realization, a self-development that rational subject creates itselfs. The state as an important element represents at its core a condition of justice and law.

Fichte recognized as one founding figures of the movement known as "German philosophical idealism". It was a move that took place by theoretical and ethical writings of Kant.

Freedom, according to Kant, subjected to moral law. There is no moral law, even justification without freedom3. Reputation of Fichte at the present time is in some respects curious.

There is an uncompromising insistence certainly practical of human freedom and a full commitment in the task to provide an account exceptional experience that may explain the objectivity and the need for theoretical reason in a manner consistent to the affirmation of practical freedom to human.

From a particular philosophical point, he is regarded as an innovator which has played a crucial role in transformation of transcendental idealism of Kant in absolute idealism of his immediate successors.

Unceasing effort of his life was to "awaken" the people in order to regulate their thoughts on a spiritual life the true and real.

Conclusions and suggestions

Freedom, according to the concept of Fichte, not realized in self-hood because, it will not help being to act. Freedom realizes only in human society, within nature that surrounds her. In order that ego to become a reality, it separates itself in a majority of historical subjects to understand the moral relations created between them. These relations are the source of natural rights. It is not enough freedom as theory but, even as practical.

Let's see some of the "messages" of ethical philosophy of Fichte for freedom;

Always realize your determining.

Never fall in contrary with the definitions of your will.

Act in a way that your maxima do you consider as a law for themselves.

Limit your freedom, accept the goals of others.

Fichte seeks to promote human being in order to be able and conscientious to act morally. Society is where the ego sets its goals and operates to achieve freedom. Of course, we are being restricted in our actions, are free beings and freedom that every man possesses must to comply with normative standards of society. Ego exists because exists non- ego4. This is a state of equality in which all power is mutual, no one has more than the other.

This natural state of human equality, Hooker5, deems reasonable so clear and beyond doubt how

does it base of that obligation to mutual love between people, on which builds our obligations to each other. Wissenschaftslehre or theory of knowledge determines the possibility and validity of all human knowledge. This simple principle is security for self, what is in me, what I know.

According to Rousseau to surrender of liberty means that you have relinquished your quality as a human and your rights. Such a renunciation is incompatible with human nature because to remove each human freedom will mean to remove any morality of his actions6. Hegel argued that freedom7 is the dynamics of society. In this context, Fichte saw freedom as the possibility of human actions. Freedom, by its nature is a necessity of human activity, a wide field of action, complex, relative but, not absolute.

4 Fichte's thesis that people can realize their individuality through relationships with others is a provocative claim that greatly influenced subsequent philosophers and continues to be of interest today. Fichte, J. G. (2000). Foundations of natural right according to the principles of the Wissenschaftslehre. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, p. 13.

5 Richard Hooker (1554-1600), English theologian, author of the treaty The Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity (Laws of the congregation). He conveyed this idea of the social contract work and limiting royal power law.

6 Rousseau, J.J. Social Contract. London, p. 14.

his study suggests;

To intervene in order to organize by the respective institutions and specialists in this field to provide a series of publications address to students, parents and professors in order to increase the level of information dimensions of freedom.

To develop more training and qualification programs to enhance professional competence in the "identification" of freedom.

To prepare guides and ancillary materials to orient and guide the vital activity.

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Global Effects and Conditions of governance in an independent Kosovo

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Abstract

Global processes between 1990 and 2013 have initiated essential changes in the institutions, legal structure, economy, information, values, attitudes, decisions, and action. Additionally, global effects, depending on regions and countries, have taken specific characteristics. Specific effects were noticed in the transition countries. The crisis and reforms in these countries and societies were a result of local efforts to change the conditions in all levels. In order to achieve these goals, transition countries, needed support from developed countries and global organizations. Even though, global processes were advanced, global organization and international law were unreformed and inefficient. The activity and the determination of the Kosovo society to overcome the situation compelled the International Community towards establishing attitudes, making decisions and acting, among others, in the case of Kosovo. Kosovo, as a country that belongs to all communities and citizens, is a specific case. The governing processes and institutions are directly influenced by the International Community and global effects. This Kosovo specific governing process is a compound of two processes, specific Kosovo circumstances and global effects in the region. A special approach should be applied when global effects are evaluated and analyzed in the case of Kosovo, of special interest the practical and theoretical activity, for understanding problems, circumstances, and causes as well as the way towards surpassing obstacles and the advancement of positive processes in governing, institutions and development. Effective governance in Kosovo should aim to create the enabling environment prerequisites for the development and integration process. This is the key role, function and essential obligation of this process. Gonverning institutions in Kosovo should be an interacting and guarantee factor in regards to the development and integration processes. This role and function, in line with a democratic orientation, of the Kosova leadrship is beeing demanded by the society and the Internatnional community.

2. Introduction

Institutional and juridical consolidation

Legal and institutional consolidation in governance in the independent Kosovo, is based in The Ahtisaari Plan (Comprehensive Proposal for the Kosovo Status Settlement, March 2007) and international supervision of its implementation. Article 1.3 of Ahtisaari 's Plan states: "Kosovo shall adopt a Constitution. The Constitution of Kosovo shall prescribe and guarantee the legal and institutional mechanisms necessary to ensure that: Kosovo is governed by the highest democratic standards, and to promote the peaceful and prosperous existence of all its inhabitants. The Constitution shall include, but not be limited to the principles and provisions contained in Annex I of this Settlement". This plan provides for the regulation of political and legal system in general, and some areas are defined in detail. In Article 1.1 (General Principles) it stipulates that: "Kosovo shall be a multi-ethnic society, which shall govern itself democratically, and with full respect for the rule of law, through its legislative, executive, and judicial institutions". The Ahtisaari Plan defines Kosovo as a multiethnic democratic society, non-religious, with Albanian and Serbian as official languages, with a market economy and open and free competition. It provides key elements for minority rights and a strong form of decentralized local governance at the municipal and central level, in particular for the northern Serb minority community.

Positive ratings come from all relevant international institutions regarding the implementation of the Ahtisaari Plan. An analysis conducted by Gerard.M.Galluci in 2011 in the context of affiliation on Serb northern municipalities states that the Ahtisaari Plan provides a framework for a functioning multiethnic democracy, although all minorities in Kosovo constitute about 8 % of the population. The aim was for the Serbian minority to be provided with a special status in order to integrate and eliminate destructive policies of Serbia towards Kosovo. In the case of Kosovo there were no interethnic conflicts, but it was the exploitation of the Serb minority by dominant Serbian policies and international toleration. Serbia's destructive policies aim was the prevention of the creation of institutions and establishment of the governance of Kosovo as an independent state, not for the interests and rights of the Serb minority. In order to limit the obstacles of Serbia solutions included in Ahtisaari plan became eligible for the kosovars, given that Kosovo is not a pronounced multiethnic society. But

the real solution of this problem is done by preventing the intrusive policies of Serbia and its allies against the independence of Kosovo because the effects of these policies are reflected in the governance.

With the establishment of international guidance the Assembly proclaimed the Declaration of Independence on 17th of February 2008. International recognition followed, with a significant number of countries with a global impact accepting it. Kosovo's constitution (2008) determined the character, functions and organization of the institutions. All the definitions and governing authority of institutional powers were consolidated in compliance with the requirements of the Ahtisaari Plan, by guaranteeing all ethnic groups, civil rights, especially in regards to the Serb minority in Kosovo. The Constitution defined the political and legal system: parliamentary republic with a system of governance similar to that of Western democracies and transition countries . A unique state with a decentralized local municipal government. The constitutional politics fits the level and goals of the democratic society of Kosovo. The constitution of Kosovo represents the basic solutions to government and institutional processes according to democratic standards. The Constitution , as the supreme legal act of the Republic of Kosovo in Chapter I on Basic Provisions, Article 16.2, Supremacy of the Constitution states: "The Power to Govern stems from the Constitution". Chapter I , Article 2.1 on Sovereignty defines "The sovereignty of the Republic of Kosovo stems from the people, belongs to the people and is exercised in compliance with the Constitution through elected representatives, referendum and other forms in compliance with the provisions of this Constitution". By expressing the supremacy of this act and its constitutionality in the governing process, Chapter I, Article 16.2 defines: "The Constitution is the highest legal act of the Republic of Kosovo. Laws and other legal acts shall be in accordance with this Constitution". In Article 4.1 [Form of Government and Separation of Power]: "Kosovo is a democratic Republic based on the principle of separation of powers and the checks and balances among them as provided in this Constitution".

In accordance with the Constitution, laws, procedures and other relevant regulations, all institutions were constituted according to powers and responsibilities. International Court of Justice in The Hague UN on the 22nd of July 2010, published a positive advisory opinion concerning the legality of Kosovo's declaration of independence in 2008, noting that there is no contradiction on United Nations Resolution 1244, adopted by the Security Council. Among the major successes is the end of international supervision of independence (September 2012), which marked the completion of the implementation of the criteria required by the Martti Ahtisaari package. So, with this the constitutional preconditions, legal and organizational functioning, the establishment of institutions and governance of the Republic of Kosovo were completed. However, this governance did not reach the north.

3.. Model, methods and research questions

This study used multiple viewpoints on appropriate methods for understanding the causes, consequences, and variable correlations and effects. This study focused on researching specific facts related to Kosovo and in understanding the interpretation of local and international legal acts that relate to and interact with the processes on the Kosovar governance while employing models and strategies of research on comparisons, evaluations, observation ethnography, grounded theory, and evaluating the facts and processes related to the topic on the above mentioned area. This study used the experimental model represented through active and passive observations which is a time limited study of concrete phenomena. Furthermore, the study conducted analysis of monitoring reports of international institutions on governance and Kosovo institutions, analysis of reports of the institutions themselves and ports of civil society organizations, and independent monitoring agencies of the government of Kosovo. Comparisons were drawn with modern views of theories on the conditions and objectives of democratic governance.

The purpose and contribution of this paper lies in finding the answers to the questions: What are global effects, causes, consequences, challenges, activities and effects of governance in the years 2008-2013? Which are the challenges which kosovar insitutions and government face after independence and in the future? How to achieve qualitative effects of governance? What are the negative trends in governance and institutions, and how to overcome them?

4. Conditions and the effects of governance

Kosovar institutional and governing quality represents an essential factor in the development and integration process. After the independence of Kosovo in 2008, the preconditions were created for governance and institutional organization based on constitutional and legal definitions in accordance with democratic standards and international law. Successful developments have occurred on governance and the legal and institutional environments of the regional security however, there is still a need for more efficient, higher quality and more effective legal and political order. Processes, decisions, actions and neglect of the international community had and continue to have a special role in the institutional developments

and political processes of governance in and around Kosovo. However, this is dependent on the social, cultural and political forces of Kosovo. The governance process has faced adverse conditions: a) the absence of a plural democratic tradition; b) low level of economic development hence business environment unfit; c) delay in transition reforms; d) external obstacles such as the political business culture of the past; d) the concentration of power on the existential resource sectors; e) negative phenomenon in institutions; lack of genuine opposition etc. All these circumstances are affecting directly Global effects the characteristics of governance and institutional efficiency.

a) Tradition and socio-cultural circumstances

The socialist system, national oppression of Albanians in Yugoslavia, suspension of autonomy in 1989, violations of the population and the democratic processes in Kosovo had direct consequences on the lack of democratic governing tradition. Even during the international administration as a result of the lack of status, Kosovo's political parties had very little competences in the process joint governance. Democratic governance requires as a prerequisite a preexisting democratic political and cultural tradition in governance. In Kosovo this tradition lacked as a result of past governance. Cultural theories speak of the cultural tradition of religious affiliations of the population in the form and effects of the government. In Kosovo, we have a culture with a large secular scale, and this is impacting positively on democratic governance, in comparison to other countries loaded with fundamental religions. In Kosovo, we have separation of state from religion and public life, we have no impact of religious fundamentalism in the politics and state. The cultural values are not at the right level, which are an essential prerequisite for the quality of democratic governance, such as voter - elite consensus, altruistic values towards the community, positive traditions towards institutions, traditions of respect for human rights and the law, education and understanding about the costs and benefits of democratic government, knowing the long-term costs of unfit governance, optimism, attitude toward equality, against corruption, against that past attitudes, interpersonal relationships, establishing democracy etc. The following are still not at the right level: respect for individual freedom, the idea of equality, trust in the power of speech, the importance of persuasion, rhetoric, and constructive debate and compromise. We lack the tradition of respecting individual rights, we have primarily put the family and clan before the individual, prone to violence, poor separation of powers, the tendency for government undemocratic concentration of power over the economy and income as a result underdevelopment and the lack of competition in the private sector etc. Therefore, to achieve appropriate governance effects, we have to advance urgently these essential values through multiple ways. In this regard goes the doctrine of human development. Institutionalized cultural and human values which are legally protected are required.

According to democratic theories (Inglehart & Wellzel, 2005) it is required that at least 45% of citizens are determined towards democratic governance. Therefore, the problem lies in the Kosovo governance, because, as a result of the concentration of power, unemployment, poverty, political values and culture, media etc. Voters run after parties and leaders benefits in the public sector, not for genuine democratic governance. Of importance are also the following: work habit, approach towards business and property, sense of responsibility, displaying self values, but also the socio-economic level and economic processes which create new motif and cultural values of governing.

b) Economic Development Level

Favorable environment for democratic governance and its goal is sustainable economic development. Martin Lipset emphasized that: "The richer a country is, the greater are the opportunities to save democracy" (1959). This applies also to the Republic of Kosovo in order to see results and effects on democratic governance it is a necessity for sustainable economic development and transformation of this increase in the development of other areas in Kosovo. The lack of private economic development is costing the government in Kosovo, because there is no distraction of power over existential resources. Without the private economic development sphere there is no democratic governance, no diversion of power, and no advanced civil society. However, without effective governance, rule of law and order, security, appropriate economic policies, administration, quality, quality public services, integration etc. which should be provided by good governance, there will be neither economic development nor a civil society. There is a mutual conditional correlation and interaction in order to overcome the situation. This challenge can and should be managed by adding political legitimacy to its effectiveness; by complementing government system functions in the rule of law; by protecting public interests and the interests of the majority of the population; structural conflict resolution; by politically integrating the middle and lower classes; by paying attention to distribution etc. The aim is to create preconditions for liberalization and a market economy; clear policies towards the successful development of medium and long term projects. All fields must be in favor of the development and future perspective because economic development reflects the opportunity for democratic governance and its sustainability. Nevertheless all this depends on strengthening the rule of law and the establishment of security,

infrastructural preconditions and public services. Clear development policies and the withdrawal of political and group power towards the economy is required; liberalization and intense economic cooperation, competition in the regional and global levels; political security and social security, and social security during the transformation. Specifically, preparation for integrating into the EU economy and the separation of the economy from the direct management of the state and government. Fukuyama , F. (2010; 142) seeks long-term economic liberalization on one hand, but requires strengthening institutions and other areas of safety and security on the other. In the absence of understanding, approach and implementation in some developing and transition countries he states that: "economic liberalization reforms failed to achieve its objectives in many countries. Indeed in some countries the lack of proper institutional framework left them worse after liberalization than they would be without implementing it at all. The problem lies in the basic conceptual failure to separate the different dimensions of the state and to understand how they relate to economic development". This is happening in politics, government and the Kosovo institutions , ranging from institutional framework , lack of economic liberalization , lack of strengthening key institutions and lack of rule of law as a primary necessity . In the absence of sincere intentions of the political elite and long-term development and in the failure to understanding the need to separation the roles of institutions in relation to the economy. Therefore, the lack of understanding towards how to influence economic development through strengthening of key political institutions and economic liberalization simultaneously. Consequently, there is a demand for the construction of the economy according to an open economy towards regional, European and world market, with an appropriate enforcement of regulatory policy, security and rule of law in other areas, and understanding that these non-economic functions of governance although seem indirect, are essential for economic development.

Stimulating economic and political cooperation promotes joint investments with foreign partners. The development of human capital in accordance with technological trends and market and competition laws in the regional and global level, for the Kosovo government should be the main priority noted the United Nations Development Programme (2009; 2010; 2011). The effective management of human resources and attractions of the capital in strategic investments and economic liberalization for Kosovo, which will bring rapid and sustainable development. WB, IMF, UNDP, CBK, (2008-2013). The statistics agency and local institutions, provide disturbing figures on poverty and unemployment in Kosovo. Kosovo's economy has a positive growth rate, but this is insufficient for a sustainable development and reduction of the trade deficit, poverty and unemployment. Privatization and many other services in Kosovo are associated with groups and corrupt power, as a result of lack of rule of law and order. The role and function of Kosovar governance is to create an environment for economic growth and development in all areas which benefits the wellbeing and the human development of every citizen in Kosovo.

However according to the findings of CBK (December, 2012) the Republic of Kosovo has managed to maintain macroeconomic stability. Economic growth continues to be positive, keeping the level of public debt reasonable. Pronounced dominance of the trade deficit, higher import rates in comparison to local manufacturing abilities of those products, very low export with export covering import only about 16%, are indicative of ineffective policies. Commercial banks provide inadequate loans, there is inflation, low investment and weak suction of local and foreign investments (CBK, 2010). Opportunities and some potential development factors exist: human capital, natural resources unused, and market which in a consistent macro-economic policy and rule of law, will activate these Kosovar economic potentials.

c) Deconcentration of power

Democratic governance in Kosovo seeks deconcentration of power resources in the society and economy: ownership, capital, knowledge, information, attraction of the partisan power from public services, efficient administration, freedom of movement and conditions for business activity. Without economic development of the private sphere in Kosovo, there can be no deconcentration of power, and no genuine civil society. All current employment and suvival opportunities are dependent on the public sphere, which are lead by party elites and groups of interest and pressure, created by the negative phenomena in institutions and governance which have become abusers of institutions. Kosovo government and institutions should protect the citizen from the pressure of pressure groups, corrupt groups in power and other groups associated with them. These groups and extreme concentration of power over existential resources are obstacles for democratic governance and are increasing uncertainties for investment and the genuine development of the private sphere of integration and competition. Voters in this situation of poverty, unemployment etc. are more easily manipulated by political demagogies and are running after power concentrators and occupants of the governancve and institutions believing in empty promises.

On the prerequisites of democratic governance Vanhanen (2003) stated that "the concentration of power resources leads to autocracy, and deconcentration of power sources in most cases in a democracy". In the deconcentration of power, many forms of decentralization play a role along with the development of the private sphere. Seymour Martin Lipset in the work Political Man (1960) required resource allocation of power resources in society and the economy in order for the power not to own these resources. In his view Lipset also introduces other indicators of resource allocation: sources of knowledge, economy, the state of the property, agricultural property, information etc. in relation to the government. In Kosovo the analyses and indicators of local and international monitors show multiple instances of institutional group power over economic public resources, knowledge, information etc. This reduction, and deconcentration of power over the economy, does not mean the destruction of the state and institutions, on the contrary, it requires strengthening the effectiveness and of institutions in the areas of rule of law according to the constitution. Without this there are no appropriate institutions, or economic development in Kosovo. This requires the international community and the global economic integration processes. This is the message Fukuyama (2010; 175) passes on, A vital problem faced by poor countries that blocks their opportunities for economic development, is the inadequate level of institutional development. They do not need extended states, but need strong states and effective within the limited scope of essential state functions. Most of these problems were faced during the institutional development and governance in Kosovo.

d) Regional and international circumstances

Democratic governance is easier for countries that lie among the developed democratic countries. Unfortunately, Kosova did not have this position with regards to neighboring countries. Another important positive factor for the democratic governance in Kosovo are the integration processes of the region in the EU and its position in the market and golobal processes in the region. Changes after the 90s, the European integration processes, global processes in many areas, geographical position, exposing position of the global market, regional investments, etc. are a positive and influential force for concrete processes in Kosovo, of course, besides the engagement of the Kosovar factor. Negative impacts from Serbia and rivalities of contries with an impact countries reflected directly in the governing effects and the institutionalization in Kosovo. And all these factors created obstacles and delays in government reforms, integration and hence in the democratic consolidation in Kosovo. But global integration processes and activities of international organizations are affecting Kosovo, in order to incorporate conventions and practices of democratic governance which is useful in the constitutional order in respecting human rights, minority rights, rule of law and order. Therefore, the need for political, institutional, economic, legal and cultural reforms is evident.

e) Constitutional politics

An essential factor is considered to be the appropriate adjustment, clear and deliberate constitutional policies for effective governance, with predictions: the parliamentary system and balancing powers; proportional electoral system; guarantee of human rights under international conventions and standards (see: Chapter II Fundamental Rights and Freedoms); the rights of minority communities (see Chapter III Rights of Communities and theire Members); decentralization through local governance at the municipal level (Chapter X Local Government and Territorial Organization); After the independence in 2008, concrete successes have been achieved in the legal and institutional consolidation of governance, but an effective and quality implementation of political and legal order; rule of law, is requried by fighting negative phenomena in institutions in order to prevent the alienation of the policy goals in regards to constitutional governance.

Legal obligations, constitutional law, separation of powers etc. limit the power in relation to political rights and freedoms and social rights of individuals. Rule of Law according to Wolfganag Merkel sets the following: political -institutional determinants and "partial regimes, encompassing and free elections, the political rights to participate, civil liberties, ensuring institutional control and security powers de jure and de facto power of the elected representatives" stresses Merkel (2010). However, without a political culture, without economic opportunities, deconcentration of power, favorable international position and integration it is difficult to achieve effective democratic governance. The model of limiting government control of society, the opposition, the right, the balance of powers , decentralization , international law, distribution of resources, values, democratic attitudes and behaviors, international atmosphere and global processes however, are providing an environment relatively suitable for institutional processes and democratic governance in Kosovo .

5. Negative phenomena in institutions

In Kosovo government, occupation occurred by party leaderships and the penetration of corrupt groups in institutions and not fighting negative phenomena in institutions for a long time. These circumstance causes, affected the quality of institutional functions at the level of implementation of roles and powers of the parliament itself as the basic institution of parliamentary democracy, and consequently other institutions. Non-compliance to law, the lack of autonomy of powers and mutual lack of control, especially of parliament over the executive. Ineffective judiciary towards high-level corrupt individuals, lack of proper functioning of the electoral process, caracteristics of political parties and of their leadership have brought consequences on the growth of corruption and organized crime, as well as failing to fight it.

Negative phenomena in institutions are damaging the state budget, economy and society: by preventing and distorting public investments and by creating uncertainty for potential internal and external investors. These phenomena are directly impacting on economic underdevelopment, insecurity, the quality of public and administrative services, and the delayed integration. Therefore, specific measures and governanment reforms to overcome the situation are mandatory. The World Bank Director for Southeast Europe, Jane Armitage, in an interview, (November, 2012) by demanding reforms in these spheres in Kosovo states that "much work has to be done, fight corruption, improving the judiciary; all these are part of the business environment. When making business and business indicators, investors look at all these indicators". This situation continues because the Judiciary is still inefficient, not independent enough and connected to negative phenomena in government, while it is also under the pressure groups interest and pressure groups in higher institutions.

Functioning of the judiciary is essential to the rule of law, but is not yet independent and effective. In legal and constitutional terms it seems independent, but the actual aspect is rather differet. Kosovo in the opinions of citizens and monitoring organizations, whether international or local, qualifies as a state with a high level of corruption in: public enterprises, in the procurement process and in government spending. Employment in administration and other public spheres are due to nepotism and partisanship without regard towards professional and ethical qualities. There is a politicized public administration on party grounds and still unreformed enough.

Real competition of parties lacks as a result of negative phenomena induced in the party leadership itself, and through them in institutions. Races between them are not made for governing and program alternatives, but for embezzlement, misuse and group privileges. Therefore, debates between them are harsh, abusive, destructive and labeling. In all monitoring reports of local and international organizations and investigative, among others, indicate that the highest political elites are corrupt through manipulating the privatization process, and tenderes' misuse and in the procurement process, the costs of unchecked government budget from misuse donor funds, corrupt public-private partenerships, nepotism etc. These groups apart from pressures and corruption, informality, organized crime and smuggling are hindering democratization and constitutional and legal legal functioning of institutions. They manipulate and distort the electoral process and the manipulation of public opinion through the dependent media, blackmail, demagoguery, etc. These groups bring their loyal individuals in major institutions and independent agencies. These phenomena and their holders are hampering democratic governance and consequently, are hampering economic growth, development and integration of other areas. Corruption in Kosovo is part of the system. The holders of power and institutions are involved in such phenomena. According to Global Corruption Barometer (July 2013) political parties have been identified as the area most affected by corruption in Kosovo, and government efforts to combat it are extremely inefficient. Kosovo in 2012 ranked 105th on the list of most corrupt countries (July, 2013).

Combating the aboved mentioned negative phenomena can be achieved by coordinating the activity of: citizens, opposition political parties and new leadership, with the clear support of the positive international factor. Unity and coordination of these factors can produce results by consolidating the integrity of institutions and governance process. Starting from transparency, changing the structure of consciousness and voter values, consolidating and respecting democratic principles of the electoral process and the legitimacy of institutions. Returning thus the efficiency and integrity of institutions. Empowerment of civil society, independent media , critic and analysis. Effective international support through pressures, but also by speeding up the integration is more than necessary. Sustainable economic development represents a necessity for democracy, but it can not be achieved without accountable and effective governance and institutions, it cannot be achieved without preliminary effects of security, order and law and without supporting the integration.

Consolidation of the justice system with bold and independent staf in reagards to corrupt politics is a step forward, but it requires support of all institutions and citizens. The head of the European Commission Liaison Office in Kosovo (Khaldun, 2012) at the end of the term, in an interview emphasized that: "the fight against corruption, reform of the electoral system, reform of public administration, economic development of the country, are some of conditions that institutions must meet if they want to lead the country towards EU integration". He further notes in his interview "except institutions which have an

obligation to fight corruption, one must remember that corruption is a problem of society and mentality". Therefore, there is a demand for changing multilateral commitments in the creation of values, knowledge and attitudes of voters; consolidation of opposition with leaders and staff with integrity; pressure and support from civil society; outside support through policy support and through the acceleration of integration. International support is effective and necessary because by identifying the causes and actors, informing, pressures and through the acceleration of the integration process, mobilizes citizens and the genuine opposition to act against negative phenomena. It enables the emergence of new opposition forces and their support.

6. Integration processes

There is no development in areas, integration with countries and regional and international organizations without the presence of capacity and quality of proper democratic governing institutions in Kosovo. In the case of Kosovo, it is imperative in all processes undergone and current ones. Therefore, the role and impact of governance quality is essential for developmental processes related to the national, regional and global integration processes. Kosovar society and politics should always be aware and prepared to create preconditions for positive and inevitable global processes to overcome the obstacles of negative hegemonic policies in the Balkans. These obstacles are multidimensional, and vocal against Kosovar integration. Therefore, Kosova by empowering institutions and governance quality, best exceeds these obstacles and together with positive international partners consolidates the integrity and international position of the state of Kosovo. Even the International Community in the basic requirements for integration is seeking quality and efficiency in governance, institutionalization and a democratic culture. Governance and democratic order in Kosovo reflects international peace and security in the region and beyond. Fukuyama points out that the lack of effective and lawful governance creates internal instability and has direct consequences in international stability (2010).

Although there were deficiencies, delays, contradictions, Kosovo has benefited greatly from the support given by the EU, U.S. and other countries and numerous international organizations. It has received considerable assistance, direct, institutional, legal, and financial governance. Conclusion of the Stabilisation and Association Agreement will contribute to the opening of Kosovar society. But no one should have illusions that Kosovo's path towards EU membership is easy. Requirements for membership are set by the European Council. Candidate countries, including Kosovo, should follow common values set out in the Treaty of Union and they are required to have achieved stability of institutions and democratic governance, as well as the existence of a competitive market economy, adopt and fully implement laws and standards of the EU , the so-called "acquis communautaire". This is a long process and a difficult one. While the EU will continue providing any kind of assistance. Results depend on Kosovo itself, from its leadership and citizens. For Kosovo it would be vital to be in the process of integration and integrated into the EU. This is the challenge of the Kosovar governing and institutional processes, together with the international community.

7. Northern issue and relations with Serbia

Legal solutions to the Ahtisaari Plan included in full in the Constitution and the political and functional legal system of Kosovo, as well as the successful integration of the Serb minority (except north), are undeniable arguments, and successful practices for solving problems of the north i.e. its integration. Even the international attitudes are clear that there is no change of borders on ethnic grounds. Therefore, Serbia's destructive role in the institutionalization of government in this part of Kosovo is being restricted. The Ahtisaari plan, Kosovo Constitution and the integration of the Serb minority in other parts of the Republic of Kosovo, are facts that indicate the guarantee and most advanced solutions in the region for the rights of the Serbian community in local and central government, the most significant democratic standards.

The diplomat Rohan (2012), as Ahtisaari's deputy in Vienna talks for setting the status of Kosovo, on the opening of negotiations for the normalization of relations between Kosovo and Serbia, in the context of north states that Ahtisaari Plan contains a substantial autonomy for the northern Kosovo Serbs. Therefore, he argues, any departure from this plan creates complications in the political and legal system of the Republic of Kosovo. This has been understood by all parties. Republic of Serbia also forced by domestic and integration needs, has begun to change the approach towards Kosovo and the north. Strengthening democratic institutions and the Kosovo government at all levels will affect the quality integration of this community and territory. The essence of the results of the negotiations for the north, in the spirit of the normalization of relations between Kosovo and Serbia under the mediation of the European Commission, Brussels (2013) is seen in the 15 point agreement , signed by prime ministers Thaci and Dacic. The key points of the Agreement are:

1. There will be an Association/Community of Serb-majority municipalities in Kosovo. Membership will be open to any other municipality provided the members are in agreement.
2. The Community/Association will be created by statute. Its dissolution shall only take place by a decision of the participating municipalities. Legal guarantees will be provided by applicable law and constitutional law (including the 2/3 majority rule).

3. The structures of the Association/Community will be established on the same basis as the existing statute of the Association of Kosovo municipalities e.g. President, vice President, Assembly, Council.

4. In accordance with the competences given by the European Charter of Local Self Government and Kosovo law the participating municipalities shall be entitled to cooperate in exercising their powers through the Community/Association collectively. The Association/Community will have full overview of the areas of economic development, education, health, urban and rural planning.

5. The Association/Community will exercise other additional competences as may be delegated by the central authorities.

6. The Community/Association shall have a representative role to the central authorities and will have a seat in the communities' consultative council for this purpose. In the pursuit of this role a monitoring function is envisaged.

7. There shall be one police force in Kosovo called the Kosovo Police. All police in northern Kosovo shall be integrated in the Kosovo Police framework. Salaries will be only from the KP.

8. Members of other Serbian security structures will be offered a place in equivalent Kosovo structures.

This agreement clearly defines the form of the Association of Municipalities with Serb-majority in northern Kosovo, determining that "In accordance with the competences given by the European Charter of Local Self Government and Kosovo law the participating municipalities shall be entitled to cooperate in exercising their powers through the Community/Association collectively" (Point 4). "The Association/Community will exercise other additional competences as may be delegated by the central authorities" (Point 5). Local government as a form of decentralization represents one of the most essential and necessary principles of governance and democratic institutions. In Kosovo this is so in the municipal level and is the most advanced in the region.

Municipalities are enjoying a high degree of local self-government in the decision-making process of local authorities and are providing the necessary participation of all citizens. Kosovo's constitution in Chapter X on Local Government and Territorial Organization Article 123.4 [General Principles] defines "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".

Municipalities have the right to inter-municipal and inter-border cooperation in areas of their own and enhanced competences. This is defined in Chapter X, Article 124 [Local Self-Government Organization and Operation] p. 3-7:

3. 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.

4. Municipalities have the right of inter-municipal cooperation and cross-border cooperation in accordance with the law.

5. Municipalities have the right to decide, collect and spend municipal revenues and receive appropriate funding from the central government in accordance with the law.

6. Municipalities are bound to respect the Constitution and laws and to apply court decisions.

7. 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.

Municipal governance represents advancement of democratic governance according to European standards and practices of local government. Chapter X on Local Government and Territorial Organization Article 123.3. states "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". This is a requirement of all citizens and ethnic communities of the Republic of Kosovo, for development and prosperity for all.

To realize all these rights and purposes of local interest municipal competencies have also been regulated and functionalized: a. Local economic development; b.Urban and rural planing; c. Usage and land development; d. Implementation of building regulations and building control standards; e. Local environmental protection; f. Affiliation and maintenance of public services and utilities, including appropriate water supply, sewerage and drainage, waste

management, local roads, local transport and local heating schemes. Central authorities in Kosovo delegate responsibility to the municipalities as municipal powers in the following matters: a.Territorial registry; b. civil registers; c. Voter registration; d. Registration and licensing of businesses; e. Distribution of social assistance payments (excluding pensions) and f. Protection of forests.

Municipal activities in areas of their own competencies are defined in ensuring compliance with the Constitution and the law in force. This is done by administrative review of municipal acts as foreseen in the Article 6-7 of Constitution's Chapter X:

6. Municipalities are bound to respect the Constitution and laws and to apply court decisions.

7. 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.

Municipal Local government is carrying out its functions successfully in all municipalities even in the Serb-majority ones in other parts of Kosovo, exept the north. Even the Association of Municipalities with Serb-majority in northern Kosovo, has no reason not to work as in other municipalities. Northern Municipal Association will be established in order to implement the constitutional and legal local government and in accordance with the competencies of central authority. Now the question is how to integrate this part as fast and as successfully for it to be institutionalized and governed in accordance with the Constitution; according to the quite advanced central government and local municipal government, according to the European Charter of Local Self-Government. The constitution and the legal and political order of Kosovo is unique with its advanced and functional local municipal governments and with substantive representation and participate in decision-making of minority communities in the central level. Therefore, there is no reason for any form of destructive presence that would ultimately undermine the multi-ethnicity and the democratic determination of kosovar governance.

8. Conclusion

After the declaration of independence (2008) until 2014, the legal form (Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo in 2008) and effective concrete results expressed in the reports of international monitoring institutions (WB, UNDP. UN, IMF, OECD, EC, Freedom House, etc.), the opinions of citizens from many self assessments of political institutions, media, civil society, as well as monitoring, analysis of my estimates, we can conclude that Global Effects and Conditions of governance in an independent Kosovo the Kosovo government and institutions during this period took these effective governing features:

The governance through independent institutions, legitimate and functional according to legal provisions has begun. There are visible and concrete results, but it was not the right quality of leadership and officials in representative institutions such as the executive, judicial, administrative, public service or other independent institutions. There is special warning regarding the prosecution and the judiciary institutions, which were not effective against negative phenomena in institutions, and had no serious support from the main political institutions.

There are no clear economic development policies. There has been a delay in creating suitable conditions for the businesses. There is a lack of reforms and clear economic and macroeconomic policies. Economic policies so far are not concrete and specific; they are not mid-term and long-term project and strategies for sustainable economic development.

The authority and legitimacy of institutional governance is perceived negatively by citizens as a result of negative phenomena of certain groups in the party leadership and institutions.

Competition between parties is unprincipled: followed by accusations, slander and insults and not enough coordination in positive decision-making.

There is a lack of genuine opposition forces. As a result, there is low participation in elections and lack of qualitative and quantitative participation of citizens in the political process.

Impunity by the courts of holders of negative phenomena in institutions and the interference of politics in law.

Failure to punish subjects and their leaders by citizens through their vote as a result of emotional voters with a charged political awareness of the past and not enough cognitive, as well as the high concentration of power over public resources and the not sufficiently independent media.

Serious violations of democratic principles in the electoral process which are affecting in the decrease of legitimacy, authority and effectiveness of government and instutions.

The proportional electoral system influenced somewhat the coordination, cooperation and inter-party tolerance and reduced tension between them in the governing process and institutional functions. As a result of electoral proportionality, we are

not faced with two tyraning majorities, but with some medium level parties forced into alliances and cooperation in order to create a position and opposition.

There were and continue to be significant mediating interference from external factors in instiucionale crisis resolution and decision-making processes.

Ethnical tolerance is increasing.

Efforts to eliminate opposing political figures through undemocratic methods, unconstitutional and illegal, are fading. Tyrany as a method of political activity is decreasing.

Rational civic courage and political activity has begun to increase. The civil society through NGOs is continuously consolidating. The media have also raised the level of independence, analysis and criticism. But the latter still show bias toward partisanship.

Stratification and pluralistic structure of Kosovar society is missing, as a result of economic underdevelopment in manufacturing and service providing private spheres.

Protection from external attacks is being carried out by international military forces and the accompanying policies of the International Community. The defence and surveillance of the border as well as the internal security are done by Kosovo police. Kosovo still lacks the military with its roles and functions.

Law enforcement is not at the right level, but everyone is becoming aware about the situation and consequences. There are concrete efforts and demands, pressures and support from abroad to improve this essential area for democratic governance, without which there are no democratic government functions and effects in any sphere.

Self-protection is done by the internal security institutions, supervised and controlled by institutional civil forces and the justice system.

Cultural support and consolidation of democratic values in governance, economy, in respecting human and minority rights, gender equality etc. are growing.

Interpretation and protection of the constitutionality and legality of the governance is being done by the constitutional court, which also includes international representatives.

There is no development in areas, integration with countries and regional and international organizations without the presence of capacity and quality of proper democratic governing institutions in Kosovo. In the case of Kosovo, it is imperative in all processes undergone and current ones. Therefore, the role and impact of governance quality is essential for developmental processes related to the national, regional and global integration processes. Kosovar society and politics should always be aware and prepared to create preconditions for positive and inevitable global processes to overcome the obstacles of negative hegemonic policies in the Balkans. These obstacles are multidimensional, and vocal against Kosovar integration. Therefore, Kosova by empowering institutions and governance quality, best exceeds these obstacles and together with positive international partners consolidates the integrity and international position of the state of Kosovo. Even the International Community in the basic requirements for integration is seeking quality and efficiency in governance, institutionalization and a democratic culture

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Exploring the Use of Information and Communication Technology in Advancing the Goals of Education for All among Adults in Nigeria

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Abstract

Education is a right. Like the right to have proper food or a roof over your head. It is not only a right but a passport to human development. The ideas of Education for all is to expand early childhood care and education, provide free and compulsory primary education for all, promote learning and life skills for young people and adults, increase adult literacy, achieve gender parity and improve the quality of education. The paper sets to explore the use of information and communication technology in advancing the goals of education for all (stated above) among adults in Nigeria. Areas such as information and communication technology and distance learning, education for all; the place of adult education and information and communication technology and the attainment of education for all initiative will be examined.

Keywords: Education for All, Distance Learning, ICT, Adult Literacy, Adult Education, and Digital gap.

Introduction

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) refers to technologies that provide access to information through telecommunications. It is similar to Information Technologies (IT), but focuses primarily on communication technologies. This include the internet, wireless networks, cell phones and other communication mediums.

In the past few decades, information and communication technology have provided society with a vast array of new communication capabilities. For example, people communicate in real-time with others in different countries using technologies such as instant messaging, voice over IP (VO IP), and video-conferencing. Social networking website like Facebook allows users from all over the world to remain in contact and communicate on a regular basis.

Modern information and communication technologies have created a "global village" in which people can communicate with others across the world as if they were living next door. For this reason, ICT is often studied in the context of how modern communication technologies affect society.

Also, information and communication technology is an umbrella term that includes any communication device or application, encompassing: radio, television, cellular phones, computer and network hardware and software, satellite systems and so on, as well as the various services and applications associated with them, such as ICTs in education, health care, or libraries.

According to the European Commission, the importance of ICT lies in the technology itself than in its ability to create greater access to information and communication in underserved populations. Many countries around the world have established organizations for the promotion of ICTs, because it is feared that unless less technologically advanced areas have a chance to catch up, the increasing technological advances in developed nations will only serve to exacerbate the already-existing economic gap between technological "have" and "have not" areas. Internationally, the united nations actively promotes ICTs for Development (ICTAD) as a means of bringing the digital gap.

In developing country like Nigeria where the 'digital gap' is more the rule than the exception, delivering instruction through the distance mode presents a significant challenge to education. In a nation where the concern of most people is meeting their basic needs for food, clothing and shelter, access to information and communication technologies (ICT), especially the most modern ones, is very low on their list of priorities and oftentimes, not considered a priority at all.

Nonetheless, ICT has had a major impact on open and distance learning (ODL) in Nigeria. More than the availability of these technologies, issues such as geographical location, lack of knowledge and skills to use ICT, and financial constraints, are major considerations in deciding what ICT to use and in what combination. Indeed, the use of a particular ICT must not only seek to address certain pedagogical concerns, it must aim at bridging the digital divide and democratize access to quality education. Experience has shown that when a decision has been made to use a technology in ODL, this decision influences not only the teaching and learning environment, but leads to the development of new culture, concepts and understanding. Put simply, the introduction of ICT can alter or raise experience among users and institutions alike.

Education is a right, not only a right but a passport to human development. It open doors and expands opportunities and freedoms. It contributes to fostering peace, democracy and economic growth as well as improving health and reducing poverty. The ultimate aim of Education for All (EFA) is sustainable development.

Information and Communication Technology and Distance Learning:

Distance education, distance learning or D-learning is a mode of delivering education and instruction, often on an individual basis, to students who are not physically present in a traditional setting such as a classroom. Distance learning provides "access to learning when the source of information and the learners are separated by time and distance, or both". Distance education courses that require a physical on-site presence for any reason (including taking examinations) have been referred to as hybrid or blended courses of study. Massive open online courses (MOOCs), aimed at large-scale interactive participation and open access via the web or other network technologies, are recent development in distance education.

ICTs use to support distance learning can be classified into two categories, the first being hardware and second being software. The hardware currently in use are roughly the same among all Nigerian institutions; radio, television, telephone (land, mobile, fax, voice over, internet Protocol or VO IP), and computers. ICTs have now converged thanks to recent advances and enhancement made to the infrastructure such as laying of fiber optic cables and satellite and microwave transmission facilities. What differ, however, are the levels of use and applications of specific hardware technologies and purpose driving their use.

Given the proliferation of cellular mobile telephone use across all sectors of the Nigerian society, it is becoming increasingly evident that this highly mobile form of technology and its infrastructure can be leveraged to deliver flexible educational opportunities to more and more Nigerian. In other words, simple low-cost cellular mobile telephones are now helping Nigerians bridge the once formidable digital gap.

There are wide variations in ICT used in open and distance learning (ODL) institutions around the world. Further, specific applications and combinations of these applications are very much shaped by the context of their target user populations. In Nigeria, the various ways and means in which ICTs are used include delivery instructional content.

Depending on learner needs and appropriate pedagogy, instructional contents are packaged in various formats using different media. As mentioned, the development of open distance learning mentioned, the development of open distance learning (ODL) in Nigeria witness instructional packages delivered in prints, audiotapes, videotapes, and CD-ROM. In recent years, going online has made Web-enhanced teaching and learning possible, using rich online resources to supplement and update instructional materials vis-à-vis attaining the goals of education for all.

Other academic institutions, however have explored the potentials of mobile devices such as cell phones, Ipad etc, for educational purposes. These initiatives tend to be geared towards the augmenting that traditional face-to-face instructional offerings. Such is the case the text 2 teach project of the Department of Education in Philippines which integrates digital satellite broadcast and mobile phone communications to deliver science materials via video broadcast directly from the classroom (Domigo, 2006). The Advance Science and Technology Institutes of the Department of Science and Technology, Philippines, has also been experimenting with Bluetooth, technology to connect various personal devices in close proximity to each other. Such research and development initiatives are now leading to new and potential avenues of further research, which educators must explore in their guest to provide learners with more innovative and practical method of delivering education at a distance.

Distance Learning and Education for All Initiative:

Education for All is a global movement lead by Unite Nation Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) aiming to meet the needs of all children, youths and adults by 2015.

UNESCO has been mandated to lead the movement and coordinates the international efforts to reach Education for All. Governments, development agencies, civil society, non-governmental organizations and the media are some of the partners working towards reaching these goals.

Distance learning can expand access to education and training for both general populace and businesses since its flexible scheduling structure lessons the effects of the many times-constraints imposed by personal responsibilities and commitments. Devolving some activities off-site alleviate institutional capacity constraints arising from the traditional demand on institutional building and infrastructure. Furthermore, there is the potential for increased access to more experts in the field and to other students from divers' geographical, social, cultural, economic and experiential background. As the population at large becomes more involved in lifelong learning beyond the normal schooling age, institutions can benefit financially, and adult learning business courses may be particularly lucrative. Distance education programmes can act as a catalyst for institutional innovation and at least as effective as face-to-face learning programmes, especially if the instructor is knowledgeable and skilled.

Distance education can also provide a broader method of communication within the realm of education. With the many tools and programmes that technological advancements have to offer, communication appears to increase in distance education amongst students and their professors, as well as students and their classmates. The distance educational increase in communication, particularly communication amongst students and their classmates is an improvement that has been made to provide distance education students with as many opportunities as possible as they would receive in in-person education. The improvement being made in distance education is growing in tandem with the constant technological advancements. Present day online communications allows students to associate with accredited schools and programmes throughout the world that are out of reach for in-person learning. By having the opportunity to be involved in global institutions via distance education, a diverse array of thought is presented to students through communication with their classmates. This is beneficial because students have the opportunity to "combine new opinions with their own, and develop a solid foundation for learning".

The high cost of education affects students in the higher education to which distance education may be an alternative in order to provide some relief. Distance education has been a more cost effective form of learning, and can sometimes save students a significant amount of money as opposed to traditional education. Distance education may be able to help to save students a considerable amount financially by removing the cost of transportation. In addition, distance education may be able to save student from the economic burden of high priced course textbooks. Many textbooks are now available as electronic textbooks, known as e-textbooks, which can offer digital textbook for a reduced price in comparison to traditional textbooks. Also, the increasing improvement in technology have resulted in many school libraries having a partnership with digital publishers that offers course material for free, which can help students significantly with educational costs.

Within the class, students are able to learn in ways that traditional classrooms would not be able to provide. It is able to promote good learning experiences and therefore, allow students to obtain higher satisfaction with their online learning. For example, students can review their lessons more than once according to their need. Students can then manipulate the course work to fit their learning by focusing more on their weaker topics while breezing through concepts that they already have or can easily grasp. When course design and the learning environment are at their optimal conditions, distance learning education can lead students to higher satisfaction with their learning experiences. Studied have shown that high satisfaction correlates to increased learning. Students who are enrolled in distances education with high satisfaction in their online coursework are then motivated intrinsically to learn, which often means that their performances in class will improve. For those in healthcare or mental health distance learning programs, online-based interactions have the potential to foster deeper reflections and discussion of client issues as well as quicker response to client issues, since supervision happens on a regular basis is not limited to a weekly supervision meeting. This also may contribute to the students feeling a greater sense of support, since they have ongoing and regular access to their instructors and other students.

Distance Learning may enable students who are unable to attend a traditional school setting, due to disability or illness such as decreased mobility and immune system suppression, to get a good education. Distance education may provide equal access regardless of socioeconomic status or income, area of residence, gender, race, age or cost per student. Applying universal design strategies to distance learning courses as they are being developed (rather than instituting accommodation for specific students on an as-need basis) can increase the accessibility of such courses to students with a range of abilities, disabilities, learning styles and native languages.

Distance Learning may also offer a final opportunity for adolescence that are no longer permitted in the General Education population due to behavior disorders. Instead of these students having no other academic opportunities, they

may continue their education from their homes and earn their school certificates, diplomas etc. offering them another chance to be an integral part of the society.

Education for All, the place of Adult Education.

Through adult education, education reaches the grassroots and the less privilege benefits. People who have an opportunity to continually learn and develop their skill and capacities will in turn; make our economy grow and develop, ensure that their children develop love of learning and take full advantage of education vis-à-vis the attainment of the goals of education for all. Adult educations make it possible for the participant to actively participate in their own communities and civil society. It makes it possible for beneficiaries of the education programmes to support and respect people with different cultural beliefs and abilities, respect and protect the environment for future generations, nurture creativity and imagination and live healthy and fulfilled lives. Therefore, to achieve the goals of education for all in 2015 adult education is highly indispensable. So, using adult education as a tool, make sense for individuals, families, communities, and our country as a whole.

In the past, it was taken for granted that the older you are, the more wisdom you have collected through life experiences and education over the years. These days, however many adults suffer from illiteracy and a lack of knowledge due to the minimal amount of emphasis that was place on education in the past. This has made it necessary for many individual not only in the African continent, but across the world to require some form of adult education so that they can improve their level of education.

The most important factor that affect the need for adult education is that the adult in the society are the people who are responsible for educating the next generation. It may be all good and well to say that this falls to the education and schooling system in a country, but this is not always the case. Education is now considered a basic human right, there are many cases where this is just not possible. A parent who has received adult education is the best educator for his or her children and can plant the necessary seeds within their children to make them hunger for knowledge and development.

Education is for all. Therefore, giving the benefit of education to just one person in a rural community has been shown to have enormous effect on the population group of that community.

ICT and the attainment of Education for All Initiatives:

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) should be harnessed to support EFA goals at an affordable cost. These technologies have great potential for knowledge dissemination, effective learning and development of more efficient education services. These potentials will not be realized unless the new technologies serve rather than drive the implementation of education strategies. To be effective especially in developing countries, ICTs should be combined with more traditional technologies such as books and radios, and be more extensively applied to the training of teachers.

There is need to tap the potentials of ICT to enhance data collection and analysis from central ministries through sub-national levels to the school; to improve access to education by remote and disadvantaged communities; to support initial and continuing professional development of teachers and provide opportunities to communicate across classrooms and cultures.

News media should also be engaged to create and strengthen partnership with education systems, through the promotion of local newspapers, informed coverage of education issues and continuing education programmes via public service broadcasting.

The best general outline to date of how ICTs can be utilized to help realize education for all and other education related MDGs can be found in UNESCO's applying New Technologies and cost-Effective Delivery System in Basic Education. i.e.

There is no alternative to primary education/schools technology based alternatives have not thrived.

Although computers have been used in primary schools, but in a modest way, sometimes mainly for games. Their more significant use is at levels above that of basic education.

Radio, not limited to interactive radio instruction, can enrich basic education and do so at costs much more modest than those of television or computers.

The scale of the demand for junior secondary education and the increased capacity and maturity of students who have completed primary schooling suggested that there may be an important role for the application of technologies to raise quality and widen access at this level.

The record of using mass media for public, adult and non-formal education in areas such as health, citizenship, family planning and agriculture is patchy, but the technologies available are widely understood and the social and educational needs so great that there is a case for continuing investment and activity hereby government and non-governmental organizations alike.

The use of communication technologies intermediaries, teachers and extension agents can have a multiplier effect and is likely to have cost advantages over conventional ways of supporting and updating them. They have the potentials to reduce the isolation of remote, rural teachers and so raise the quality of their work.

If the development of new technologies is not to widen gap between north and south or between the information-rich and the information-poor, national policies are necessary that will explore ways of making cost-effective use for them in vocational education and training and possibly at the higher levels of formal education.

There are models for out-of-school equivalence at this level, and the potential for developing and making available teaching materials that can be used both in school and out of school.

Recommendations

Resources and materials that enhance effective and efficient use of information and communication technology (ICT) should be provided for academics teachers, students and practioners alike.

Information on all aspect of internet safety and responsible use should be provided to avoid negative usage.

Government and other relevant agencies should establish and interactive environment in which technology (ICT) is used to advance the goals of education for all.

Conclusion

The paper seeks to explore the use of information and communication technology in attaining the goals of education for all. Information and communication technology and distance learning, distance learning and education for all initiative, education for all: the place of adult education and the potential of ICT in the attainment of the goals of education for all initiative were the areas considered during the course of research of the paper vis-à-vis the advancement of the goals of education for all (EFA).

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IMPACT OF MUNICIPALITIES ON BRANDING PROCESS OF CITIES: EXAMPLE OF KIRŞEHİR MUNICIPALITY

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Abstract

In current times dominated by globalization, competition focused on enterprises and based on products became less sufficient and cities have become a part of the said competition perception. The focal point in competition of cities springs to life in brand and/or branding concepts. It is certain that there are many positive aspects of city branding, which can be assessed as gaining value based on the unique properties of each city, and a city should participate the process with all its stakeholders. At this point the prominent element of the process and the leading institution that will ensure success is the municipality. Municipalities gain importance as an administrative unit with principal responsibility in development and obligation of multi dimensional duty and service. A good branding process should be supported by internal and external sources. The history of the city and geographical, cultural and economic properties of the city are external factors supporting the branding process. in marketing external factors, i.e.: revealing physical properties and thus promoting their use and making the city a centre of attraction, municipality administrators and employees have vital duties and responsibilities. The extent of support the municipality administrators lend to branding process, which yields results in the long term are vital to the process. This study will examine the importance Kırşehir Municipality attaches to branding process, the sources it uses to support the process, the properties of the city it uses to turn the city into a centre of attraction, the bodies and institutions it cooperates at home and abroad, projects supporting the process, awareness raising projects among its employees and the approach of the administrators and the employees to the branding process. Within this scope it is planned to inspect the strategic plan, activity report, performance program and web page of Kırşehir Municipality and issue reports based on the results accompanied with recommendations. Finally, it is our hope that this study focusing on Kırşehir will contribute highly to literature.

Key Words: Branding, Branding Process, Municipiality, Local Governments

Introduction

Each city's own features and the differences thereof from other cities gives an idea how distinctive they are as a brand and what kind of characteristic features they have in today's world when the cities have also began to become a part of the competition. Cities differ from each other with their own intrinsic and extrinsic properties and this situation constitutes the most significant basis of their brand value.

At this point, it has to be measured how and to what extent the city's internal and external stakeholders contribute to this process of branding. City-branding which can be defined as the process of gaining value of each city basing on the intrinsic properties thereof definitely has many positive results and to this end the city has to be involved in the process with all the stakeholders thereof. At this point, one of the most essential institutions of the process and which will ensure the success of the process are the municipalities. Municipalities have importance due to their being an administrative unit which has primary responsibility in the development of the city and inasmuch as they have numerous functions and services obligations.

In this study, the effect of municipalities as an internal stakeholder on the branding process of a city basing on the definition of the brand concept will be measured through the sample of the Municipality of the Kırşehir province. The basic criteria while doing this will be the general view and approach of the municipality in question to the branding process and by which parties it is in collaboration with and which resources it employs in this process. Finally, such documents as the strategic plan, activity report and performance program as well as the web page of the Municipality of the Kırşehir province will be examined and assessments will be based on the results of the examinations. in this way, the current situation of the said city as to the process of branding will be reflected while contribution will be made regarding the creation of a prediction for the future. Hence, the study bears importance in terms of providing guidance to academics showing interest to the subject of brand city as well as practitioner parties and all other parties who are authorized in the branding processes of the cities.

Process of City Branding and Impact of Municipalities on the Process

Much as brand is a concept that can be considered and defined in different ways, its widely accepted definition is: "a name, symbol, design, and combination thereof which defines the products and services of a company and which is employed to distinguish and differentiate such company from the opponents thereof" (Kotler, 1997:443). However, it can be observed that brand only does not have a limited meaning to products or services; the key principles in the concept of branding are trust, quality, equity, ownership and communication. in this context, countries, cities, and people can also be brands and each and every brand owns a personality. The culture and the people who have created it play a complementary role in this kind of understanding of branding and create the essence of branding. in this context, some brands may reflect passion while some other brands may evoke a sense of nobility. The most important thing at this point is trust. The bottom line is the fact that brands must primarily establish trust with the target audiences thereof (Alaş, 2014; Aitken and Campelo, 2011:1).

A number of techniques are utilized for brand development and positioning. in a study made by Aaker (cited by Eroglu, 2007:66-67 from Aaker, 1996:340-34), these techniques have been discussed in several stages. First and foremost, a strategic brand analysis which is a process in which competitors and targets are analyzed; then a brand identity which can be remembered and which has defining, believable, interesting, applicable and maintainable features has to be created at the second stage. Creation of brand identity actually helps to give an idea to the target audience where a person, a company, a city and even, a country, would like to see where such target audience would like to see them. To develop value proposition which is the third stage aims to reveal not only the physically distinctive features but also the emotionally distinctive features of the brand the creation of which is intended. The next stage is positioning the brand in the minds of the target audience by using distinctive features. Positioning process is carried out through utilization of not only the distinctive features of the person, company, city and the country for which creation of brand is intended only but also by utilization of the persons, companies, cities and the countries which are in the position of competitors.

Basing on this fact, to become a brand city may also mean to use concepts, strategies, methods and techniques related with the brand for the city. The efforts of cities to come to the fore as a brand is based on economic reasons. However, cities in the developing and globalizing world also need to be brand due to causes such as "the growing power of the international media", "decrease in international travel costs", " increase in spending power of consumers' ", " increase in similarity of cities in terms of the services offered" and " increase in people's interest to different cultures" (Ozdemir and Karaca, 2009:115; Zeran, 2011:36).

The properties of cities are the basic elements which allow them to have a brand as a value in terms of the branding axis. A city's historical, geographical, cultural and economic characteristics are the main criteria to be taken into consideration to evaluate a city in terms of making it a brand. The cities with a long history, the cities with geographical location which is suitable for presentation and the cities which are open to economic and

financial development are one step ahead. However, as expressed in the definition of brand, the city must also have distinctive and characteristic features (such as logo, symbol, image, etc.) and this also must be supported by social values as well as individual lifestyles and behavior patterns (Anholt, 2010:6-7; Cevher, 2012: 107-108).

The factor which plays a key role in the branding of a city is changing the perception of the city to positive. When the positive aspects of the city are revealed " a strategy which brings forward the city's strengths, which makes the city meaningful and worthwhile culturally and which adds economic and social value to the city" is brought forward and this strategy is called the city's branding. in this way, the city falls into the category of a kind of "value added product". in this way, it is ensured that the city has a distinctive vision and its message is prepared and conveyed to the outside world in line with this vision and economic investments are promoted through mobilization of the city's potential and the city's national and international popularity is increased. Of course providing an identification, definition, sustainability and social integration to the city as well as are among the fundamental objectives (Içyer, 2010: 69-71).

Sufficient urban infrastructure, transportation, education, employment and accommodation facilities are particularly of great importance in the process of branding of a city. The city's touristic development, large-scale tourism activities in the city; national and international sporting events and hosting cultural works and activities such as movies, music, books and etc. are some of the factors that affect the urban image on the other hand, (Dinnie, 2004: 108-110; Kaypak, 2013: 345-346). As such, a sustainable development approach in which not only economic but also environmental, social and cultural sensitivities are not ignored is needed for national and international awareness and a positive city image,

A variety of parties in the city have to come together and join forces for detection of a sustainable development and creation of a city environment which is more livable and which has more attractive features (Kavaratzis, 2009: 28-29). The most important one among the concerned parties is local government units and more particularly the municipalities. in this regard,

it is observed that municipalities in collaboration with the city residents and other parties such as particularly the non-governmental organizations and universities in the city leave active and positive effects in the formation process of the brand. As mentioned earlier, it is certain that municipalities which have prior authority in subjects like urban infrastructure, transportation, employment and etc. in making a city brand will play a dominant role.

Kırşehir's Process of Becoming a Brand City and Impact of the Kırşehir Municipality to the Process

Kırşehir province which dates back to centuries, has hosted many civilizations during the historical process thereof. Kırşehir province from where many outstanding scholars and Sufis have come especially under the reign of the Seljuks in the 12th century, has become the center of establishment of Akhism which is a religious and economic order in this period following the settlement of Ahi Evran to Kırşehir. Akhism which has an important philosophical base in the development of Anatolia in general, is one of the hallmarks of Kırşehir which has reached to our present day. On the other hand, Cacabey Astronomy Madrasah constructed in this era again in the name of Cacabey, one of the key rulers of the era is an important center revealing the fact that Kırşehir is one of the places where foundations of space research has been laid. Aşık Pasha who has provided a major contribution to the development of the Turkish language is again another important figure who has lived during this period. Kırşehir has a strong local government tradition which takes its strength from the past. Kırşehir province is the heir of a nearly 150-year history as an administrative unit (Kırşehir Municipality, 2014:9-10).

Kırşehir, with its geographical location in the Central Anatolia Region is situated close to numerous political, cultural, tourism, trade and financial centers such as especially Ankara the capital and Konya, Kayseri and Nevsehir provinces. in addition, it is located on an important transition line inasmuch as it acts as a bridge between the east and west of Turkey. This situation also makes Kırşehir to be on the commercial and passenger transport links. On the other hand Kırşehir has important rivers and lakes which are important tourist attractions such as Kızılırmak (Red River), Lake Seyfe and Hirfanlı Dam Lake. in addition, Kalehöyük, with international reputation, which still has the status of a place with ongoing archaeological excavations, is located in the Kaman district of Kırşehir. Kırşehir is also very rich in terms of thermal sources. Accordingly, there are many spas in Kırşehir. The healing waters in these spas also have made Kırşehir a nationally and internationally important tourism center.

Kırşehir's climate conditions do not allow the performance of farming and agriculture industries. in particular, the grape molasses made from the grapes grown in Kırşehir and Kaman Walnut grown in the Kaman district of Kırşehir are outstanding products with national and international recognition with their own characteristics. in addition, Kırşehir has ore beds of marble named "onyx" which can be easily processed and which are valuable. A variety of products are produced from onyx by processing it and an important commercial contribution is provided to the economy of the city and the country. Another remarkable mine obtained in Kırşehir is salt. Salt deposits which have important economical contributions again are regarded as one of the hallmarks of the Kırşehir province (Kırşehir Governor's Office, 2014).

Kırşehir is also noteworthy in terms of its population structure. It is observed that Kırşehir has a high proportion of young and dynamic population however the population density of Kırşehir is below the average of the country and the region. This can be considered as a negative situation however a different picture emerges when we observe the educational structure of the population. The literacy rate has risen to 90 percent in Kırşehir in the 2000s. The cited rate is above the national average. Additionally, another remarkable development is the increase in the number of persons who have received higher education in Kırşehir (Kırşehir Governor's Office, 2014b). The importance given to education and training on one hand and the Ahi Evran University with the hundreds of teaching staff, thousands of students and the dynamic structure thereof on the other hand has a significant contribution to this fact.

It can be seen that some of the factors, specified hereinabove and which can be considered as characteristic or distinctive features of Kırşehir, will have a big impact on the branding process of the city is. However, municipality will be the institution which will be the driving force in such a process as stated earlier. Kırşehir Municipality can be expected to have a key role in branding of the city in a city like Kırşehir which has a strong administrative tradition and history. Sure enough, it can be observed that when viewed Kırşehir Municipality has assumed an important mission in terms of the services made and in terms of other activities for making Kırşehir a brand city. Important works have been achieved within the borders of the city and for the renewal of the roads of the city which will link the city with other cities. Additionally, a new intercity bus terminal is being constructed in Kırşehir in lieu of the bus terminal which has begun to affect the city's image adversely. in addition, a number of projects on issues such as waste water treatment and waste treatment have been implemented. A project which will change the face of the city has been implemented by the Kırşehir Municipality of and a rivulet which is going through the city center has been subjected to treatment and a large park named City Park in which there are places for eating out, tea gardens, playgrounds has been made and submitted to the usage of the people living in the city. in addition,

Hılla rivulet has been treated in the same way and Hılla Nilüferli Park has been opened procedure and an authentic style restaurant was has been established here. The treatment of the stream has been realized while Kırşehir has gained a stylish and new restaurant and at the same time new employment opportunities have been created. What's more, important works contributing to both economic life and cultural life of the city have been achieved with the same methods thanks to the restoration of the old mansions. Ağalar Mansion, Bekir Efendi Mansion and Bahçelievler Mansion applications are some of the cited activities. Works performed for women, children and the elderly have also created positive effects. There is no doubt that the foregoing activities will bring will raise the living standards of individuals living in Kırşehir and create a more attractive city (Kırşehir Municipality, 2014b).

Kırşehir Municipality, at the same time is a member of several national associations. Some of these associations are Association of Municipalities with Geothermal Sources, League of Historical Cities, Healthy Cities Association and the Ahi Development Agency. Ahi Evran Complex and Cacabey Madrasa located in the center of Kırşehir has entered to the Tentative List of the UNESCO World Heritage with the joint efforts of Kırşehir Municipality and Ahi Evran University. It is certain that national and international recognition of Kırşehir will increase and city brand image will be positively affected by virtue of this membership.

Kırşehir does not have a city logo. This case is a negative situation in terms of city branding process. Another negative situation is the low amount of art activities and not benefiting in a sufficient level from the Abdal (professional music groups) tradition of Kırşehir despite Kırşehir has the most important representatives of this tradition. On the other hand, it is seen that Kırşehir, having such important historical, geographical and cultural features does not have a professional presentation network and platform in the national and international level. Furthermore, problems in the areas of city infrastructure, planning, recreation areas, water and transportation continue as stated in the Strategic Plan (Kırşehir Municipality, 2014:79). It is expected that branding process of the city will move to more advanced stages if all these deficiencies are removed with the attempt of the Kırşehir Municipality in the event of a professional support as to branding is given.

Conclusion

An understanding of business-oriented and product-based competition in today's world has begun to become inadequate in which the phenomenon of globalization is a dominant value and the cities also have become a part of the competition perception. The most important basis in the competition of the cities is the brand and/or the branding concept.

City-branding, which can be seen as the process of adding value to cities based on intrinsic properties of each city, certainly has many positive results and all stakeholders of a city should be involved in the process to this end. Municipalities are the institutions as the essential element of this process at this point which will ensure them to have success. Municipalities have importance because they have the primary responsibility in the development of a city and they are administrative units various functions and service obligations.

Kırşehir has the features of being a brand city to meet the criteria for being a brand city a city with the historical accumulation, significant geographical features, cultural, social and demographic structure and tourism potential thereof. It is observed that Kırşehir Municipality has a positive contribution to the branding process of Kırşehir. Although there are still deficiencies on issues such as promotion, city infrastructure, planning, water and transportation the initiatives of the Municipality of Kırşehir will provide advantages to Kırşehir for branding. However, works must be done on branding in a professional sense of city in addition to all these. Kırşehir will have the status of a city bearing brand value after a process in which strategic brand analysis, brand identity, value proposition development and brand positioning steps are meticulously achieved. Finally, individuals living in Kırşehir also have big responsibilities for achieving the branding process successfully in addition to the municipality and other establishments and organizations as. Kırşehir will be a brand city only if the people living in the city assume responsibility in this process and to the extent they make other related establishments related to branding assume responsibility in this process.

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European Integration: one electoral promise not taken

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Abstract

"The process of European Union membership is a national objective, in view of the democratization and transformation of the Albanian society, in accordance with the values and principles of the United Europe". This sentence is taken from the Official Site of the Prime Minister of Albania. This message but expressed in other words seems to be there standing since 1992, when in Albania for the first time was articulated the desire for national integration of the country. After more than twenty years, the question that concerns me mostly is that why my country is not part of the big European family? What happened in these twenty-two years to prevent this process or to accelerate it? The first thing that comes to my mind after the last rejection candidate status on December, last year, is that this is a promise that none of the Albanian government has not yet managed to achieve. On my opinion, this process is strictly associated with the willing of all determinant political actors to collaborate and to manifest democratic political culture through dialogue. European integration is a slogan used in every political campaign, as a key element of the political agenda all political parties but in. It helps a lot during the electoral campaign but unfortunately we are still waiting for. Thus, I think that the integration process is not related only to the Albanian desire for participating in the EU, but mostly to the political class attitude. It is true that every time that the government does not achieve the candidate status, the political parties to blame each other for retarding the integration process. Even though, different scholars emphasize the role of EU in the process of integration, I believe that the country's democratization is a process strongly related to the political elite performance and the way they manifest politics. Albanian political class must admit that the real problem in this process is the way that it makes politics and how it makes political decision. In this article, I argue that the European integration is a process which can be successful only if all political parties in Albania understand that this is an obligation that they have with Albanian citizens and that cannot be realized if all of them are not committed to. This ambitious goal can be achieved only when the EU priority reforms are going to be established and in Albania there are going to operate functional and free institutions based on meritocracy and democratic system of operation far away from politics.

Key words: integration, democratization, political dialogue

Introduction

In order for a state to be part of the European Community, it is needed much more than the desire to be part of it or the geographical location. The European Union is an organization that brings several benefits but it requires a certain standard of sustainable economic, political and legal development. Albania, as well as other Balkan states of South-East Europe, is trying to meet these standards and has begun the EU adaptation process. This process is a combination of internal and external whose aim is to achieve this major objective.

On the one hand we have the EU which external pressure to implement reforms that will bring even more Albanian government with European standards. On the other hand, we have local commitment to achieve these objectives that will enable the fulfillment of these standards. These two elements are part of the same process which cannot function if one side of it is not operating properly.

Unlike some scholars who emphasize the imperative of European and the skepticism that EU has in regard to Albania (Hoffmann, Elbasan), I think that the most important element to analyze in this process is what is happening with commitment of Albanian political spectrum in relation to this process.

In this paper, I argue that the process of integration is a complex process dominated mainly by the efforts and commitment of endogenous factors. Although Brussels may have more favorable policies for the membership in the EU country (as was the wave of enlargement in 2004) and a clearer idea of how to shape local policy making, applying other tools and instruments for the democratization consolidation, the Albanian state must necessarily in the first place prove that it is ready for such commitment. Ultimately, the process of integration is strictly associated with the process of democratization of the country and the successful completion of the transition phase which would generate the consolidation of the democratic, legal and constitutional state. Democracy cannot be imported, but there must be all elements for it to be strengthened and institutionalized within the country. Only in this way Albania can become an EU member state and enjoy the rights and privileges that this process involves. This goal can be achieved when Tirana (and

here I refer not only to the state apparatus and government institutions, but to all political forces and political elites in general) to take this commitment seriously and produce broad-based consensus that would allow the implementation of consensual reforms and what is most important strengthening of independent institutions. This national strategy must be a long-term strategy and must involving all necessary conditions for the generation of political and institutional structures that can preserve democratic institutions based on the rule of law.

This paper aims to analyze the political factors that have returned to drawback of this process of democratization and integration. Referring to the EU conditionality, I emphasize the inability of the Albanian political class for cooperation and implementation of consensual reforms. Therefore, first of all, I think it is very important to understand what are the requirements that the EU has in confront to Albania. In the second part of the paper, I discuss how Tirana is committed in achieving these objectives and goals. This comparative approach will enable us to highlight which part of this mutual cooperation is not operating properly.

EU: the most dominant external factor in the integration process

International comparative democratization literature emphasizes the external factor in the transition phase. Huntington will determine the third wave of democratization dominated by the role that external factors have on the process of democratization through reform initiatives (Huntington, 1991). In the same line, Schmitter, defines the role of external actors as the dominant phase of democratization. He points out that these factors have the ability to launch and being implemented reforms in transition countries (Schmitter, 1996). Through economic assistance and political support, the external factor influences directly in domestic politics and in opening the way to the consolidation of democracy and the rule of law.

In the Central and Eastern Europe countries, the role that EU played in the democratization process through its conditionality policies is unquestionable. Heather Grabbe (2002) analyzes how the EU uses its terms to countries aspiring to integrate, to influence the choices they make. The EU has many sources of influence that affect the policies and institutions of the aspirant countries through aid and assistance instruments that are so highly desired by these countries (Kubicek, 2003).

Conditionality is one of the most dominant elements to explain the effectiveness of the EU in support of reforms towards democracy and market economy. The EU initiatives used to influence the process of reforming the institutions and policy transformation in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe can be categorized as: (1) access to the negotiations; (2) assistance in legal and institutional drafts; (3) aid and technical assistance, (4) counseling about domestic policies; (5) monitoring of the implementation process (Grabbe, 2002, 257). Definitely, we can say that the five elements mentioned above are applied also in the case of Albania, including financial assistance as well as a very important element. We must take in consideration the fact that EU is the main source of financing in this country.

Specifically, the EU is present in Albanian policymaking starting in the early 1990s when the country began the long process and apparently infinite transition. The first official relations began in 1992, when Albania signed the cooperation agreement between the EU and Albania. This agreement meant that Albania could benefit from the Phare program, which was a financial instrument to the countries of Central and Eastern Europe in their preparatory phase towards integration because these countries have applied for membership status. These funds will go towards political and economic institutional reorganization in order to have a smooth and gradual transition (expansion of the European Commission).

As for the rest of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, in 1997, the EU introduced economic and political conditions which necessarily had to be completed to launch the country's EU integration. In this context, the European Commission and the World Bank elaborated a plan for economic recovery and growth that will ensure a successful transition (Enlargement of the European Commission).

In 1999, the EU will be launching SAP (Stabilization and Association Process) for five countries of South-East Balkans, including Albania. In the same year, Albania approved the Preferential Trade Autonomous Agreement with the EU and other Balkan countries, which was valid until 2011. This proposal offered to Balkan countries duty-free access to all European markets for their products. It provided economic integration with the EU countries and created premises for democratization of Albanian economic institutions.

In 2000, the two summits, Feira and Zagreb Summit underlined the importance of PSA in the integration process. In particular Feira Summit will declare that all SAP countries could become EU candidate countries. Both summits gave a special importance and defined SAP as the only way toward integration process.

In this context, in 2001 the EU presented the CARDS program, which was designed specifically to SPA countries. Therefore, the European Commission, as for the other countries that had signed the SPA, recommended the initiation for the negotiation of the Stabilization and Association Agreement with Tirana. Shortly after this initiative, in Tirana, the first meeting was held under the SAA. After that, the European Council urged the Commission to prepare a strategic document for Albania. Negotiations and guidelines were prepared based on the reflection on the Stabilization and Association Report.

Evaluating Tirana's commitment, in 2003 the EU formally started the negotiations for a SAA with Albania. In June 2006, the SAA was signed in Luxembourg. In the following year came the IPA, Pre Entry assisting tool, which included new instruments for pre-EU accession. On 1 April 2009, Albania was officially introduced at SAA. This act was soon followed by Albania's application for candidate status. This request was rejected by Brussels (Expansion of the European Commission).

The main objective of the SAA is to assist Albania in the process of democratization and the consolidation of democratic mechanisms. It includes a specific agenda with detailed reforms, which are assessed as a priority by the EU. SAA assistance as part of Brussels strategy, is a political tool used by the European Commission to achieve several objectives simultaneously. According to the European Commission, these objectives are:

1. The PSA is designed in the context of preparation SEE country moves closer to European standards. It will assist in the transition process to gradually achieve full integration in the EU.

2. EU is committed to assist the Government and its efforts to consolidate democracy, which means the existence of the rule of law.

3. SAP is responsible for assisting the country to achieve reforms in institutional and administrative dimensions. It is also responsible for assisting in the consolidation of a strong system of public administration and judicial system (European Commission 2001).

European conditionality will help the government to address the most problematic areas such as organized crime and corruption. It will assist in the implementation of the rule of law, maintaining political dialogue, consolidation of the electoral code, and the development of civil society (European Commission 2003).

On 15 December 2010, the European Parliament and the Council of Europe gave the chance to Albania to benefit from visa liberalization of Schengen regime. It placed a monitoring mechanism to ensure continuity of implementation (European Commission, 2001, 5).

As evidenced above, the EU has been very present in the progress and political development of the country. At this point, I agree with Elbasani who argues that if it was not for the EU conditionality, political development in Albania would have had another trajectory. And in fact the moments when the political elite in the country has been able to provide not only democratic development, but also has led to chaos (do not forget pyramid schemes and riots of 1997), the EU has intervened to restore peace and has assisted in the state recovery.

EU conditions for membership

But is it enough just EU engagement in the process of consolidating democracy and the generation of the rule of law? In the case of Albania, the EU has used the policy of "carrot" & "stick" (Grabbe, 2002) which means on the one hand through technical and financial assistance toward Tirana Brussels tempts the path of development but on the other hand, whenever the government did not properly made the "homework", Brussels condemns it by denying deeper integration (recent denial of the candidate status).

In this context, what bothers me mostly is not how the EU tempts Tirana towards European commitments, but how Tirana is not taking seriously its obligations in this negotiation.

In this part of the paper I will focus on the EU conditions that Albania has to achieve in order to start negotiations for EU membership. Therefore, I see as very important to analyze what are these criteria and to analyze how closer or far Albania is at least in this process. This comparison will enable us not only the clarity of what is expected from the Albanian side but also identifying gaps and achieving real reform of European targets.

The European Union is an organization based on the values of democracy and rule of law. To be a member state of the European Union, the candidate country must have necessarily reflect those values and prove that it has the necessary institutions to protect these values (Featherstone, 1998).

The EU has recorded since 1993 which should be the basic criteria for a country that can initiate the integration path. Copenhagen criteria explicitly define three prior conditions necessary for membership. They consist of the political criteria, economic and legislative. In more detailed form, in meeting the political criteria consists of several basic elements that a state is called a consolidated democracy, namely a functional democratic government in which citizens have full access to all levels of policymaking, including free and fair elections fair; rule of law, respect for human rights comfort all international conventions on human rights; and respect for and protection of minorities.

The second criterion consists on the country's macroeconomic indicators. Specifically, an aspiring country must have a functioning market economy and whose products have the capacity to cope with competitive pressure and European market forces.

Legislative aspect has to do with the ability to adjust and incorporate the national legislation with the acquis communautaire and all treaties and agreements that constitute it (Presidency Conclusions, 1993).

In a more specific way, in the context of the SAA at the third meeting of the Stabilisation and Association Agreement between the EU and Albania, in Brussels on 19 July 2011, was clarified and reaffirmed the twelve key priorities which were reflected in Opinion the European Commission on Albania. Specifically, these priorities focus on the stability of institutions guaranteeing democracy, strengthening the rule of law, judicial reform, the fight against organized crime and corruption, electoral reform, public administration reform, and protection of human rights including property rights. All these elements relate to the first Copenhagen criterion, therefore, in the following analysis I will only focus in this criterion. Not because two other criteria are less important, but keeping in mind the modernist approach, I believe that democratic institutions will facilitate the consolidated socio-economic development which is guaranteed in itself by these independent institutions.

The Council urged political parties to overcome political disagreements and establish a constructive and sustained dialogue in order to ensure correct functioning of parliament. It estimated that the negotiation will only start when it was verified that the country was seriously committed in meeting the criteria and in particular to these key priorities (Third Meeting of the Stabilization and Association Council between Albania and the EU, 2011).

Meanwhile, in parallel with the political assistance of Brussels, Albania continues to receive financial assistance under IPA in two important respects: (i) transition assistance and institution building (II) cross-border cooperation with a total value of 82 million Euros per year 2013 (European Commission report on Albania, 2013).

Albania's commitment

Although whenever it comes to integration, all political forces without exception define it as a necessity for the country's future, it seems that the steps with which Albania is moving toward it are relatively slow. Since 2011, the country is trying to achieve twelve priority conditions set by Brussels as essential to any discussion regarding the status of candidate country. Therefore, any premature application is not only unhelpful but on the other hand means more wasted consumed energies.

Specifically, if we analyze the political situation of the last two years, following the 2011 local elections, the political situation in the country is associated with a pronounced lack of dialogue, coupled with a strong clash between the two main mainly DP and SP not only verbal but also physical (January 21 incident). Masquerading of insults, sterile debates and political arrogance that has dominated parliament is failing to take proper form to achieve the necessary reforms. In this context, it is very interesting to analyze how the European Commission has assessed Albania in the last year.

Following the Copenhagen Criteria rankings, I will first see what is done to get closer to the European approach. The European Commission's annual report for 2013 Albania determines that the country has moved slowly toward the realization of institutional reform. Specifically, although the recent elections are assessed as relatively democratic, the report emphasizes mainly in the polarized political climate that has accompanied the pre and post election period. It admits that there was a smooth transition of power between the two main forces, this convincing result as a consequence of the Alliance for European Albania.

General elections were preceded by a tense political climate that has threatened our administration of elections. Although the elections were competitive, I must admit that last year's turnout was lower, 53.6 percent. Even these elections as well as others recorded some progress. However, OSCE / ODIHR reaffirmed recommendations for the upcoming elections (Report, 6-7).

Regarding the functioning of parliament, the report identifies some reservations. Although it must be admitted that there were some sporadic moments of cooperation during fall 2012 and May 2013, the parliament was dominated by an aggressive climate policy.

As for the government, the report concludes that it is moving slowly in terms of the strategic implementation of the key priorities proposed by Brussels. Also, there is not a clear coordination among the Ministry of Integration and other ministries.

With regard to local government, decentralization of administrative and territorial reforms have not progressed, but even though the law for urban plan was approved in April 2012, there are obvious problems in its implementation. Obviously the more politicized debate over compensating's Municipal some regional authorities have impacted negatively on the effectiveness of local authorities limited their role. Therefore, the report sees as very important constructive debate between the two levels of government as well as attendance in the decentralization reforms path and dialogue with civil society.

The most important part of this analysis, is much debated in public administration reform, which was one of the main recommendations of the EU and one of the key elements needed to get the candidate status. Public administration reform was adopted in May of last year the civil service law. This was an important step towards de-politicization of public administration which was radically removed whenever the central government changed. The law which came into force in October 2013, is essential in building a public administration professional, effective and based on meritocracy. The purpose of this law is to create a legal context which consists on the inclusion of independent institutions and local government units. It provides a clear classification of civilian officials; it creates an optimal management system and administration body and it creates all the prerequisites for a transparent system of hiring and promotion. This law repeals the legislation and provides preliminary provisions necessary to implement the entry into force of the law. In fact, what happened with the government political rotation was a new approach to the law. Rama government would approve an amendment in September to avoid a legal vacuum. Timely adoption of secondary legislation in accordance with the principles of law and its proper implementation is essential. As a result of this action, the general law on administrative procedures is pending. Implementation of the Law on Administrative Courts were postponed pending the entry into force of the Law on the Supreme Court, which is one of three laws necessary for obtaining candidate status (European Commission Annual Report, 20-25).

Implementation of the Law on the Organization and Functioning of Public Administration should take effect. Implementation of the Law on Inspections has made progress being adopted in February and includes provisions aimed at reducing the length and cost of inspections (p.28).

A very important element that is an indicator of the level of democracy in the country is the participation of the civil society in the political decision-making process. The report finds that the country's civil society is weak and fragmented. Also cooperation between state institutions and civil society remains low, especially at the local level. There is lack of transparency by the Albanian authorities in relation to the consultation with civil society, the frequency of these meetings and the time available. Admittedly, there is room for improvement, especially in rural areas (pg.30).
This reflection on the importance and influence of the civil society in the Albanian policy highlights the style and culture of the Albanian political decision making.

Reflecting on this detailed analysis of the report, there is a reluctance of political forces for inclusion and the transfer of duties and decision-making from central to independent institutions. This not only hinders the process of decentralization and impartiality but at the same time weakens the fragile democratic institutions.

What do Europeanization and democratization mean?
In order to properly understand the very long journey of the country towards the membership, it is very important to understand what Europeanization means. This would help me to compare the Albanian transition with the Europeanization process.
First, the process of Europeanization of a country has to do with the absorption of EU imperatives, how their logic operates logic and which are the norms in EU domestic policies (Anderson & Eliassen, 1993). This means that in order for Albania to be considered a candidate member, Albanian policy making should embrace that philosophy and norms of policy-making European model offers. In other words, the EU offers inclusive model and cooperation between the parties in order that reforms can be achieved not simply by the will of actual current policy context of a particular government, but has continuity despite the political rotation. The reform process should not intend an achievement of the coalition government, but as a national strategy for the improvement and adaptation of democratic institutions in the country. Respect for democratic values will allow further development of the country being supported and encouraged by the European community.

Secondly, Europeanization effects on excellence and improve the mechanisms of modernization to change specific policies, especially those dealing with macro-economic policy and also to reform political institutions. This means that the

country should reflect that has all the elements to be considered a consolidated democracy. Although EU initiatives and international factors are not lacking, need necessarily to reflect a commitment not only breathe in the initiation of these mechanisms but above all in the implementation and in their succession.

What does consolidating democracy means? According to Linz & Stepan, a country is democratic when "democracy is the only game in town right" (Linz & Stepan, 1996). This means that they is has independent institutions in democratic and constitutional rules that define the game and not the will of a particular group, or even worse to a certain person. Democracies are considered when political actors are aware, committed and reflect the political will to compromise, which means the democratic regime rules (Ruston, 1970). This element is very important to better understand the situation properly and realistically in Albania which is divided and polarized by the political forces which do not reflect the culture of dialogue or even less political will to compromise.

In fact, consolidation or completion of the transition will only be achieved through compliance with rules and democratic procedures, or otherwise known as eight institutional guarantees of Dahl Poliarchy.

But specifically in Albania we can say that the period of adjustment toward democracy continues. To be concrete, the country is mired in a deep political crisis dominated by conflicting political dialogue which seems to keep mortgage the continuation of reforms.

Why is not functioning EU conditionality in Albania? At this point, I agree with the arguments that Kubicek offers. He asserts that the use of conditionality does not guarantee that changes claimed by the EU actually occur. Hence, he rightly raises the question of how and under what conditions can the EU conditionality can actually worked (Kubicek, 2003, 17). According to him, the initiatives of external actors have a greater political cost than can realistically be afforded by the political elite. Specifically, he argues that these initiatives will reduce the power of political elites at the time that the latter will be included in the process of democratization. Specifically, this dualism between political power and the continuation of the decentralization and de-politicization of state institutions manifests itself most clearly in the debate on public administration reform. De-politicization of public administration means that the political forces in power loses the ability to use administration as a means to satisfy its supporters (as has happened so far). Albania's public administration are radically changing periodically whenever changing political force that leads the government by increasing fictitious financial cost not only recruitment but also training every four or eight years as the government changes.

Kubicek argues that the government parties understand that they will lose their political power at the time that the country will be fully engaged in the execution of the process of democratization, thus they tend to push the application of democratic instruments even though they have to cope with external pressure, in case of negative feedback from Brussels (Kubicek, 2003).

Secondly, if we reflect political developments related to these last twenty years, we will see that the political elite are political actor with the current political ambitions. This means that in general the two main political forces have a short-term agenda and as a result they try to exploit all opportunities to maximize the power in their hands and increase benefits or partisan purpose of their re-election in future elections. In this way they do not see immediate benefits from the implementation of European conditions. SAP implementation requires a multi-year commitment and it is not affiliated with the extra funds to offset potential losses of market opening with member countries of the EU (Hoffmann, 2005, 69). In this context, power is seen as a benefit and a way to achieve political ambitions of a certain spectrum.

Thirdly, the political culture in Albania is marked by the absence of dialogue and inability to generate a stable political climate. Ways of interaction between political parties leaves much to be desired and the parliament has become an arena of mutual accusations which remain only at the level of media and nobody is judicially accused for corruption or organized crime ties (last scandal that involves the Ministry of Defense) to the prosecutor. This model does not inspire trust and creates the premises for cooperation among parties, but in fact it has another negative effect: albanians confidence toward the rule of law is diminished and they do not see the judicial system as operative and functional.

Fourth, the process of EU membership is not viewed as a joint comprehensive strategy, but as a means of gaining credibility for a particular party and to secure the support of the electorate. As I mentioned above, all political forces in the country use the card EU campaigning to win the political battle in the name of democratic values, but it remains just a promise rotating unworn (Elbasan, 2004).

Conclusion

The path towards EU integration is associated with the consolidation of the democratic state and its functioning. The main condition for democratic consolidation is the development and strengthening of independent institutions that will enable and accelerate the fulfillment of the Copenhagen criteria through transparency and meritocracy impartiality.

Although Albania has made some progress in some aspects, such as the adaptation of domestic law with the EU, the partly implementation of the suggestions and recommendations of Brussels, the integration process is a long one and has different challenges. As the European Commission report highlights, the government has huge challenges ahead as the fight against organized crime and corruption, de-politicization of the public sector, the implementation of reforms in the judicial system, the implementation of public administration reform, strengthening of institutions independent economic and financial implementation of the right of ownership, etc..

Therefore, the first thing that should the Government and the opposition be aware of is that it cannot hold the mortgage on the democratization of the country with sterile debates and narrow interests of the moment. Democratization of the country and building a complete functional system with independent institutions must necessarily go further toward the development of the country. The spirit of dialogue and cooperation, in particular on priority reforms are necessarily in order to open the way towards the country integration.

Second, the strengthening of the administrative and judicial system is an essential condition for the functioning of the rule of law. These two elements are fundamental not only to strengthen the level of democracy in the country, but are essential to the development of a state that claims European integration.

Third, embrace democratic values and acceptance of the rules of the game of democracy. Being part of the European community means being a country with high standards not only economic, but social and cultural policy.

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Digital Revolution: Europe at the Lead of New Technologies

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Abstract

The pace and scope of changing technologies are constantly challenging social structures and the need for dexterous policy framework is becoming more and more indispensable. While technological evolution and market forces have driven the information and communication revolution, the European Union has played a significant role in creating an effective framework for the maintenance and development of this progress. In order to regulate the market and keep pace with the ICT (Information and Communications Technology) environment, the EU has introduced rules that ensure fair access to all EU citizens and stimulate competition for companies. The Body of European Regulators for Electronic Communications (BEREC) serves entirely this function, becoming a pan-European regulatory agency. Aside the regulatory role, EU's economic growth strategy involves a great number of policies and measures to capitalize on digital revolution. The Digital Agenda for Europe (DAE) targets not only on citizens, but businesses of Europe as well, to benefit from the technological revolution. The former and the new goals of the renewed agenda raise the bar of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. Finally, to ensure the maximization of use of information technologies, EU has supported the expansion of e-business and online public services. E-government services have facilitated interaction between government, citizens and businesses, while it simplified all facets of operations of governmental organisations. This article is looking at EU's role in digital environments, examining the three initiatives as platforms of technological evolution in Europe. The three case studies used, the BEREC, DAE and e-Government initiatives, will provide an analysis of the services with a prospective evaluation of the technological strategies involved, while the qualitative and quantitative data in each case will help us analyse the quota and draw conclusions on the functionality and effectiveness of the services. We expect to evaluate the levels of digital growth and online adaptation of the Union and/or the need for further expansion. The study is discussing EU's technological competiveness and the analysis targets the policy initiatives taken towards this direction, while it provides multipolar, but useful information for EU citizens and businesses.

Keywords: Technological Revolution, Information, Communication, Digital Agenda, e-Government

Introduction

Constantly changing technologies are challenging for the existing social structures and this includes social policies and unquestionably involves civic society. European policies have turned their focus on growth with a relative delay, if one considers the contemporary challenges it has to face. Within these challenges, Europe needs to ensure economic growth that will lead EU countries and citizens out of crisis. According to Neelie Kroes, the European Commissioner for Digital Agenda, internet is the best platform to provide occupation nowadays (Rial, 2012). Digital technologies and, of course, the internet have become the economic foundation of modern societies, contributing to the world's developed economies in the late decades. As a matter of fact, consulting groups estimate that the internet economy will be responsible for G-20's impressive GDP increase by 2016 (Mettler, 2012a). These figures emphasize the increasing importance of digital developments and its economic value.

Mostly being a niche policy matter in the past, the 'digital agenda' has recently received the attention of heads of EU government and EU finance ministers. In recognition of the transforming qualities that general-purpose technology features for the economy, EU is called upon the target to bring the digital single market in life. This is not without reason since in Europe's most advanced economies, the internet accounts for a substantial lump of GDP (Mettler, 2012a). Consequently, it has become crucial for EU to approach internet governance and within this goal there are two aspects to be considered. On the one hand, public authorities, which ought to enforce the law and protect citizen rights. On the other hand, an attention should be given to the internet's restrictive framework, so that the latter does hamper the prospect for innovation (Europa, 2012). This is to say that an effective management of the digital vision can help overcoming the euro-crisis and direct to the next digital revolution, where Europe can 'be in the lead' (Europa, 2012). As Europe rediscovers the need for development, it is now vital to take account of new economic realities that clearly demonstrate that productivity, jobs and innovation come from greater adoption of digital technologies (Mettler, 2012b). In order to secure the aspects of this political direction, the EU has introduced a number of political tools, which facilitate the regulating, political and investing role of the Union in this context. The Body of European Regulators for Electronic Communications (BEREC), the Digital Agenda and

its goals and the e-Government platform are three initiatives representative of the direction EU has launched, in turn, to achieve technological growth. These three initiatives will serve as case studies in our article and help analyse the digital services from a critical perspective. The article is divided as follows: the first chapter is occupied with the regulating function of the EU and the practical role of BEREC as a regulative body. The second chapter will look into the EU's economic strategy with a focus on the Digital Agenda goals and initiatives. In sequence, the third chapter will explore EU's activity to maximize information technology's use among the EU states, taking e-Government as an example of technological capitalisation. Ultimately, the article is discussing EU's technological vision as much as the potential for technological innovation, which is extremely of useful not only for EU business but EU citizens as well.

Regulating the European Telecommunications Market

Europe's proclaimed need for innovation and competitiveness did not coincide with the financial crisis but was further accelerated to achieve growth and create new jobs in the member-states. The opening-up of the telecommunications market to competition has acted as a catalyst on a sector that was previously occupied by oligopolies (such as Deutsche Telecom and Vodafone). As the internet has developed over the past decades to an open platform with limited barriers for users, content and application and internet service providers, there was a need for a regulatory framework that would promote consistent practices among national regulatory authorities. To keep pace with the new conditions, EU institutions have initiated legislation according to the technological progress and market requirements. These developments have given rise to the adoption of the new regulatory framework on electronic communications, which aims at strengthening competition by facilitating market entry and motivating investments in the sector, according to the Directive 2002/21/EC.

The political objective was met through Directive 2002/21/EC adopted in 2002, which built on the framework for the regulation of electronic communications networks and services. This has also included certain aspects of terminal equipment to ease access for users with disabilities. The Directive 2002/21/EC contained provisions serving in the scope of principles, basic definitions, structural conditions for the national regulatory authorities (NRAs), the definition of the new marker power, rules for communication resources. In response to the need for inclusive regulation for all infrastructures, the new framework was extended to all electronic communication networks and services. Finally, a requisite of the Directive was the subsequent adoption of national measures in terms of access to electronic communications from the member-states, with the intention of respecting the fundamental rights and freedoms of natural persons.

The 2002 telecoms regulatory framework in the EU has been surrounded by debates concerning its timely relegation and performance within the EU member-states. Moreover, it has questioned existing EU administrative policies and imposed modifications on policies, due to the rapid evolution of technologies combined with the socio-cultural diversity of Europe today (Tsatsou, 2011). As a result, the Body of European Regulators for Electronic Communications (BEREC) was established in 2009, by a regulation of the European Parliament and the Council. BEREC replaced the European Regulators Group for electronic communications networks and services, which functioned as an advisory group to the Commission since 2002. In this first chapter of the article, a brief description of the services provided by the official body, in relation to the regulatory framework is presented.

The Body of European Regulators for Electronic Communications

BEREC was launched as a part of the 'Telecom Package', a review of the EU telecommunications framework in 2007-2009. The review aimed to achieve the much needed update of the EU telecoms framework established in 2002 and put a common set of regulations for the industries involved across the EU member-states. The objective of the body is mainly to contribute to the functioning of the internal market for electronic communications network and services, as well as to enhance cooperation among National Regulatory Authorities (NRAs) and to strengthen the internal market in electronic communications networks, according to the Regulation No 1211/2009. For the fulfillment of this goal, the Regulation No 1211/2009 provides that the body will develop and disseminate among NRAs regulatory best practices, such as successful methodologies or guidelines on the implementation of the EU regulatory framework, deliver opinions on draft decisions and recommendations, issue reporting and provide advice on the electronic communications sector, and assist the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission, as well as NRAs in the dissemination of best practices.

The greater difference between BEREC and the ERG (European Regulators Group) lays in the way they were established. BEREC was established by a Regulation of the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union and not by a Commission decision. This highlights the 'institutionalised' identity of the body and reflects the desire to accord an 'elevated status' to the new body (Batura, 2012). While the ERG's aim was to contribute to the development of the

internal market, BEREC shall pursue the same objectives as the NRAs, which include promotion of competition and promotion of interests of the EU citizens, as provided in Regulation No 1211/2009. This also reflects the ambition to intensify the new institution's status beyond a merely consultative role. At the same time, it unleashes the possibility to enhance its tasks and powers in the future.

The structure of the body is based on the rule of representativeness; the board of regulators is composed by the heads of representatives of the NRAs established in each member-state, with primary responsibility to oversee the day-to-day operations of the national markets for electronic communications networks and services. The board of regulator will be assisted by the office, which includes a management committee and an administrative manager. The members of this committee are selected among the board of directors, additionally to a member representing the commission, according to Regulation No 1211/2009. The tasks of the board are not few, including publishing opinions on NRAs concerning market definitions, the description of undertakings with significant market power and the imposition of remedies as well as collaboration with NRAs in this context; the consultation on draft recommendations on relevant product and service markets; publishing opinions on draft decisions on the identification of transnational markets and the development of common rules and requirements for providers of cross-border business services; consultation on draft measures relating to effective access to the emergency call number 112, and the effective implementation of the 116 numbering range; monitoring and reporting on the electronic communications sector, and publishing an annual report on developments in that sector. Regulation No 1211/2009 also provides that the office assists with administrative support services or collects information from NRAs, as well as disseminates the regulatory best practices among NRAs.

The creation of BEREC was accompanied by a lot of controversies and debates regarding its necessity, defined institutional nature, competences and functions and influence on the market. And while the above are clarified in the regulation establishing BEREC, and BEREC is dynamically carrying out its tasks since January 2010, one can try to examine the institutional influence in the market or research the place BEREC actually holds in the European regulatory network (Batura, 2012). The regulatory environment of electronic communications hosts various authorities, which apart from the European Commission (EC) and national regulatory authorities includes comitology committees (e.g. Communications Committee), standard-setting organisations (e.g. European Telecommunications Standards Institute), European Network and Information Security Agency (ENISA), competition authorities etc. At the opening ceremony for the BEREC office in Riga, Neelie Kroes spoke of BEREC's 'crucial role' in the development of a 'digital Single Market' (Europa, 2011). Accordingly, Dr. Georg Serentschy, former BEREC's Vice-Chair, argued at the conference of Florence School of Regulation in June 2011 that BEREC is a key player in development of the single market for electronic communications (Serentschy, 2011). However, some researchers have allegedly argued that BEREC is fundamentally the same with its precedent organisation with only limited modifications compared to the European Regulators Group (Cave et al, 2009). Considering ERG's reputation as a fairly inefficient and non-transparent body, those critics do not allow the recent institution creation to flourish and decrease the optimistic prospective of its central role in the regulatory network (Batura, 2012).

Although BEREC has initiated its operation since January 2010, it has been considerably active in comparison to ERG, considering the number of documents adopted since 2010. The number of various documents adopted by BEREC in the first 2 years amount almost the number of all documents adopted by ERG during 7 years, i.e. 110 publications (Batura, 2012). Also, BEREC displays an activism independent from the article 7 procedures, producing various studies and collecting information. Thus, it can be safely said that BEREC has been using all its powers, in order to demonstrate an active expert position and become a central actor within the network of telecommunications regulation. Going back to the statements about BEREC's regulatory significance in electronic communications, it is arguable that they more or less correct, if taken in a more conditional way. BEREC's involvement in regulation varies significantly at national levels. Thus, BEREC is mainly involved in the process of policy-making at the EU level, while at national level it is involved in their implementation of the policies and the regulatory activity. BEREC's widespread operational success implies that the balance between the EU and national authorities has been properly set. Without a doubt, it has become clear that "the pursuit of the single market is best served by increasing the quality of regulation across individual national markets" (Bustani, 2014).

The Situation in Numbers

The main goal of the European Commission's regulation of the telecommunication networks is to empower all EU citizens in the digital single market by providing an open internet. On this basis, European consumers and businesses will

be able to experience the advantages of the digital market, which might result in an increase in demand in digital services. "Providing end-users with access to affordable and good quality digital services throughout the EU is the foundation. This can be achieved through enhancing competition and maximising end-user benefit" (Europa, 2012). A look into BEREC's work helps us understand the environment within which telecommunications companies function; the types of markets and restrictions within they operate, as well as the respondent operators.

Graph nr. 1: Market types according to restrictions, Graph nr. 2: Fixed Market Types - Restrictions, Graph nr. 3: Mobile Market types - Restrictions and Graph nr. 4: Mobile Markets - Restrictions, all available at the end of the article, explain how the market factors operate: a) national markets are sorted on the basis of the share of user clients of operators, who restrict the considered application for all, some or one of their users; b) three groups of markets are formed, on the basis of categories described before (all>50%, none>50%, others); c) the size of each group (number of countries) guides to the distribution (in percentages) of types of markets, in terms of number of countries, d) weighting each national market by its number of subscribers, leads to the distribution (in percentages) of types of markets, in terms of number of subscribers.

The results of the BEREC investigation on internet traffic management practices reveal numerous problems. More than 36% of all mobile users and more than 21% of all fixed network users in the EU are affected by restrictions on peer-to-peer traffic, at peak times. The effect of that can reach up to 95% of users in a country. Additionally, more than 21% of all mobile users are affected by restrictions on VoIP (Voice over Internet Protocol) traffic and 12% by restrictions on other specific traffic. At the same time, most internet Service Providers (ISPs) in nearly all member-states, offer fixed and mobile internet access services that are not subject to restrictions. According to the BEREC findings, 85% of all fixed ISPs and 76% of all mobile ISPs propose, at least, one unrestricted offer, while there is a lack of transparency which incommodes users, in their effort to choose the offer that covers their needs. Indeed, end-users might not know how their operator affects their internet traffic (European Commission, 2012b). In consequence, switching providers, which intensifies competitions and enhances the desired openness, faces operational difficulties. Therefore, it has become clear that new measures need to be adopted to maximise EU citizens' activity in and benefits from the single market for converged telecoms, networks and services, particularly by maintaining the internet open to access, according to their choices.

Europe's Economic Strategy

The European Commission set out in 2010 the new strategy for stimulating the European economy, shedding a vision of 'smart, sustainable, inclusive' growth, which is based on wider coordination of national and European policy (European Commission, 2010b). Following one of the most serious declines of the European economy, 'Europe 2020' aims to embrace the challenges ahead. The economic crisis has revealed the weaknesses of a globalised economy, which has exposed limited resources and ageing population. The commission is looking to get behind an innovative, greener and social market that will facilitate an economic recovery and a more sustainable future. The strategy promotes low-carbon industries, investing in the development of new products, with a focus on digital economy and modernised education (European Commission, 2010b). The growth strategy set forth by the European Council has to overcome not only the severe obstacles of the financial and political debt crises in Europe, but the austerity policies as well, which have been imposed across many EU member-states (Stassinopoulos, 2013). The macro-economic policy making that has been forced on many European governments by the 'Stability and Growth Pact' has questioned the ability of this policy-mix to fulfill the goals set in the Agenda 2020, but also for the capacity of European governance to address the major discrepancies within the EU (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2011).

In the technological front, although Europe is one of the most educated societies, it features a considerable deficit in the research field. According to the Treaty of the European Union, EU countries spend 1.9% of GDP for Research & Development (R&D), while the U.S., Japan and South Korea are reaching the 3% performed in the industrial sector. Specifically, the United States research is about 2.6% and Japan 3.4% (European Commission, 2013). While the Lisbon Treaty has originally set the direction towards research and development (R&D), no particular direction was given. The Lisbon Strategy's revision aimed, among others, at the establishment of investment in knowledge and innovation (Euractiv, 2009). During the past years, the European Union has made progress in order to meet the R&D intensity target. The EU 3% target and additional national targets have mobilised growing resources for R&D. "The national 2020 R&D targets, set up by Member-States in 2010, are ambitious but achievable and would bring the EU R&D intensity to 2.7-2.8% of GDP in 2020, close to 3% in 2020" (Stassinopoulos, 2013). One of the seven flagship initiatives is the 'Digital agenda for Europe', which aims to speed up the roll-out of high-speed internet and bring in the benefits of a digital single market for households and business.

This chapter follows the priorities and targets set in the Europe 2020 agenda, which fall under research and development and regard specifically the 'digital agenda' and the scope for the digital single market. Our aim is to record the progress initiated in the area of Information Technology. This approach not only emphasises in the implication of the Digital Agenda in economic growth, but also examines the social expansion of the digital sphere through a path that is not only sustainable, but also widely acceptable by the European people.

The Digital Agenda for Europe

The need for immediate action across the digital policy areas has been underlined by many institutions. Europe was in need of a new economic momentum to help its economies to exit from the financial crisis and reconstruct their competitiveness (European Policy Centre, 2010). Especially, the economies of Central and Eastern Europe could provide a large market in fields and sectors where they could potentially develop their competitive advantage. Neelie Kroes has recently underlined the need to place ICT in the centre of EU policy-making; "not because it is a goal itself, but because it is the means to other goals", health, education, inclusive growth, gender quality and many more (European Commission, 2014). The Vice-President of the European Commission emphasised connectivity in Europe is directly linked to 'inclusive infrastructure' and has to be 100% accessible to Europeans, as without it the 'digital idea' becomes an unattainable goal. To strengthen Europe's knowledge economy and drive into future growth, investment has to be focused where the economic impact is biggest, in the digital market. More specifically, the dispersion of digital technology is the key to Europe's competitiveness (Business Europe, 2011).

The Digital Agenda contains 101 actions, in 7 pillars, which will help to revive the EU economy and reinforce the position of digital technologies among Europe's citizens and businesses (European Commission, 2010). The first pillar aims to synchronise the EU Single Market with the digital era, creating a Digital Single Market with limited barriers in the free of online services. The second is occupied with interoperability and standards, ensuring that new IT devices, applications and services interact without obstacles anywhere in Europe, while the third pillar wants to create a safe environment for online transactions (trust & security). The fourth pillar works towards a faster internet access available in Europe (30 Mbps for all of its citizens and at least 50% of European households subscribing to internet connections above 100 Mbps by 2020), to match world leaders like South Korea and Japan. The fifth pillar is working through the creation of a leading research and development market (R&D), world class infrastructure and sufficient funding, while the sixth pillar aims to enhance digital literacy and digital inclusion. Finally, the seventh pillar focused on the promotion of the ICT benefits for the European society (European Commission, 2010). Focusing on the Digital Single Market in this chapter, we will be able to evaluate the digital vision of the European Union through the assessment of digital expansion policies.

A Digital Single Market could be extremely helpful in addressing a wide range of Europe's current socioeconomic problems, due to the innovative character of the market. It could also potentially help to make Europe's labour markets more efficient and at the same time more social, while it would direct Europe into a low carbon economy. So what is the Digital Single Market? The first Pillar of the Digital Agenda, under Digital Single Market, stands for a new vision of online expansion. The numerous barriers blocking online services and entertainment across national borders underlined the necessity of updated EU rules to enter the digital era. These further targets at the reinforcement of the music download industry, the online payment systems and the extensive protection of EU consumers in cyberspace (European Commission, 2010). The target is that Europe gains 4% of GDP by fully developing the digital single market by 2020. This would interpret to a € 500 billion gain, meaning that the digital single market could have an impact similar to the 1992 Internal Market programme (Business Europe, 2011).

The vision of the European Commission upon completion of the Digital Single Market involves the enhancement of the EU legislation, in order to ameliorate the framework conditions for growth and jobs. Through the European Commission's Directorate General for Communications, Networks, Content & Technology (DG Connect), the EC aims to coordinate the policy initiatives that will lead directly to the completion of the Digital Single Market (European Commission, 2014). With 28 separate actions, the EC target at a digital economy that will potentially provide a major boost to EU productivity and growth. It is estimated that at least 4 percent additional GDP (EU27) could be gained in the longer run, by stimulating further adoption of ICT and digital services through the creation of a DSM (MICUS, 2008). This impact of the DSM is based on two aspects: the impact of improved physical infrastructure and improved e-readiness on the engagement of online services. The combination of improved infrastructure and increased e-skills can cause an increase in the use of online services of 3% per year. This generates two effects: structural change in the EU economy and improved productivity in all sectors (ECORYS, 2011).

The mid-term review presented in 2012 noted that regular internet usage has increasingly augmented in the first two years of the pillar, especially among disadvantages groups. At the same time, online commerce follows a continued increase, despite the fact that cross-border increase remains slower. High-speed broadband is beginning to take off, including ultra-fast connections above 100 Mbps (European Commission, 2012). As always, significant differences remain among different Member-States, differences which require the EU's action in order to minimise and eliminate (European Council, 2012). The following chapter provides important comparative data on the implementation of the DSM pillar across the EU member-states.

Digital Single Market in numbers

It appears that the online trends are continuously changing during the past five years. The most recent online services index have grown continuously in the past few years, from 5.1% in 2009 to 6.2% in 2013, showing that as people become more experienced and confident online, they increase the frequency of use, as well as the diversity of activities. This process takes time, and while leading countries such as Denmark and Sweden are about 4 years ahead of the EU average, internet users in countries such as Romania, Bulgaria, Italy and Poland are 4 years behind the average in terms of diversification of their online behaviour. The Graph Nr. 5: Activities performed online by internet users, a comparative graph, indicates the use of internet services in EU28, while the index was calculated on individual use based on the below parameters: sending/receiving e-mails, browsing for information about goods and services, reading online newspapers/news, looking for information on travel/accommodation services, posting messages to social media, interacting with public authorities, internet banking, telephoning or video calls, selling goods or services, purchasing content (films, music, software), purchasing goods, purchasing services.

The trend towards online shopping has also presented a significant increase. The proportion of online shoppers continued to grow, more than 10 percent between 2009-2013 for the 47% of the citizens. Therefore, the digital agenda target of 50% by 2015 is likely to be achieved. While there appears to be no overall relationship between the rate of online shoppers in a country and the rate of increase in this rate over the period observed, the countries with the lowest rates of online shoppers (Romania, Bulgaria, Italy and Estonia) have experiences the smallest progress in increasing rates. Cross-border online shopping has also increased over this period, up to 12% in 2013, but this pace is too slow to achieve the target of 20% by 2015. Usually, smaller member-states have higher rates of cross-border shopping. In Poland only, 9% of online shoppers purchased cross-border, the lowest share of all member-states by far (European Commission, 2014a). The Graph Nr. 6: online shopping trends by citizens, demonstrates the comparative increase of online shoppers between 2009 and 2013.

The revenues from advertising are in much slower recovery after the EU financial crisis. Online and mobile advertising are an exception since they demonstrate a much faster recovery than the advertising sector as a whole. Online advertising is, at the moment, overtaking traditionally dominant sectors in terms of revenue share. The financial crisis caused a brutal decline in advertising, but recently advertising revenues have slowly started to recover. Total advertising revenues reached 75.593 billion in 2013, which advertising still represents 87% of the 2007 pre-crisis peak value. Revenue for the whole advertising industry returned to positive growth in 2013, mainly due to the online and mobile segments. In 2013, revenue from traditional segments decreased 5%, while the Online + Mobile segments grew 18%. Online + Mobile advertising revenue shares have grown gradually since 2005. At 23 billion in 2013, they accounted for over 30% of total advertising revenue. By contrast, the revenue shares of the Print and TV segments have declined, and are about to be overtaken by the online segment. The Graph Nr. 7 and Nr. 8: Advertising Revenues, according to the type of media, showcases the segment occupied by the media types over the past decade and the share of advertising revenues, based on the type of media.

The Digital Agenda for Europe set three major targets on broadband: basic broadband networks should be available to all EU citizens by 2013 and by 2020 half of European households should subscribe to at least 100 Mbps, while 30 Mbps should be available to all Europeans (European Commission, 2014a). The data about basic broadband coverage show that basic broadband is available to everyone in the EU, while fixed technologies cover 97% leaving 6 million homes unconnected. Next Generation Access (NGA) covers 62%, increased when compared to 54% a year ago. Rural coverage still remains significantly lower, according to Graph Nr. 9: Technological coverage at EU level. Basic broadband is available to all member-states in the EU, when considering all major technologies (xDSL, Cable, Fibre to the Premises, WiMax, HSPA, LTE and Satellite). Taking only fixed, fixed wireless (WiMAX) and mobile wireless (HSPA and LTE) into account, the coverage goes down to 99.4%. Fixed and fixed-wireless technologies cover 97.2% of EU homes. Next Generation

Access technologies (VDSL, Cable Docsis 3.0 and FTTP) capable of delivering at least 30Mbps download are available to 62%. Coverage in rural areas is substantially lower for fixed technologies (89.8%), and especially for NGA (18.1%).

As a whole, it appears that indeed the digital market is gradually taking over traditional market segments, while the use of internet has significantly increased during the past five years. As the 2013 target on broadband is mostly achieved, the Digital Agenda has an obvious focus on migration to faster speeds now. In the next chapter, we will see how the EU is utilizing the telecoms sector to provide quality e-government services to EU-citizens.

Maximizing the use of information technologies in Public Administration

The introduction of ICT in public administration has created numerous opportunities for more efficient and dynamic work, providing the chance for innovation and better delivery of public services. The Lisbon Strategy for Growth and Jobs in 2000 created a new focus on achieving growth and sustainability for both the European Union and its member-states. The objectives of the Lisbon strategy aimed at the strengthening of European economies and employing the benefits of globalisation to cope with contemporary challenges: ageing populations, learning issues, environmental and sustainability challenges, competitiveness and efficiency, as well as technological challenges (Archmann & Iglesias, 2010). Therefore, EU institutions have recognised the importance of investing in the development of eGovernment and ICT, given the central role of these technologies in supporting the current trend in both public and private sectors. As a result, public administration has been required to take a leading role in innovation, promoting more dynamic and efficient working methods and higher-quality service eGovernment - a significant step towards innovation and efficiency in Public Administration in all EU member-states.

The increasing use of ICT has led public administrations across Europe to engage in severe transformation procedures, which aim at achieving a more efficient, friendly, citizen-and business-centric delivery of public services. The approach is known as "Transformational Government" and it has become a driving force for innovation and reduction of administrative burdens in European public administration. The Web 2.0 applications provide millions of possibilities that public services could benefit from (Archmann & Iglesias, 2010). While, though, the opportunities offered are enormous, there are also challenges to address in the implementation of such processes, such as ensuring digital access for all citizens (through expanded internet provision) and taking into account all dimensions of the sharing of governmental information across Europe. Public administration also has to adopt a new, market-oriented approach to the delivery of public services that minimises bureaucracy and reduces the administrative burden for citizens and businesses, thus enhancing their satisfaction and increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of public administration back-office functions.

The case of e-Government

The trends towards eGovernment have considerable changed during the past five years. Following an enumeration of statistical date from 2009 to 2014, we are able to follow through the swift in eGovernment services use. The 2009 Eurostat data revealed a gap between the different member-states which had to be taken into account, as well as the gaps in the use of ICT between different age groups, people with different levels of education and computer literacy, between people from rural/urban areas and between genders. According to Eurostat (2009), the use of ICT was close to 56% of the European Union's citizens. These figures also highlighted the diversification of these rates, which reached nearly 90% in countries such as the Netherlands, Denmark and Finland, while being between 30% and 35% in others, including Greece, Romania and Italy (Eurostat, 2009). The statistics also showed that barely 28% of the citizens of the EU-27 used the internet to interact with public authorities, in the last three months of 2009, and that there was a marked difference between member-states. Despite keeping a correlation with the use of the internet in private life, the rates of use for interaction with public authorities are lower, reaching a peak of 55% in countries such as the Netherlands and Finland, and only 5% and 10% in countries such as Greece, Romania and Bulgaria (Eurostat, 2009). The Graph 10, Regular users of the internet in the last 3 months of 2009, demonstrates these rates.

The latest 2009 statistics on eGovernment highlighted the importance of eInclusion (digital inclusion) and enhanced the commitment to achieve substantial improvements by 2015. EU governments need to 'to empower businesses and citizens through eGovernment services designed around users' needs, better access to information and their active involvement in the policy-making process' (European Commission, 2009). As a result, the European Commission has launched an ambitious programme to promote inclusion under the name 'No Citizen Left Behind', which aimed to foster eInclusion in all segments of population, paying special attention to the risk groups: people who reside in remote areas, people with physical impairments and the elderly (Blixt, 2010). Additionally, the programme promoted the development of

infrastructures and internet connection availability in any location within the EU, through broadband connection and mobile access (Blixt, 2010).

The Europe 2020 strategy introduced an ambitious agenda to exit from the economic crisis and to create a smart, sustainable and inclusive Europe that will be able to compete globally, across sectors. Improvement on numerous domains can be accelerated by better use of Information Technologies (ICT). ICT has proven to be a powerful tool to include people in society, e.g. the 'Arab Spring' could not have happened in the way it did without social media (Allagui, 2011). Mobile communications technology and applications enable citizens to access information and services anywhere. Thus, technology empowers citizens, not only among, but between people and governments.

Governments can more easily exchange data and therefore inform citizens and businesses, and better engage them in policy development, democratic decision-making and co-creation of services and content. Alongside benefits for citizens, ICTs offer significant advantages for governments themselves. Smart use of data can provide governments' with valuable information to anticipate trends, combat crime, or increase the effectiveness of public services. Importantly also, technology can be used by governments to significantly reduce costs, cause transform and innovate. To enable European citizens, businesses and governments to fully benefit from this digital revolution and to address current societal and economic challenges, governments must actively anticipate and exploit technological developments. To be part of the global economy of the future, they not only have to work towards a European Single Market, but towards a European Digital Single Market, the elements of which we examined in earlier chapter (European Commission, 2012c).

The seven flagship initiatives of the Europe 2020 Strategy include the Digital Agenda for Europe (DAE), which specifically addresses the need for effective use of ICT based on fully operational applications that will deliver social and economic benefits. The targets set by DAE for eGovernment are translated into specific actions for the EU governments in the European eGovernment Action Plan 2011-2015. The resulting eGovernment Action Plan focuses on four areas: 1) Empowerment of citizens and Businesses; 2) Mobility in the Single Market; 3) Efficiency and Effectiveness of governments and administrations; 4) Legal and technical preconditions. Actions are set out for each focus area and help governments deploy ICT in order to utilise public resources more efficiently, reduce public expenditure and provide digital government services across Europe.

Though promising vast benefits for governments and the society in general, the first survey conducted (online) on eGovernment services in Europe in 2012, revealed only one of two EU citizens is using eGovernment services, while user satisfaction for public online services lags behind the private sector (European Commission, 2012c). The European Commission released in 2012 the 10th Benchmark Measurement of European eGovernment Services, according to which availability of eGovernment services in the first two years was generally high, usage and satisfaction still needed improvement - particularly when compared with private eServices. Simplicity, time saving and flexibility are the key reasons citizens prefer to use eGovernment services. Ninety-three percent of the citizens, who used online services were fully or partially satisfied with what they received. Respondents from the 32 participating countries indicated that the barriers to adopting eGovernment services were difficulties in usage (24%), and lack of awareness (21%). Many citizens are still unwilling to use eGovernment services (80%), and indicated a strong preference for personal contact (62%), and/or expect that offline contact is required anyway (34%), and/or believed other channels to be more effective (19%). Interestingly, concerns about protection and security of personal data were only modest, at 11%. The Graph Nr. 11, Key insights user survey in all EU-27 (2010-2012), featured the relevant data.

Public services are increasingly becoming aware of the significance of information technologies. Although progressively used, the services leave room for improvement in many areas, which lead users to undervalue the effectiveness of online public services. According to the 11th eGovernment Benchmark report, noteworthy progress has been highlighted in the following four areas: a/ user centricity (online availability and usability), b/ transparency, c/ cross border mobility and d/ key enablers. On the one hand, online availability, which relates the existence of electronic channels for public services, is at 72 percent on average in the EU. Online usability, on the other hand, is 78 percent on government websites, even though ease and speed of use are at 58 percent, which leaves room for improvement. Online usability attempts to rate the overall experience by assessing usability features, including functionalities, support, feedback etc (European Commission, 2014b).

As far as transparency is concerned, the extent to which governmental platforms are indicated as fulfilling their responsibilities and performance reached only 48 percent. It is estimated that the low EU score was due to insufficient information provided to users about eGovernment services. However, the transparency levels are slightly higher when it comes to provision of institutional information about the administrations, or information concerning the personal data involved in service delivery (European Commission, 2014b). It is, though, undeniable that there is a long way to go in order

to achieve a fully open and transparent public e-service of organisations. When it comes to cross border mobility, the report showed that EU governments have not yet achieved to give businesses and citizens ample access to online public services, when they are away from their home country. Availability of cross-border public services remains at 42 percent, 30 percent points lower than availability of public services for country nationals. "Transactional services - these services where an electronic transaction between the user and the public administration occurs - are possible only in very few cases, causing unnecessary burdens for citizens and businesses that want to move, work or start up in another EU country" (European Commission, 2014b). Graph Nr. 12: eGovernment performance according to policy priorities, shows that the key enablers indicator measures the availability of technical elements, essential for public services, such as electronic identification (eID), electronic documents (eDocuments), authentic sources, electronic safe (eSafe) and single-sign-on (SSO). Technical elements, along with technical approaches, are critically important in order to set up seamless online services. According to the report, key enablers are implemented in less than half (49%) of the cases where they could be used.

The report summarizes the key findings from the recent survey as: a) considering that every European citizen had internet access combined with the skills to use it, there is still a noteworthy group of non-believers (38%) that refuse to use the online channel for public services, and b) this is mainly due to users' expectations driven by their experience with private service providers (online banking, for example) and online public services do not admittedly live up to those expectations. In response to the gaps featured at the implementation of eGovernment services, the European Commission is looking to engage the members-states in the promotion of an Open Government approach. This perspective includes opening their data and their procedures in order to provide better and cost-effective services, create jobs and growth in their countries. The open government approach also allows citizens to participate in the design, creation and delivery of digital services and contribute with their opinion in the improvement of the services. Horizon 2020 and Connecting Europe Facility will support the Open Government approach in the future (European Commission, 2014b).

A review of the EU telecommunications framework

The most important milestones have already been achieved by the work of the EU institutions, driven by the 'Digital Agenda for Europe'. Moreover, the fact that the Greek Presidency of the Council of the EU (January - June 2014) has placed ICT among its priorities constitutes already a promising first step. Moving to data, according to the Digital Agenda Scoreboard, published in May 2014, EU citizens and businesses are going online more, shopping online more often and have better skills in ICT. This is part of the new data of the Digital Agenda Scoreboard from 72 completed Digital Agenda actions out of 101 (European Commission, 2014a). In general, the results are considered by far positive. The internet usage has increased and continues to increase rapidly; now stands at 72%, from 60% that it was initially (2009). Progress has been even faster among disadvantaged groups, as well. Additionally, online shopping is progressing, arriving at 47% and 10 points up from the start of the DAE. Lastly, high-speed broadband is now available to 62% of the population, more than twice the 29% it was demonstrated in 2010. Still, progress so far has been heavily concentrated in urban areas. Given the limited advancement in rural areas, it is perhaps too early to judge whether the 2020 broadband targets will be reached. The Graph Nr. 13, Progress report 2009-2013, offers a total impression of the targets already met within the last four years.

However, few areas demonstrated a much slower progress. The area of eGovernment, to start with, which was examined in earlier chapter, added only four points over four years. This indicated a very slow growth compared to other online applications and is has indeed caused stagnation to a number of countries (Spain, Portugal, Hungary) (European Commission, 2014a). There has been considerable progress in many countries, but very slow change or even decrease in several large member-states (Italy, Poland, United Kingdom, Germany), which means that the EU average has been moved but in a limited scale. Obviously, neither the potential savings in administration costs nor the potential benefits to citizens are fully exploited. Secondly, the eCommerce sector offered a surprise in numbers. A plain 14% of SMEs used the internet as a sales channel, only two points up in four years. With such low rates, eCommerce can only be very limited tool for SMEs to grow and create jobs. The share of SMEs purchasing online is generally much higher, and the EU average of 26% is much closer to the target. This relative success is partly due to a much higher starting point. Thirdly, public support for Research & Development (R&D) in ICT is well below the annual growth needed to achieve a targeted doubling by 2020; budget deficit reductions have taken their toll. The target of doubling public R&D by 2020 requires an annual growth rate of 5.5%. Already last year actual performance was below the necessary trend line; now the gap is about 20%. And finally, cross-border shopping has been growing only slowly. Cross-border online shopping has also increased somewhat over this period, up to 12% in 2013, but this pace is too slow to achieve the target of 20% by 2015. As could be expected, smaller

member states have higher rates of cross-border shopping. However, they also exhibit higher growth. In Poland only 9% of online shoppers purchased cross-border, the lowest share of all member states by far.

In this challenging context, policies and regulation play a key role to keep pace with market and technology developments. The main target of EU policy-makers should be to shape a policy environment that attracts private investments. The first half of the year 2014 offered a great opportunity for EU to speed up its effort towards building a Smarter Europe and the Greek presidency work on the mid-term review of the 'Digital Agenda for Europe' has set ambitious vision for the future, according to Luigi Gambardella (Euractiv, 2014). The IP traffic was flourishing at a high pace (19.6 exabytes/month) and we should expect to see it growing in the coming years. In 2016, it is expected to reach 30.3 exabytes per month, according to Cisco's figures (Cisco VN1, 2012). These numbers and their impressive scale are foretelling that the future will be more connected and that this trend should be embraced. In order to exploit the enormous opportunities associated with this evolution, in fields such as cloud, e-health, e-government and many others, Europe needs to count on a prosperous telecommunications sector. With both fixed and wireless networks, telecom operators comprise the digital backbone of Europe, carrying every day the communications of hundreds of millions of people, businesses and governments (Euractiv, 2014). The review of the current framework should not only set priorities as a revision of the rules existing in the communications sector; it should rapidly develop the ICT landscape and new services, in order to better respond to the changing environment.

Conclusions

This article looked into the rapidly changing Information Technology landscape of Europe, with a focus on the 'digital agenda' of the EU that contributes to the expansion and development of the digital technologies. As Europe has discovered the need for technological development relatively recently compared to the USA, it became the centre of our study, through the recent adoption of digital technology-focused policies. Further studies can discuss the vision and social impact of European technology-focused policies in the future, especially in the areas that - as we saw in the article - lag behind in Europe.

A number of policies and bodies were examined in the present article, with three cases catching our attention. The Body of European Regulators for Electronic Communications (BEREC), the Digital Agenda with a focus on the Digital Single Market and the e-Government platform are three key initiatives towards the innovation and growth needed for EU to recover from the recent crisis. Analysing these three initiatives as case studies, with an amount of collective data in our disposal, it becomes easily understood that the direction towards technological growth is positive.

From a regulatory point of view, EU has been through an institutional change that helped to ameliorate the regulatory framework under which telecommunications have been functioning in Europe. It has become clear that the BEREC has set out a more active and resourceful schema to maximise networks and services' access. An important step towards internet open to all was made, even though the full range of activities converged telecoms have to offer are partly unexploited.

The economic strategy involving the EU Digital Agenda and its various targets has been designed with great prospects. All together, we observed, by the statistical data that the digital market has indeed developed over traditional market segments (such as traditional advertising or commerce), while the use of internet among people and business was increased. E-Government services have, finally, been studied as a form of maximization of technological use in public administration. In this area, the progress still lags behind considering other sectors, not only due to software features, but too often due to a lack of willingness and trust from the citizens.

Ultimately, the results demonstrate a considerable progress during the last five years, even though it seems impossible for some areas (e.g. e-Commerce, high-speed broadband, etc.) to meet their 2020 targets. What has, though, become clear is that for all digital fields to be properly exploited and developed, the EU needs to take the prospects of the telecommunications sector seriously. Additionally, the assessment of such services that will determine the future target should take into changing economic and socio-cultural environment within which EU policies operate, and not designed outside of it. The European Union should ensure that all reviews set an ambitious agenda to unleash further Europe's potential to invest and innovate at continental and global levels, and inspire creative leadership accordingly.

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Figures

Graph nr. 1: Market types according to restrictions
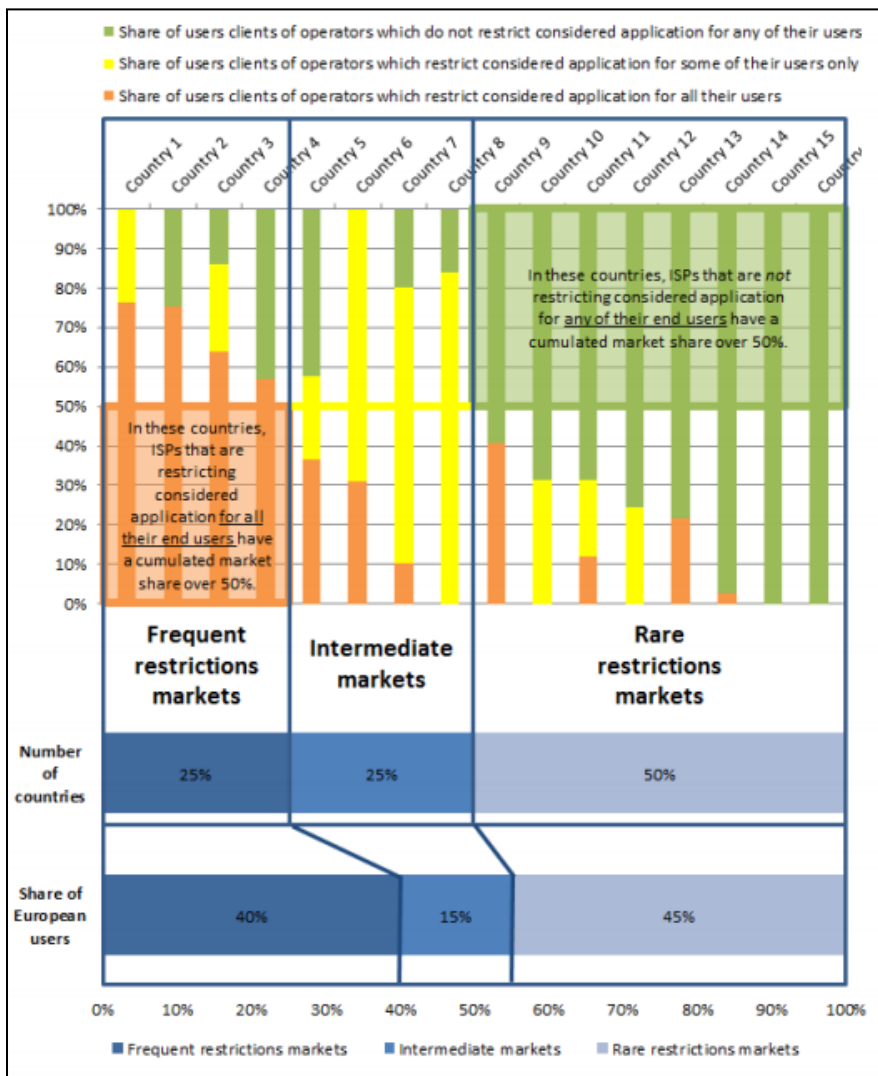
Source: BEREC, 2012, p. 25

Graph nr. 2: Fixed Market Types - Restrictions
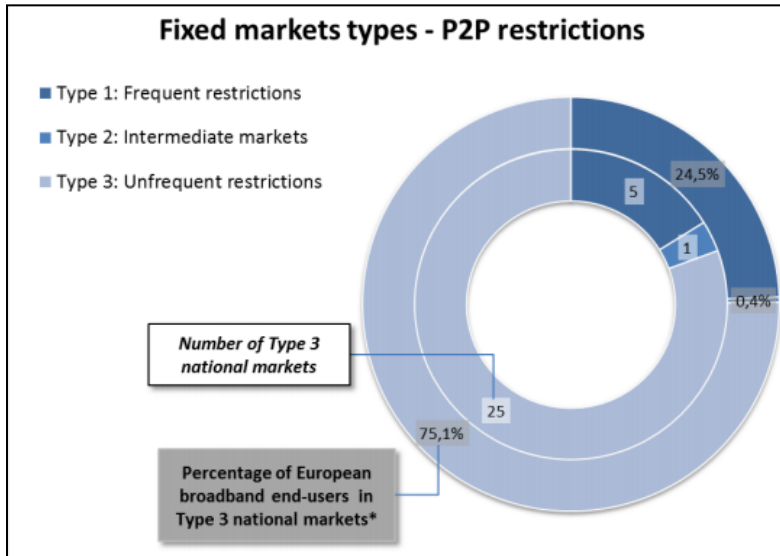
Source: BEREC, 2012, p. 26

Graph nr. 3: Mobile Market types - Restrictions
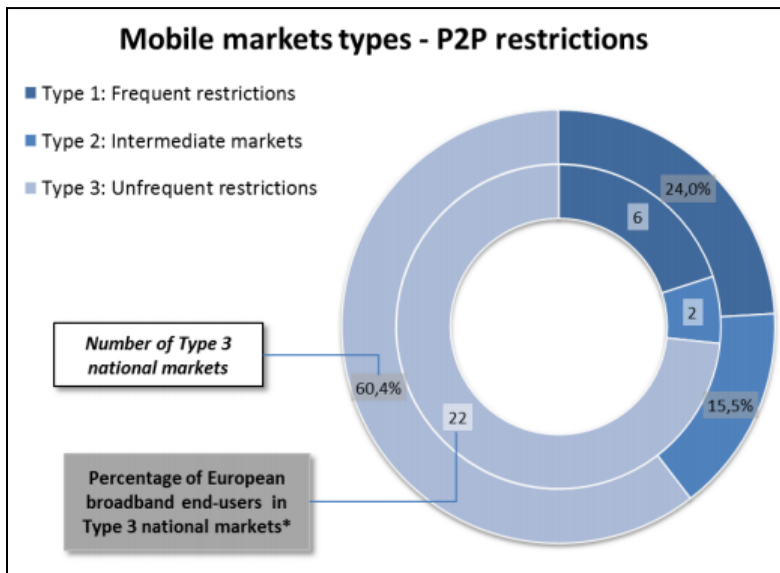
Source: BEREC, 2012, p. 27

Graph nr. 4: Mobile Markets - Restrictions
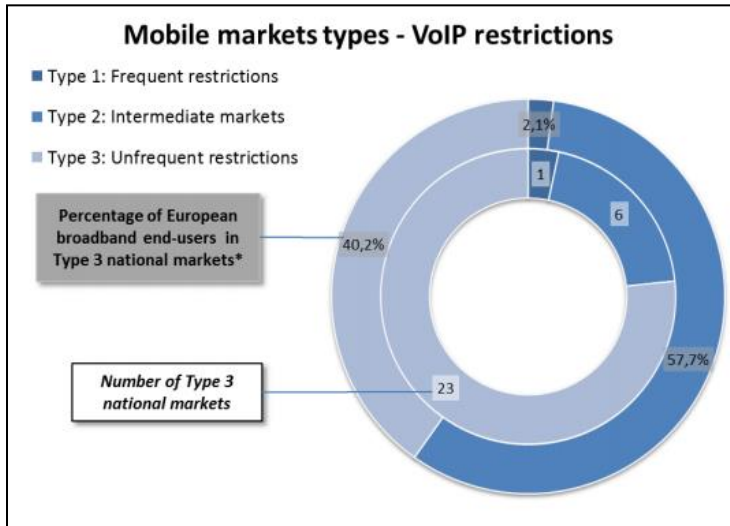
Source: BEREC, 2012, p. 28

Graph Nr. 5: Activities performed online by internet users
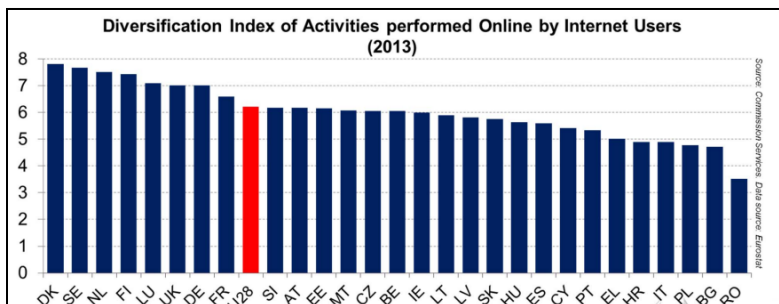
Source: European Commission, 2014a.

Graph Nr. 6: Online shopping trends by citizens
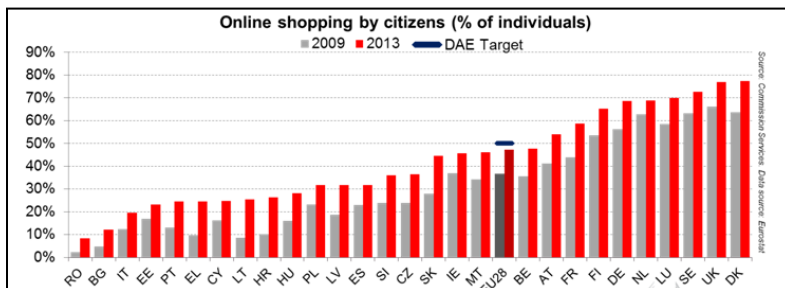
Source: European Commission, 2014a.

Graph Nr. 7, 8: Advertising Revenues, according to the type of media
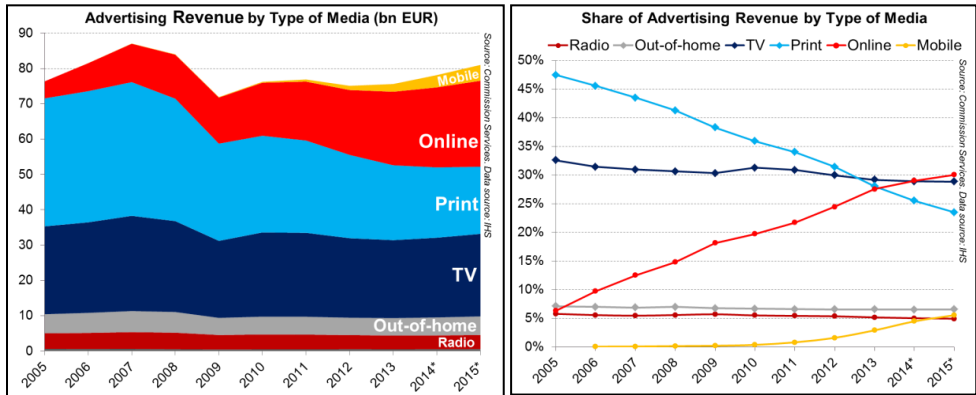
Source: European Commission, 2014a

Graph Nr. 9: Technological coverage at EU level
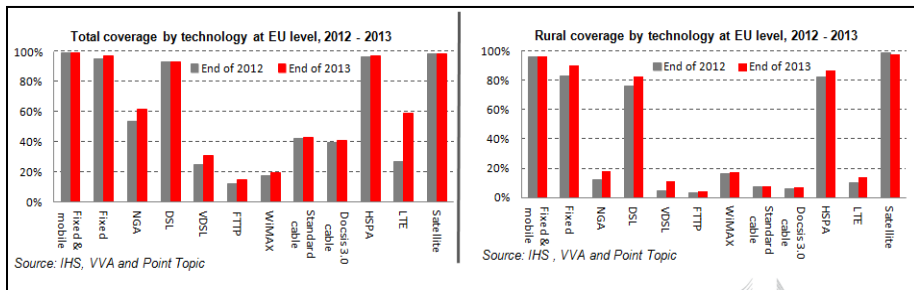
Source: European Commission, 2014a

Graph 10: Regular users of the internet in the last 3 months of 2009
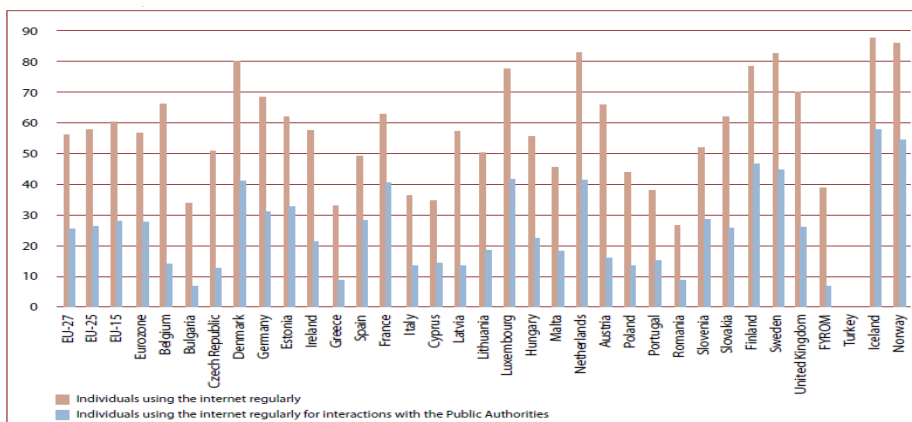
Source: Eurostat, 2009

Graph nr. 11: Key insights user survey in all EU-27 (2010-2012)

eGovernment Use	Barriers that prevent eGovernment use	eGovernment Satisfaction	Fulfillment & Benefits of eGovernment use
• 46% of users of public services used eGovernment services • 54% preferred traditional channels • However 50% of all respondents indicated to prefer the eChannel next time when they contact government • Most popular eGov service (among the 19 services examined): 'declaring income taxes' (73% of user will use the eChannel for this service next time), 'moving/changing address within country' (57%) and 'enrolling in higher education and/or applying for student grant' (56%) • Least popular eGov service: 'reporting a crime' (41%), 'starting a new job' (41%) and 'starting a procedure for disability allowance' (42%)	• 21% was notaware of the existence of relevant websites or online services, mainly younger people (especially students), who are more able/skilled and willing to use eGov BUT less aware of relevant services existing online • 80% indicates a lack of willingness to use eGov services. This group consists of relatively more women and older people but also 62% of daily Internet users • 11% did not use Internet because of concerns about protection andsecurity of personal data • 24% was not able to use eGov services. Mainly older people, but also young people who abandoned because the service was too difficult to use	• Satisfaction with eGovernment services is significantly (-2,0) lower than the satisfaction with eBanking services (resp. 6,5 & 8,5) • Satisfaction with eGovernment services is dropping since 2007, with 1,3 % • 'Declaring income tax' shows that eGovernment services can live up to citizens expectations • Services around (un)employment receive low satisfaction scores, reflecting today's economic situation	• 47% of eGovernment users fully got what he wanted from the public administration • 46% only partially receives what was looked for • 5% did not get what he wanted at all • Time and flexibility gains are most important to users, followed by saving money and simplification of a delivery process. Apparently, quality of a service is less relevant to citizens

Source: European Commission, 2012

Graph Nr. 12: eGovernment performance according to policy priorities
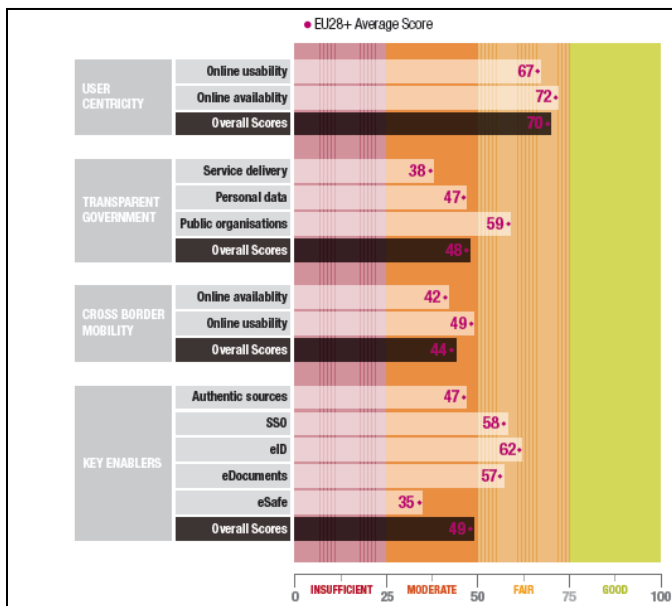
Source: European Commission, 2014c.

Graph Nr. 13: Progress report 2009-2013
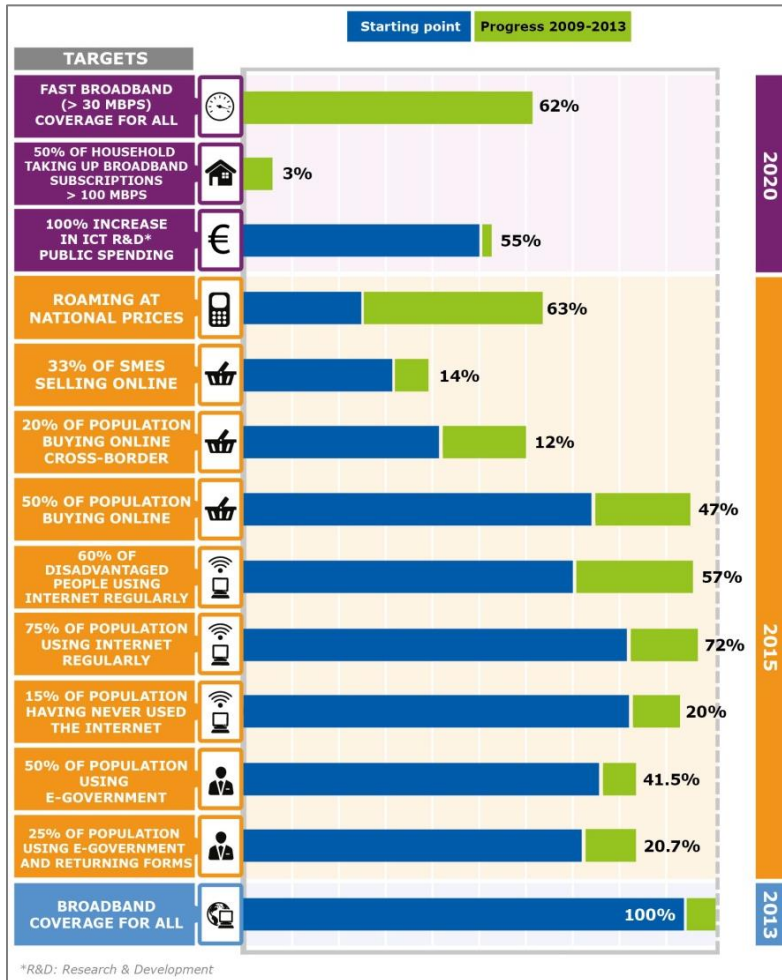
European Commission, 2014a

Importance of Human Resources Training in an Information Age

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to display conceptually the relationship and interaction between matter of human resources training and the information age. Fast development from industrial community to an information community has occurred and organizations have been seeking ways to overcome this change. Human resources policy and human capital with enhanced competence will have direct impact on work performance; therefore, this paper deals with the increased importance of human resource management due to the fact that it nurtures human capital. Researching and scanning are used as a method in this study. Both local and foreign literature and expert views are employed - as much as one could be- in the making of the theoretical framework of this study.

Keywords: Human Resources, Information Age, Education, Organization, Occupation

Introduction

From the time of first scientific studies carried out by organizations until today, the social-economic environment that organizations are in has proportionally changed, in the frame of this development, organization style changed from Classical to Neo-Classical and finally to Modern Organization. The rapid change in the concepts, values and understandings throughout the modern world have made the organizations to make policies and targets towards adaptation to these changes.

In today's circumstances, organizations are maturing and becoming more and more complex. Another factor which is increasing as well is the level of competition. In order to face the competition and to survive, organization must use its own sources efficiently and optimize its performance by increasing the harmony between its components. At this competition, physical assets of the enterprises have lost their importance; however, non-physical information based values and the management of production of information processes have become a matter of primary importance. It must be well noted that attempts to improve of harmony between the components do not ensure an increase on total organizational performance.

This study evaluates the significance of educational process in organisation, which provides the success and its sustainbility for the enterprises in global competition arena. At the same time this concepts create a innovative structure which isn't in a short period but in a gradual period, the accumulation and evolution of social, cultural and economic background; at firms are achieved through suitable management structure; and conscious and disciplined efforts of managers and employees.

Importance of education

Certainly, education is most important tools for mankind and there is nothing more important than education for him. Rousseau, uses the fictional story of Emile and his tutor to outline his ideas. He explains his opinions as such in there: "Plants are fashioned by cultivation, man by education... We are born weak, we need strength; helpless, we need aid; foolish, we need reason. All that we lack at birth, all that we need when we come to man's estate, is the gift of education. This education comes to us from nature, from men, or from things. The inner growth of our organs and faculties is the education of nature, the use we learn to make of this growth is the education of men, what we gain by our experience of our surroundings is the education of things." (Rousseau, 2009: 11) This book was banned and publicly burned on its publication, but became a European bestseller and provided a basis for new education systems.

At the same time, education is the most powerful link which turns mass people into nation. Education obtains this power from the culture that is the component, carrier and the protector of it.

But what is the real importance of education in a modern age? Today education gives us the keys to career success, sometimes being a leader is more possible with better education. But education is a highly complex concept. Billington warns us about the difference between "educere" and "educare" process. "We may offer both the word educare and the word educere/these words may look and sound alike, but there is between them a gulf of meaning so broad that it is difficult to imagine that they can both cohabit in the context of a school's…… ." (Billington, 1988: 279-291) Thereby the author stresses to important role of autonomy. İn his opinion: "Autonomy in a word, with educere as the dominant idea in education, its overriding aim will be that of producing not specialists in particular fields, but personal autonomy." (Billington, 1988: 282)

Autonomy is an important job component for job satisfaction. Moreover it is a basic leadership ability. Poper while criticizing Plato's leaders education thought, evaluate the leader abilities from the perspective of autonomy and intellectual independence. "Why is it that Plato does not wish his leaders to have originality or initiative? The answer, I think, is clear. He hates change and doesn't want to see that re-adjustments may become necessary. But this explanation of Plato's attitude does not go deep enough. In fact, we are faced here with a fundamental difficulty of the leader principle. The very idea of selecting or educating future leaders is self-contradictory. You may solve the problem, perhaps, to some degree in the field of bodily excellence. Physical initiative and bodily courage are perhaps not so hard to ascertain. But the secret of intellectual excellence is the spirit of criticism; it is intellectual independence. And this leads to difficulties which must prove insurmountable for any kind of authoritarianism. The authoritarian will in general select those who obey, who believe, who respond to his influence. (Popper, 1971: 134)

In such a society that most of the people -including the rulers- are under the influence of patrimonial structure, this concept gain more importance. Based on this reality for example the educational materials are being tried to teach chronology and historical phenomena strictly, boring and inaccurate books, lessons which are expert/teacher-centered and based on expert/teacher's instruction, not leading to research and thinking, and a dominant understanding based on memorization.

Especially in our complex world, the ability of criticism is a very important talent. Adorno regards education (Bildung) as a persisting area of conflict between an individual's autonomy and their adaptation to the demands of society. Education therefore entails an ongoing dialectic process between individual emancipation and the demands for submission to culture and society. Adorno's concept of (full) education is clearly connected to the idea of Bildung is seen as necessary to gain full and free individuality. Here, education does not aim to reach "useful" purposes or material aims. Rather it is designated to the long term interest of the subject and its personal development. (Adorno, 1951)

Sagan agrees with this view; and he shares a proclamation's of The Government of China and Chinese Communist Party in 1994 that read in part: "Public education in science has been withering in recent years. At the same time, activities of superstition and ignorance have been growing, and antiscience and pseudoscience cases have became frequent. Therefore, effective measures must be applied as soon as possible to strengthen public education in science." (Sagan, 1996b)

Human resources training

Organizations, due to numerous tasks dealt within, can be considered as quite complicated constructs in many concerns. In our global world; we observe that new values are adopted and new establishments and administrative structures are formed on this basis. Depending on this basis; the current Public Administration needs to renew itself within this course. The presence of the administrative institutions which are closer to the people has a fundamental role for detecting the social needs easily and offering efficient service.

Companies' continuity and conservation of their activities depends on their faster and more learning than their rivals. Importance of intellectual capital is constantly increasing for businesses. In the age of information, it can be observed that intangible assets, which include intellectual capital of businesses, overhaul tangible assets. Organizational knowledge, which consists of organizational rules, roles, customs, strategies, structures, technologies, cultural practices, capabilities etc., is the most valuable asset of today's organisations. Forming a learning organization requires changes in a lot of fields. These are a strong leadership, vision, team based structure, staff empowerment, information technologies, a participating strategy and organization culture.

Every employee has to learn the culture which belongs to its organization in order to live an individual of the organization and gain the cultural identification which the culture resources to.

When looking at the relationship and interaction between the matter of motivation and the administrator, it is seen that there is strong relation between whether that organization is public or private. Especially public administrators do not sufficiently motivate their employees. Essentially, the public administrators have positive attitudes towards maintaining motivation in fact, but they do not turn these attitudes into behavior and therefore reflect those positive attitudes. The reason is the adoption mostly of the traditional leadership style by the administrators and their display of their behaviors in light of the leadership values that prevails in the local bureaucratic culture.

Importance of training is reveals much in this situation. All workers must learn basic goal and mission their company's ideal and priorities. Philip Kotler, who the Financial Times on November 18, 2005 surveyed 1,000 executives in 25 countries on the Most Influential Business Writers/Management Gurus and him ranked fourth after Peter Drucker, Bill Gates, and Jack Welch. Kotler describes strategic marketing as serving as motivating all persons for a goal. He explain this concepts in interviews to Drucker, like this: "Marketing in a non-profit organization becomes effective when the organization is very clear about what it wants to accomplish, has motivated everyone in the organization to agree to that goal and to see the worthwhileness of that goal, and when the organization has taken the steps to implement this vision in a way which is cost-effective, in a way which brings about that result." (Drucker, 63)

This policy known as a transperancy. Adoption of transparency in all organisation level is a necessity for the achievement of both own employee and public confidence. Organisations could enhance their corporate transparency levels through following globally accepted principles and guidelines. As a result, the employment of the in-service programs through the usage of the transformational leadership style among the modern leadership styles is recommended for the maintenance of motivation in order to turn the said administrators' positive attitudes into behavior.

Additionally we live in an era when the humanitarian values and the understandings towards it increases in individual wealth and happiness gain importance. For this reason Dudley Hafner stresses this opinion: "The strategy is how we use our resources to get the attention of that individual to do what it is we hope he or she will do… İt is always focused on an individual. (Drucker, 72)

The rise in individuality and the effort to align this with the values of the organization has caused the organizational workforce approaches to change and adapt. Castells, while affirming this analysis, touches on the importance of the fact that this change in approach has opened new avenues to social interaction. "Torn by the internationalization of finance and production, unable to adapt to the networking of firms and the individualization of work, and challenged by the degendering of employment, the labor movement is weakened as a major source of social cohesion and worker's representation. It doesn't disappear, but it becomes, primarily, a political agent integrated into the realm of public instititons." (Castells, 2009: 419)

Information age and its technologies

Today, all over the world, information services are becoming a featured matter and is considered as one of the impulsive forces of economic and social development. Manuel Castells is a big name in information society thinking and writing about Finland's Information Society. "In 2000 the IMD ranked Finland as the third most competitive economy ın the world –the World Economic Forum (WEF) ranked it the most competitive. But the most distinctive feature of Finland is its combination of an information society and the welfare state. The Finnish welfare state includes totally free, high-quality, public education from kindergarten to the university (with one of the highest combined educational enrolment rates in the world), universal public health coverage (granted as a right based on citizenship), and a generous social system with universal retirement and unemployment insurance, which has made Finland a country with one of the smallest number of poor in the world." (Castells and Himenen, 2002: 12)

Informational transformation is a cultural and social, as well as a technical change and therefore, it should not be studied inside engineering discipline. But it needs a scientific interest. For example Maalouf complains about our education systems: "I am conscious of belonging to a generation that is highly privileged compared to every previous one, if only by dint of advances in medicine and information technology. But I cannot calmly enjoy the benefits of modernity if I am uncertain that generation to come will be able to enjoy them just as much." (Maalouf, 2011: xxıı)

Sagan thinks similarly in this topic too. He says: "If we can't think for ourselves, if we're unwilling to question authority, then we're just putty in the hands of those in power. But if the citizens are educated and form their own opinions, then those in power work for us. In every country, we should be teaching our children the scientific method and the reasons for a Bill of Rights. With it comes a certain decency, humility and community spirit." (Sagan, 1996a)

Organizations can be regarded as systems which transforms inputs onto outputs by their human resources, technology and know-how. Especially, for the factories of our country which reached a significant technological level, the importance

of information technologies have not to be underestimated. Informational institution transformation should be regarded as a project process, updated by periodical evaluations, in which basic needs and demands of the users and the strategies and formation policies are determined.

For this reason, education to employees is a long term process. Billington thinks to "Whatever view be held on the structure of the educational system, the basic question remains as to whether there is ever a time when a person's education should be seemed to be at an end." (Billington, 1988: 291)

Sociologist Manuel Castells has noted, "The future informational society is characterized by an increasing polarization of occupational structure. In the case of the United States, the Bureau of Labor Statistics included in its projections an analysis of the educational level required fort he 30 occupations that were expected to decline fastest between 1990 and 2005… The conclusion of the authors of the study is that "in general, a majority of the (groving) occupations require education or training beyond high school. In fact more than 2 out of 3 of the 30 fastest growing occupations, and nearly half of the 30 with the largest number of jobs added had a majority of workers with education or training beyond high school in 1990." (Castells, 2007)

While questioning the educational needs, some basic demands of the users should be taken into consideration when transforming into an informational-institution, the employees should be regarded as a customer or even a partner of the organization; they must believe in the benefits of education programs; they should be informed about the services of the informational-institution and they should also have the necessary equipment and training on how to use these services; otherwise they will never be able to reach the targets set on science and technology policies no matter how well.

Conclusion

Today human capital, which is accepted as one element of intellectual capital, is seen as the most important of these intangible assets. It is not possible to explain economic wellbeing by physical capital itself. The necessary measures must be taken in order to develop not only physical capital but also human capital and use it efficiently. Human resource management of firms play an essential role in utilizing human capital effectively.

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Dobrujan Interculturality – German versus Turkish Culture

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Abstract

The first cultural influences come out in Dobruja together with the appearance of the first German colonists, beginning from 1840 till 1891. The colonization process develops itself in three stages and colonies in places like Tulcea, Malcoci, Almagea, Ciucurova, Cogealac, Tariverde, M. Kogălniceanu and others set up as a result. The German population has created an original culture, an ethnic and spiritual communication being deeply set up, but at the same time a communication struck by the specific conditions imposed by the history of this south-eastern European area. On the other side, the Turkish invasion of Dobruja started earlier, in 1388, when it was actually defeated by Mircea cel Bătrân. In 1393 the Turks succeeded in taking Dobruja and Silistra, but in 1404 Micea cel Bătrân re-conquered the greatest part of these regions. Many Turkish and Tartars moved into Dobruja during the long period of Ottoman rule. The 19th century ethnographic maps show a mainly Turkish population in the area of modern day Dobruja, Tartars and Turks in the southern part of Dobruja and Romanians dominating the north of Dobruja. The paper aims at presenting aspects regarding these two different identities and cultures which are to be found in Dobruja, as well as their integration process within the Romanian Dobrujan modern society.

Keywords: colonization, influence, interculturality, Germans, Turks

Introduction

Dobruja, or sometimes Dobrudja (Dobrogea in Romanian, Dobruca in Turkish, Dobrudscha in German), is the territory between the Danube river and the Black Sea, including the Danube Delta, Romanian coast and the northernmost part of the Bulgarian coast. Along the history, since Middle and Upper Paleolithic, the territory of Dobruja has been inhabited and ruled by different nation: in 681 AD Dobruja became part of the First Bulgarian Empire; in 1241 the first Tatar groups, under Kadan, invaded Dobruja starting a century long history of turmoil in the region (most of these Turks returned to Anatolia in 1307, while those who remained became Christianized and adopted the name Gagauz); in 1419 Mehmed I conquered all of Dobruja; the Russian Empire occupied Dobruja several times during the Russo-Turkish Wars. Later on, between 1926 and 1938, about 30,000 Aromanians from Bulgaria, Macedonia and Greece were settled in Southern Dobruja, as well as Lipovans, Italians and Germans. [1]

Around the year 1700, many Germans were fleeing their homeland to find an easier life in other European countries, the Western Hemisphere, and Australia due to extremely violent conditions. Unlike most immigrants, German immigrants mostly did not immigrate for political reasons. In fact, the country was repeatedly being attacked by armies of various nationalities. Inhabitants of the south-western part, especially, were constantly robbed and tortured. Entire villages were often burnt down and their inhabitants killed. During the flood of emigrants from Germany, its rulers tried to stop the flow, but to little effect. [2]

Another reason of immigration was the overpopulated area from the region of Rhine River and the economical crisis which appeared because of the economical and social situation in Germany (taxes to the state, the desire to become free from slavery). [3]

Therefore, the process of colonization of the Saxons living in Transylvania took place in several stages. The first contacts with the Germanic peoples were in the 2nd century AD when they were trying to settle down for a while on the territory of our country. The Germanic peoples coming to Dobruja were the Swabians and they appeared here in three distinct stages starting with 1840 till 1891. In the first stage (1840–1856) the Swabians founded the colonies from Tulcea, Malcoci, Atmagea, Cataloi and Ciucurova in the North part of Dobruja. In the second stage, the Swabians settled down in

the South part of Cogealac, Tariverde, Făclia, M. Kogălniceanu, Constanţa and Lumina. In the third stage, between 1890 and 1891, the Swabians founded the compact colonies from Cobadin and Sarighiol and formed communities in Mangalia, Osmancea, Bărăganul and Viile Noi (near Constanţa).

Once settled, the Dobruja Germans (in German: Dobrudscha-deutsche) dealt with breeding, butter production and trade, handicraft, building in this way rural communities. This process took place in a rather short period of time because of their discipline and deftness. The villages where the Germans used to live had a nice structure. One could find there school, church, dispensary, stores and very nice houses with high, sculpted gates.

These colonists built their houses, even from their early times on the Dobrujan territory, using occidental architecture elements, later introducing gothic architecture elements. The houses were painted in colours such as green, blue, orange and they were made of pressed ground. One could admire the red Pelargonium at the windows. The yards around the houses were surrounded by thick walls, similar to the ones used for fortresses and they were paved with brick and not with cement, in order to permit the ground to take air.

Their houses were set in ordered positions, built in a very simple manner, but though elegant, covered with straws, iron plate, tile, reed, the streets were wide. Nothing special was observed inside their houses. The role of the housewife was not important because everything the family needed was bought from the fair. The animals were very good taken care of, the Swabians being considered the best horse breeder in Dobruja.

The regions where the Germans came from were rainy, this being the reason why the window roofs were very large. The houses which had also a porch, in order to protect the rooms from the hotness of summer, is one of the architectural elements taken over from the Romanians. The oriental elements when building their houses were the ceramics slates and the special windows from Anina (a town in south-western Romania in Caraș-Severin County). From their culture they preserved the rectangular streets lined with houses, the structure of the rooms and writing down the name of the house owner and the year of its building on the house wall closer to the street. [4] The high gates and the houses situated near the street had the role to protect the family against the curious people: "the yard is an intimate space for the Germans. On the other hand, Gipsies like everybody to see them, their life being similar to a show. Gipsies like being seen, Germans don't." [5]

In their villages one could find very beautiful and imposing churches, where the entire community was gathered. The churches were built according to the German architectural style. The priest was considered as a spiritual and intellectual leader of the community, their cultural, social and even political life being very much influenced by him. The sermon was heard in German language and when it was over, the people were leaving the church; the women first and then the men.

It is well known that the Germans have always been united through tradition. This is how the preservation of customs can be explained. Weekly the Germans used to throw parties and balls where all sorts of specialties were served and good music was played. Each village had its own fanfare as all inhabitants could play a musical instrument.

The Germans were hospitable people. When they used to have people over, they would immediately offer them beer. There was also a saying: "give the Germans beer and they will no longer ask for wine." They were an example of civilization through the keeping of the religious holidays: "on Crops Day, they would decorate the mirrors with red tinsel and would throw with wheat and corn grains on the floor. The German women accompanied them to the ale house. The Romanian stood aside laughing at them."[6]

The first cultural influences made their presence felt once with the arrival of the first German colonists. At the basis of their spiritual life were the religious beliefs and the Bible represented for them their spiritual food and an important inspirational source for the literary creation. [7] Besides der Hiller, which was of great importance to the evangelical colonists, Grosse Himmelsschlüssel was also a book of prayers for the catholic colonists. [8] Among these religious books an important role was played by the calendars spread mainly in Ciucurova, Cogealac, Tariverde, Cobadin, and in other places (St. Maria- und St. Josef-Kalender, Die Jahreszeiten, Prochaskas Famillien-Kalender).

A central role within culture is played by education, school representing one of the priorities of the German community from Romania. H.O. Roth said in 1925 that "the most important things that our institutions can offer us are included in the confessional school, which grew from the history of our people. The confessional school is seen as a source of culture and moral, qualities which are to be found in the centre of our developing as a people". [9]

Representative for the German school is the fact that it tried to adapt itself to the new development level of the Romanian society, to preserve the tradition, and at the same time to assimilate several elements from the new pedagogical trends. Between the years 1918–1944 the German school confronted itself with the tribulations from the political and national sphere, but it remained the main element in the development of the German culture. [10]

The development of the German literature in Romania, between the 17th and 18th centuries, was influenced by the development of the Romanian literature, numerous Romanian authors being as well influenced by the German language literature. The press, newspapers and magazines, gave a remarkable support in this sense, promoting in this way the culture and implicitly introducing the literary creations of the German language authors to the public. [11]

A particular interest in the folk creation was shown by the Germans from Dobruja who considered it "to spring from the German people's soul and to last as long as this soul carries on". [12] As proof to the presence and interest in the German folk creation in Dobruja stands Arthur Byhan's (1915) collection, containing 39 old folk songs, of which 19 were taken from a song booklet found in Cogealac (1899–1901) written by Robert Radke. 12 songs belonged to a songs' collection which were sung in Malcoci during 1898–1901, while the rest came from Caramurat. These songs have known great spreading, even if many of them were written in dialect (A Rondreis durch d Dobrudja – Alida Schielke-Brenner, Wie ich zum erschte Mol nach Siebenbirga gfahre ben – Anna Pfeifer – Tariverde).

The folk songs from this period of time do not stand out from an artistic point of view. In what the content is concerned, themes like love and its avatars, happiness, separation, death, infidelity, temptation, disgrace are approached. These folk songs represent the ancient folk song with its origins in different parts of Germany. The folk creation also includes several songs whose subjects are the love stories of some knights, riders and hunters. Other examples are the songs which appeared at the end of the 16th century – Es waren drei gefangen, Es ging ein Jäger aus frischem Mut – the song about a count and a nun (Ich stand auf hohem Berge), attested by A. Byhan in Cogealac for the first time. This song was also mentioned by Goethe in Alsace in 1771, which appeared later in the Netherlands, Denmark and Sweden.

From a literary point of view, the work of the Romanian writers creates an image specific to the Romanian, be that of a peasant, worker, writer or intellectual, an image which differs from that of the character created by the German language writers in attitude, behaviour, social relationships. If we were to discriminate between these two literary patterns we could mention differentiating characteristics of the two nationalities. While the Germans have a rigid and well-balanced structure, the Romanians are more flexible. Hard-working, skilful, forgiving, though history had a great impact on them, the Germans always had the belief that they can cope with anything. Honesty, balance, decency, ethics, self-discipline are only few of the specific traits that characterize the Germans from Romania.

Living mostly side by side with the Romanians and the Turks, the German language writers, some of them unknown, described in their works the way in which they saw their cohabitants, their lifestyle and customs. [13]

A very good example is the short story Die Tatarin (Tatar Woman). The story is placed in the country side, in the middle of nature. As opposed to the bleak atmosphere and to the resigned nature of the people in this place, the young Tatar woman becomes the heroine of a dumb rebellion against her status as an abandoned and vulnerable woman: "Driven by anger, the woman would have humiliated herself in order to be independent and to no longer ask anything from Seifedin." [14] To a certain extent, the success of the story is based on the way the main character is drawn. Muhibe, an ordinary woman and a courageous, hard-working mother, has as sole purpose offering her daughter a good life, all on her own. From the description of the Tatar woman, one can create the portrait of the Tatar people: hard-working, courageous, able to fight for social independence, carrying, but also vulnerable or angry when being humiliated.

The Turkish people tried to make their presence felt among other nations in Dobruja even from the early times on the Dobrujan territory. The Turks of Romania / Dobruja are often referred to as the Osmanlis, the Rumelian Turk, and the Balkan Turk, (Rumelia means "land of the Romans" and refers to the Balkan Mountains). They are the descendants of the Ottoman Turks who migrated from their central Asian homeland, conquered Anatolia (modern day Turkey), and eventually established the Ottoman Empire.

At its peak, the Ottoman Empire encompassed the Balkan Mountains, Arabia, and North Africa. At one time, the empire also threatened to take over Vienna. Romania was part of the Ottoman Empire for more than 300 years, until the country gained its independence in the 1860's.

During the long Ottoman Empire reign, the Turkish people often settled in Balkan towns and served as military personnel or administrators, or worked as craftsmen. During the late eighteenth century, many Crimean Tatars and Circassians from the Caucasus migrated to the Dobruja region, where they were given land by the Ottoman government. The immigrants formed farming villages, adopted the Turkish language and religion, and intermingled with the Rumelian Turk. These Rumelian Turks are still a distinctive cultural entity. However, religious, linguistic, and social differences prevented Rumelian Turks from intermarrying with the local populations in large numbers. When they did intermarry, Turkish men usually married Muslim, non-Turkish women. Under Communist rule, the Muslim minority was governed by a Mufti (Muslim leader), whose seat was at Constanta, the capital of the Dobruja region. [15]

The Rumelian Turks are descended from Turks who settled in the Balkans when, from the 15th to the 19th centuries, that region of southern Europe was part of the Ottoman Empire. They were stranded when imperial territories began acquiring national independence in the 19th century. Most of the Rumelian Turks resettled in Turkey between 1878 and 1924. In rural areas, Rumelian Turks tended to become farmers or artisans in the coastal villages evacuated by Greeks during the 1920s population exchanges. Their most common preoccupation was trade. They used to have small shops, which were used as workshops where coppersmiths, silversmiths and bronzesmiths worked metals into beautiful artefacts. There were also carpenters' and shoemakers' shops.

Similar to the German people, the Turkish people were very religious. Religious freedom was guaranteed to all citizens under the Communist Romanian Constitution, but in practice, religion was not encouraged and clergy were restricted and often hindered in their duties. Religious education was discouraged and, in some cases, totally banned. But the Muslim religion was very much respected by its people. More, it forbade drinking alcoholic beverages. Even if most of the nations cohabiting in Dobruja weren't Muslims, very few of the Rumelian Turks are known to have become Christians.

In the areas where they used to build their houses, the streets were narrow and were lined with houses and garden walls on both sides. Their houses were built in an interesting way. The ground floor was faced with flat stones. Stables, sheds, store-rooms, and pantries were usually on the ground floor. This made their homes look special.

One of the best examples of interculturality is having three different cultures cohabitating – the Romanian, the German and the Turkish one –: "What we are calling culture is the set of features which typify a people, group, society, (...) which can be recognized by habits, feelings, and a material world of objects both utilitarian and aesthetic. And, even more specifically, a certain way of unifying these different elements." [16]

As a result, interculturality might be defined as a set of processes through which relations between different cultures are constructed. The aim is to enable groups and individuals who belong to such cultures within a single society or geopolitical entity to forge links based on equity and mutual respect. Interculturality must not be seen as something general but rather as a phenomenon of many facets that together form a unit, although the facets may be considered separately from certain angles and in certain lights. The various facets of interculturality should thus not be considered as fragmenting the concept into disparate elements but as each embodying some of its characteristics and reflecting a predominant focus, without excluding others. In considering the situation of migrants or of the new "minorities" in south-eastern Europe the dominant facet of interculturality is the concern to address differences, in order to identify the misunderstandings and conflicts they may engender from each culture and to find solutions. In exploring linguistic diversity or seeking to understand the importance of the media, the relevant facet of interculturality is centred on communication issues.

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Globalization and Health in Kosovo

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Abstract

Kosovo and the region have had a traditionally long history of problems with the health care system. The situation worsened since the ex-Yugoslav conflict in the nineties when Kosovo inherited a large, hierarchical, and centralized healthcare system from socialist Yugoslavia (UNDP, 2013). This paper focuses on the effects of globalization on health in Kosovo; more specifically the effect of Global Food Trade in Kosovo's health and the development of information technology and telemedicine in Kosovo. Further, this paper focuses on the opportunities for Kosovars to obtain healthcare outside of Kosovo as well as prospects for the medical personnel to practice their profession abroad.

Keywords: Globalization, healthcare, Kosovo

Globalization and Health: The Case of Kosovo

Economics studies have addressed the consequences of globalization on health, yet the lone terminology of health seems to be mostly absent in the literature of globalization and economics. Subsequently, literature shows many definitions for the term 'globalization'. Globalization is best defined by Lee (2003) in terms of three types of changes which have been occurring at unparalleled rates over the past few decades: Spatial changes (movement of people), Temporal changes (perception of time and experience), and Cognitive changes (perception of self and world).

Most of the existing literature, however, describes the effect of globalization on health as either "good" or "bad" (Lee, 2003; Frenk & Gomez-Dante, 2002) and generally, the literature in the health sciences takes a more negative view of globalization (Frenk & Gomez-Dante, 2002). According to the American Institute of Medicine (2007), the perceived threat of health from globalization is mainly focused on the potential movement of people from low- and middle- income countries. Rich countries, on the other hand, fear the potential financial burden of unhealthy populations migrating from the developing world (American Institute of Medicine, 2007). Most of the rich countries tend to overlook the migration of health professionals from poorer countries, who benefit the health system in their countries (Collin, 2003). Additionally, the privatization of health services is seen in literature as a threat to the health of the poor, who are typically served by public provision (Drèze and Sen, 2002). Moreover, concerns about mutual trade agreements between the US and other countries, especially when the interests of the US pharmaceutical companies are at stake, are strongly noted throughout literature (Frenk & Gomez-Dante, 2002).

Moreover, food companies are also seen as a threat on global heath, noting that Africa is now the only continent in which the majority of deaths are from infectious diseases, rather from heart disease and cancer (World Health Organization, 2010). World Health also notes that the majority of the developed and developing countries now suffer from the 'epidemic' of obesity. On the contrary, Bordo et al. (2003) write that higher income promotes better health. In support, Preston (1980) notes that the link between income and health is typically strong in poor countries suggesting that the reduction of poverty globally would improve population health.

Generally, the effects of globalization on health are both positive and negative. The equilibrium between these two effects is country and population specific (Lee, 2003). Moreover, the effects are also dependent on one's geographical location, sex, age, ethnic origin and educational level (Deaton, 2004). The challenge with the effects of globalization emerges when trying to unravel individual impacts on health and their specific distributions across populations. Population health is also affected by the global changes in economy, environment and population movement (Deaton, 2004). One of the key challenges of the modern world is the management of globalization, as globalization does not have a fixed course but follows the path that favors certain interests and avoids others (Syed et al., 2012).

Globalization has affected Kosovo in many areas positively and negatively. In Kosovo, the health sector has suffered from not only the physical destruction of violent conflict but from long-term under-investment in staff development and lack of maintenance of physical infrastructure and equipment (United Nations, 2005). Kosovo's health budget is highly supported by donor funding (UN, 2005; WHO, 2010).

This paper focuses on the effects of globalization on health in Kosovo; more specifically the effect of Global Food Trade in Kosovo's health and the development of information technology and telemedicine in Kosovo. Further, this paper focuses on the opportunities for Kosovars to obtain healthcare outside of Kosovo as well as prospects for the medical personnel to practice their profession abroad.

Background: Kosovo Health System

Kosovo and the region have had a traditionally long history of problems with the health care system. The situation worsened since the ex-Yugoslav conflict in the nineties when Kosovo inherited a large, hierarchical, and centralized healthcare system from socialist Yugoslavia (UNDP, 2013).

The health system in Kosovo, as elsewhere in Eastern Europe, was largely based on the Semashko model of healthcare delivery. The Semashko system of health care was utilized throughout the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe and it centralized decision-making by emphasized specialization of services through a doctor-, hospital- and treatment-oriented system (UNDP, 2013). The first points of contact for patients were the polyclinics, which were located in major towns and municipalities. The central government functioned as the purchaser and provider of the health care services (Ministry of Health, 2013).

Under the 1974 Yugoslav Constitution, Kosovo had been granted autonomous status within the Republic of Serbia. This status was revoked by Belgrade in March 1989, initiating a decade of tension and conflict. The health sector became a natural battleground for the conflict between Kosovo's majority Albanian population and the federal government in Belgrade. Over 90% of clinics and health institutions were damaged during the war, and many private clinics of Albanian health professionals were destroyed. A general collapse of the public-service infrastructure, particularly water and electricity, deeply affected the health sector (Buwa & Vuori, 2006). The Serbian Ministry of Health assumed control of the Kosovo health system, and directors and boards of health institutions were forced to report directly to Belgrade.

Discrimination of Kosovar patients and doctors by Serb-dominated medical staff was one of the main problems followed by the lack of practical and professional experience of the medical staff. Needless to say, after decades of no investment, maintenance or renovations, the infrastructure became outdated and deeply consumed (Holst, 2007). The frequency rate of infectious diseases rose; immunization rates declined, and vaccination coverage for children against polio, diphtheria, tetanus, etc., fell below 60 percent, with some areas falling below 30 percent coverage (Ministry of Health, 2013).

Institutions of healthcare in rural areas suffered from lack of personnel and equipment. Access to emergency and after-hours care varied and was unreliable. These services were mostly available only in larger cities and the availability of services through private practices increased dramatically (Percival & Sondorp, 2010).

At the end of the conflict in 1999, more than 400 donors and aid agencies came to Kosovo, and one of the main tasks was to reconstruct the war-damaged healthcare system (Buwa & Vuori, 2006). At first, a post-war health reform program was acclaimed as a success; however, the implementation of the reform itself proved to be more problematic than its creation, and as a result, the reform did not accomplish its expected outcomes (Percival & Sondorp, 2010).

The effect of Globalization in Kosovo Healthcare

After the end of the conflict, the Ministry of Health was established within the Temporary Government to lead the health sector (UN, 2010). The Ministry defined their priorities of reconstruction by renovating medical facilities, training medical staff, adding cost to medical services and development of health insurance plans (UN, 2010). Thirteen years later, we see both the positive and negative effects of globalization in Kosovo's healthcare.

Global Food and Tobacco Trade and Health in Kosovo

One of the factors, which has affected the healthcare worldwide, has been the domination of global food companies and their aggressive marketing strategies to increase the food trade (Chopra et al, 2002). Fat and calorie rich, brand name foods have been contributing to the global epidemic of obesity.

After the war ended in 1999 and especially after Kosovo gained its independence in 2008, many international food brands joined the market. Just in the last decade, Kosovo has started to experience a boom in the fast food industry with zero awareness on the negative effects (Domac, 2011). As a result, the numbers of people who are obese has increased. Consequently, the number of heart disease and cancer is on the raise (Center for Global Research, 2009).

Moreover, the import of tobacco and alcohol in Kosovo has had a negative effect on the overall health. The World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that the death toll from tobacco abuse alone will reach 10 million a year over the next two decades. Up to 70% of these deaths, caused by lung cancer, cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), lung diseases, diabetes and many other tobacco-related ailments, will occur in developing countries (Murray & Lopez, 1997). In turn, however, Kosovo has adapted a strong and comprehensive tobacco control law in line with the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHO, 2012).

Information Technology and Telemedicine

The greatest changes that have taken place during the past 13 years in terms of health have come through the globalization of ideas and information, facilitated through the revolution in information technology worldwide.

The globalization of trade is particularly relevant for health services that have become a commodity to be traded in distinct ways (Crocco et al, 2002). Now, health services can be provided across borders. Examples include a range of telemedicine tools, such as tele-diagnostics and tele-radiology as well as medical consultation through traditional and electronic channels.

In Kosovo, the International Virtual e-Hospital (IVeH), supported by the United States Department of State, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, implemented the Balkan Telemedicine Program in 2000. This program has created a powerful international medical education network in the Balkans for further collaboration and development as well as a solid foundation for new changes of healthcare in the Balkans.

Obtaining health care abroad

Other benefits of globalization on health include cross-border use of health services that benefit patients and provide much needed resources to national health systems (Jain, 2003). Increasing numbers of individuals worldwide are leaving their local communities and crossing national borders in search of affordable, timely medical care (Turner, 2010).

Currently, Kosovars spend over €80 million euros per year on health care abroad (Balkan Policy Institute, 2012) as the healthcare system in Kosovo is still undergoing a reform. In the past, only the wealthy could afford to get treatment abroad, however, the global market place for health care has changed. The Kosovo Government has allocated two million euros for a program, which helps patients to get special treatments abroad that are not available in the country (Ministry of Health, 2013). According to the Ministry of Health, in the first quarter of this year, 287 patients have applied to travel abroad for treatment. The Ministry of Health has made an agreement with the Ministry of the Republic of Turkey, where 42 patients will be treated for free annually (Ministry of Health, 2013).

Health Personnel Brain drain

The migration of health personnel raises a complex ethical dilemma. Brain-drain of health professionals from the developing to developed countries is well documented (Vijay 2009). As borders disappear, there is an urgent need to develop strategies, at the national and international level, that will minimize the harm and maximize the benefits of the movement of health personnel.

There is surprisingly little data on the scale of the movement of health professionals between poor and rich countries, and few studies have examined the impact of brain drain on national health systems. In the past two years, a large number of young medical doctors from Kosovo have been offered jobs in Germany and Switzerland as these countries were recruiting young professionals in several fields from the Balkans. Over 12,000 young professionals have left the country in the past year (Balkan Insight, 2013).

The Ministry of Education and the Government of Kosovo have launched a national "brain-gain" campaign aiming to encourage members of the diaspora and professionals from other countries to take part in the country's development. The main reason for lunching the "brain-gain" program is to create the necessary incentives and mechanisms for stopping and reversing Kosovo's "brain-drain" (Ministry of Education, 2013). The Government is determined to encourage highly educated professionals from Kosovo and abroad to get involved in the process of state building in Kosovo.

Conclusion

The links between globalization and health are complex and globalization is a complex phenomenon that can affect health in multitude ways. Its consequences can be either direct, at the level of whole populations, individuals and healthcare delivery systems, or indirect, through the economy and other factors, such as education, sanitation and water supply (Woodward et al, 2001).

Without doubt, globalization poses risks to global health, but it also provides benefits. The extraordinary improvements in information technology have dramatically increased the speed and ease of data flow, thereby facilitating the sharing of information. Medical discoveries made in one country can be made nearly instantaneously available to patients in other countries (Wassenaar, 2003).

In Kosovo, the health sector has suffered from not only the physical destruction of violent conflict but from long-term under-investment in staff development and lack of maintenance of physical infrastructure and equipment (United Nations, 2005). Thirteen years after the establishment of the Interim Ministry of Health, we see both the positive and negative effects of globalization in Kosovo's healthcare.

The domination of food and tobacco trade industries in the county has affected the population negatively by creating various diseases including obesity and cancer (Center for Global Research, 2010). However, information technology has affected the health sector in Kosovo very positively by launching a program in telemedicine among others. This program has created a powerful international medical education network in the Balkans for further collaboration and development as well as a solid foundation for new changes in healthcare in the Balkans.

Moreover, globalization had enabled Kosovar citizens' easier access to health care abroad. According to the Ministry of Health, in the first quarter of this year, 287 patients have applied to travel abroad for treatment of Government funds. In return, the Kosovo Government has allocated two million euros for a program, which helps patients to get special treatments abroad that are not available in the country (Ministry of Health, 2013).

Furthermore, over 12,000 young medical professionals have left the country in the past year by being employed abroad (Balkan Insight, 2013). This shows that globalization has affected Kosovo's health system negatively through professional brain drain. The Ministry of Education and the Government of Kosovo have launched a national "brain-gain" campaign aiming to encourage members of the Diaspora and professionals from other countries to take part in the country's development.

In order for Kosovo to keep a stable and improving healthcare system during the global transition, Kosovo needs to have an ongoing healthcare system reform. In addition, the Ministry of Education and the Government of Kosovo need to ensure that the organization of doctoral studies meets the European standards and experience. Moreover, the mobility of research staff needs to be enhanced. It is really important for healthcare professionals to apply their skills attained abroad in Kosovo.

Furthermore, Kosovo needs to make its healthcare data available globally through information and communication technology. A lot of data is currently missing. Factors like data exchange could lead to international medical collaboration. An immediate suggestion on improvement and extension of healthcare developments would be for Kosovo to enhance the collaboration and strengthen capacities with neighboring countries in order to optimize use of limited resources.

In Kosovo, the health sector has suffered not only from the physical destruction of violent conflict but also from long-term under-investment in staff development and lack of maintenance of physical infrastructure and equipment (United Nations, 2005). Nevertheless, the process of globalization has brought very positive factors into Kosovo's healthcare system.

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International Trade of Albania. Gravity model

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Abstract

Today we live in a world where such economic globalization and technological developments have created many advantages but also shortcomings regarding social and economic development of different countries of the world. Since the beginning of the transition until the trade regime now, our country has undergone profound changes. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to see the major development steps of international trade in Albania over the years and look at the key factors that have contributed to it. The paper provides some theoretical and empirical considerations regarding trade development with the focus on export-imports in our country in relation to the Free Trade Agreements, as these have affected Albania's international trade. Specifically, it offers an application of the Gravity Model of Trade for Albanian case in relation to its 27 export/import countries. The findings from the model application result in stable trade flows for Albania.

Keywords: Import, Export, Gravity model of Trade

Introduction

We live today in a world where economic globalization and technological developments have created many advantages but also shortcomings regarding the social and economic development of different countries of the world. Reduction and overcoming of border barriers gave an impulse to the international division of labor and specialization in production and technological developments that enabled the replacement of the communications and transportation costs at the international level which in turn became the most important factors of the international trade.

Given the diverse nature of the world economies, some places have found more priority in this era of developments and some less, depending on a large number of economic and social factors.

At a global level, after two world wars, the international community's efforts to create more stability in the world are concentrated in the formation of structures or blocks promoting peace through development and preservation of the economic stability of the world. This global integration began with the creation of the IMF (International Monetary Fund) to ensure global monetary stability and it continued with the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, later called the World Bank, which promoted the economic development of nations through the provision of loans for development.

This global trade system that we have today is a result of the undoubted success of the European Community, the change of the attitude towards the EU from the U.S., and the collapse of the communist system. Although this change has been worldwide, there are some exceptions of countries such as Cuba, North Korea, etc.

Albania as part of this globe, where does it stand as far as these winds of change are concerned? Liberalization policies that marked the start of the transition have caused significant changes in the economy including the foreign trade. Albania's foreign trade regime can be described more or less as liberal: no quotas and quantitative restrictions, no special licensing requirements, and with a simple regime of customs tariffs. Tariffs have a decreasing trend with rates comparable to some countries in the region (Xhepa and Agolli, 2003).

Albania, from a good example of a totally isolated country, became a country open to international trade, with the opportunity of regional markets exploitation, because studies show that foreign trade depends more by domestic supply constraints than by exterior ones. Albania has untapped potential in regional and international trade including EU countries (Xhepa and Agolli, 2003).

Albania's commitment under the WTO

Liberalization and facilitation of international trade is one of the current challenges of global economic development. With the development of trade emerged the need to form an organization to implement institutional various trade negotiations. This global integration began with the creation of the first agreement, which was GATT (General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs) and aimed at deeper liberalization of global trade and the creation of a unified framework for the regulation of trade between nations. GATT ceased to exist in 1995 and World Trade Organization (WTO) took his place. The main purpose of the WTO is to ensure that trade flows move freely with greater ease possibly taking into account the principles of non-discrimination and to avoid trade wars trading. WTO currently has about 153 members accounting for around 97% of world trade and over 30 other countries are negotiating for membership.

Albania joined the WTO in 2000. Albanian commitments under the WTO should be considered in three main areas:

Trade in goods (GATT) - reducing tariffs and other trade barriers, as well as focusing on specific sectors such as agriculture and industry.

Trade in services (GATS) - banks, transport companies, insurance companies, telecommunications firms that want to develop their activities abroad can now benefit from the same rate for a freer and equal trade because early it was applied only to trade in goods.

Intellectual Property (TRIPS) - these rates determine how to protect the commercial exchanges copyrights, factories' trademarks, and geographical names used to identify products.

Since accession of Albania in WTO, the Albanian economic growth has been one of the highest among the countries of the region coupled with a low inflation rate. During this period, GDP has grown by an average of 6% per year. One can trace the gradual reduction of the GDP in the agriculture sector from 24% in 2000, to 16% in 2008, associated with an increase in the construction sector from 8% to about 12.7% and GDP growth in the services sector by 53%. The contribution of industry to GDP has remained at the same levels, averaging about 8% of GDP.

In general terms, these positive developments in the markets of goods and services are reflected in the employment market. Employment grew and unemployment in recent years has gradually decreased at an average rate of about 0.7 percentage points per year, reaching 12.7% in 2008 from 16.8% in 2000. Salaries have been in line with performance inflation and unemployment. Average wages for the private sector (excluding agriculture) had a tendency average growth of about 9% per year.

Advantages of membership in the WTO are:

Albania began to open its markets to global trade and foreign investment.

Increases credibility to foreign investors that there will be no sudden changes of economic and trade policies, and encourages trade in goods and services. At the same time individuals and Albanian companies were given the opportunity to know the rules of the trade and be treated equally.

Albania has and will continue to improve national legislation to raise the level of international standards.

Through dispute resolution system that has affected this organization, Albania can protect investors, businessmen and Albanian goods from discrimination in world markets.

Free Trade Agreements are the product of a major intensification of international trade in goods and services. They are nothing but bilateral and multilateral agreements, which regulate international trade of products and services, and are based on the reduction of customs duties until their complete removal. Given that a Free Trade Agreement provides:

(i) a better implementation of market needs, particularly for goods and services

(ii) influence the price reduction,

(iii) increasing economic competition,

(iv) technological improvements boost domestic production to be competitive in open market,

(v) reduction of smuggling,

(vi) the mutual influences between different markets in different treatment conditions tariff

(vii) increased investment incentives and foreign manufacturing, negotiators free trade agreements have worked on the basis of principles following:

FTA process represents the orientation of trade and economic relations to:

- raising the standard of living;

- providing increased employment indicators;

- growing level of real income and effective demand;

- increased production and trade in goods, services and capital;

- enabling optimum use of internal revenues, in line with the sustainable development of economy.

Albania has signed agreements with several countries of the region, starting with Macedonia in 2002. Latter is also considered as one of the most important partners in connection with the trade volume as a result of the increase in imports and exports.

Industrial products are almost completely liberalized, while agricultural products are partly under the influence of custom estimates. Other bilateral agreements that can be mentioned are Romania, Moldova, Bulgaria, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, etc.. Meanwhile, these deals are characterized by several constraints, among the most important may be mentioned poor network connectivity of road infrastructure. But even agricultural products continue to appear with low export potential. Meanwhile, in 2006, the bilateral agreement was passed in a multilateral agreement within CEFTA, which is a free trade agreement in which eight countries of the Western Balkans region participate. Duty-free export quotas between CEFTA countries precede removal of taxes in general and have been implemented since 2004. Experts think that should be placed higher export quotas for products that present the greatest export potential, as eg medicinal plants. We can also mention the bilateral agreement between Albania and Turkey, signed on 21 December 2006, which entered into force in 2008. According to this agreement, customs duties will be completely removed for Albanian industrial products exported to Turkey, while customs duties for products imported from Turkey to Albania will be removed gradually over a five-year period.

Procedures necessary to start the implementation of the Stabilisation and Association Agreement unless signed by both parties (the Albanian side and relevant EU institutions also require its ratification by the parliaments of the 27 Member States of the EU). The ratification process is long and requires a period of 2-3 years. Given the time needed to fill procedures, the European Community and the Albanian side signed an interim agreement "Interim Agreement", whose implementation began on 1 December 2006 (referred to in Article 135 of the SAA). The Interim Agreement provides for the establishment of a free trade area between the two countries, for a transitional period of 10 years. Also, it provides the opening stages of the domestic market for EU exports. Both sides are committed to remove customs duties on goods originating from countries other parties or measures having equivalent effect, or to reduce customs tariffs scalable way up to their complete disappearance during a transitional period of five years, provided for in the agreement. This excludes only the goods included in the list of sensitive products, customs fees which will not change and, therefore, they are left out of the Agreement. SAA and the Interim Agreement as an integral part, allows the storage of some prohibitive measures in the free trade between the parties, with the aim of protecting domestic product to making it competitive in the community. In the principle of free movement of goods implies the movement of products originating in a country to another country without customs duties or measures with equivalent effect. The aim of this principle is the elimination of trade barriers between the parties, bringing the promotion of national products. Trade liberalization envisaged in the Interim Agreement goes beyond liberalization offered by parties with legal instruments biased, and also takes into account international agreements where the parties adhere.

Factors affecting international trade

Given that international trade can significantly affect the economy of a country, identification and monitoring of factors that influence it is important. Most significant influencing factors are:

- Inflation

- National Income

- State Restrictions

- Exchange Rates

Impact of Inflation

When the inflation rate in a country increases relative to its trading partners, its current account deficit is expected to decrease, ceteris paribus. Consumers and companies of this country are likely to buy more goods from abroad while exports will tend to decrease due to high inflation. One of the key components of the current account is the trade balance, which represents simply the difference between export and import of goods and services, factor income (interest and dividend payments) and transfer payments (aid, grants and gifts between countries). Large deficits in the current account indicates that the country is sending out large amounts of money to buy goods and services or to make payments than it collects for the same activities.

Impact of National Income

When the level of income of a country (national income) increases at a rate higher than that of other countries, its current account is expected to be reduced. As income increases so does the consumption of goods and services. A part of this increase in consumption will lead to increased demand for foreign goods.

The impact of government restrictions

The government of a country can prevent or restrict imports from other countries. By placing such restrictions, governments disrupt the flow of trade. Among the most common restrictions in trade are tariffs and quotas. Tariffs vary greatly from one country to another. Generally higher tariffs lead to higher current account balance of the country that applies if other countries do not respond in the same way, as often happens. In addition to tariffs, governments with an aim of restricting imports use a quotas or import ceilings by posing limits on the quantities imported. Trade restrictions protect jobs, but at a certain cost. Furthermore, trade restrictions protect some industries at the expense of others, because respective countries compete with other countries through putting the above mentioned restrictions on trade in their territories.

Impact of exchange rates

Each country's currency is valued in terms of other currencies through the use of exchange rates, so that currencies can be exchanged to facilitate international transactions. If the currency of a country begins to rise in value against other currencies value of the current account balance of the country must reduce, if all other factors remain unchanged. The strengthening of foreign currency country exports goods become more expensive for importing countries. As a result, demand for these goods will fall. A strong currency can cause a reduction in the trade balance of the country, while a weak currency against other currencies may cause the growth of trade balance.For multinationals with subsidiaries in foreign countries, exchange rate fluctuations affect the value of receipts from subsidiaries to the parent. When the country's currency is strong parent repatriated funds will be converted to less local currency.

Export Import Trends

Moving towards an open market economy and opening up to the goods and services trade, Albania's import flows grew considerably due to the lack of goods in the market, increased domestic demand and inability to produce domestically. Eventhough, exports have been increasing as well over this period, trade deficit has been deepening. Eventhough, there has been an increase in the growth rate, Albania still remains one of the poorest country in Europe with a considerable negative trade balance, inadequate infrastructure, and a financial system not responsive to the business needs, as well as unprepared private and public institutions to take the responsibilities in a new economic system the country has agreed to build. As seen in the Graph 1, trade balance has been detoreating further with a turning trend over 2011-2013.

Graph 1. Trade of Goods in Albania during 1993-2013 (in mln ALL)
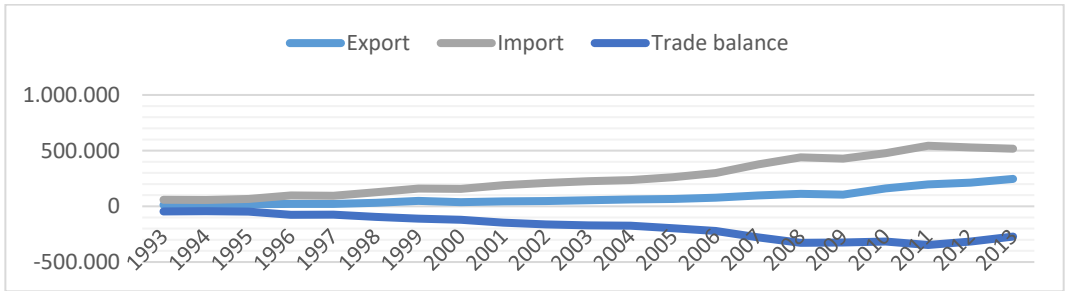
Source: INSTAT, Albania

In 2013 Albania has exported about 246 billion ALL of goods, with a significant increase of 15 percent compared to the previous year, while imports recorded a value of 517 billion ALL representing a decrease of 2 percent compared to 2012. The trade deficit was about 271 billion ALL, representing a decrease of 14 percent compared to 2012. The rest of the trading countries have small shares of both exports and imports.

Graph 2. Export Destination for 2013
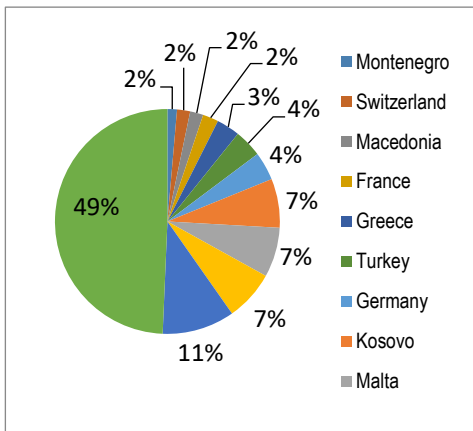
Source: INSTAT

Graph 3. Import Origin for 2013
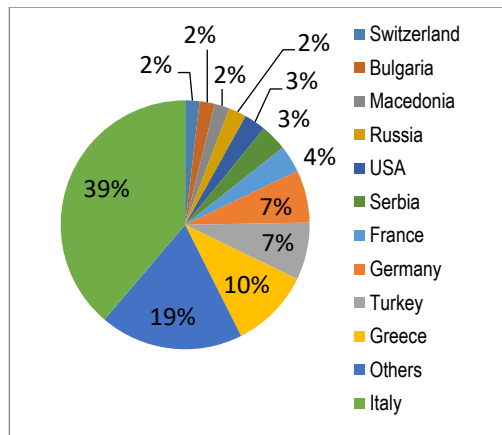
Source: INSTAT

Impact Factors in Export/Import Ratio

During the recent years, eventhough exports has somehow increased, imports still are high reflecting still a negative trade balance. Domestic export has little weight and it is mainly represented by agriculture products, while industrial exports has lost their significance with the bankruptcy of state enterprises. Factors among those that have contributed to the low level of exports include:

Dominance of small production units in the agriculture sector lack of utilising this sector. These units have borrowing (loan) difficulties that could be used to expand their activities or acquiring the necessary production technology.

Lack of investment in equipment and modern production lines. Even if there were opportunities for such investments, lack of information about matching technology with production needs as well as lack of know-how would still be inhibiting factors.

Lack of adequate infrastructure necessary to acquire the raw materials and trade realization among regions. This has inhibited the development of tourism too.

Having realised the above mentioned factors would lead to the domestic high-tech production that would be competitive enough for the regional as well as European markets.

Exports Incentives

Export opportunities come with the identification of and government support to the crucial sectors that could compete in international markets. The strategy of export incentives is a process aiming at:

- Creating conditions for increasing competitive advantages
- Creating a culture that favours exports
- Creating exports' stakeholders networks

In Albania, there is an agency working for export incentives (ANE – Agjenci per Nxitjen e Eksporteve) focusing on:

Stimulating Albanian exports and domestic production by fostering competitiveness of the Albanian economy based on its comparative advantages. Sectorial strategies for export development requires assigning priorities for each sector and among sectors;

- Export growth can be achieved only through an effective public-private partnership; and,
- Implementation of such strategy is seen as a nationwide process.

Export-import trend has almost identified competitive industries such as shoe leather, textiles, cement, ceramics, and agro production. However, their fall is related to the lack of competitive advantage at the overall Albanian industries. Having competitive industries would make the Albanian economy more sustainable to the 2008 crises in addition to the opportunity of devalued Albanian currency that would make Albanian exports cheaper. However, this is not reflected in the Albanian trade due to the lack of adequate quality and quantity to export. Regarding the fasson industry that holds the largest share in exports, it seems to serve as a brake of holding the direct exports. For agriculture products there is lack of quality and food safety certifications, even with recent own attempt of businesses. Additionally, due to fragmentation and lack of financial supportive schemes, agriculture sector remains far from offering considerable contracts/deals to Western significant partners.

Another negative impact on exports has been due to the free trade agreement. This impact is not measured, but surely it is a negative factor because those products that can be exported are in competition with imports in the terms of symmetric trade regimes. However, the main problem is the lack of a clear scheme to foster the development of exports, such as agro-products and tourism. One of the issues of Albanian trade seems to be the lack of a model that would have preceded the trade liberalization, ordinary practices of EU accession countries.

Gravity Model

The main aim of this section is to make an econommitric analysis of the factors that influence the albanian trade flows. One of the models used in such studies is the gravity model. Gravity model is an econometric model that is applied in international trade these last 50-60 years. This is a simple model to be applied, but the difficulty is the creation of the database that will be used for the study. The basic model of gravity explains the trade flows between two countries i and j as a function of two main components: economic measures of the two countries and the distance in Km between their economic centers.The assumption underlying this model is that the distance between two countries is one of the most important variables affecting bilateral trade, this assumption is confirmed in many studies. The increasing distance between countries tends to decrease the propensity to trade.Over time, other variables like economic mass, common borders, trade agreement, population, etc. that have improved the models results have been added.

The construction of this models is based on Anderson (2011) and Anderson and Wincoop(2003). The general form of the model is:

$$X_{ij} = \alpha_0 Y_i^{\alpha_1} Y_j^{\alpha_2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (z_{ij}^n)^{\alpha_n} \varepsilon_{ij}$$

Where X_{ij} represents the trade flows between country i(home country) and j(partner countries), $Y_i^{\alpha_1} \; Y_j^{\alpha 2}$ are country i's and country j's income and $\sum_{n=1}^{N} (z_{ij}^n)^{\alpha_n}$ represents the factors that positively or negatively affect the trade flows. Our estimated equation has a log-log form:

$$\ln X_{ij} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln Y_i + \alpha_2 \ln Y_j + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \alpha_n \ln z_{ij}^n + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

Countries trade with one another various goods and services. Two main distinct countries can be identified:

Countries with similar incomes levels that trade with each other. This will present Linder Hypothesis in our model.

Countries with different incomes levels that trade with each other. This will present Heckscher-Ohlin Hypothesis.

Also countries are more prone to trade with neighbouring countries, with countries that have smaller distance or even have a common language. This is because it would have lower costs of transportation, packaging and communications. Likewise, as lower the tariffs and other trade barriers between countries as higher their trade will be. The variables that are included in our model are: GDPi, GDPj are respectively GDPi of home country and GDPj of partner country. Furthermore, the GDP per capita for each respective countries as well as the difference between these variables is also included. The difference of GDP per capita between home and partner countries (based on the sign of the coefficients) will be used to test the Linder Hypothesis (differentiated products, inter-industry and intersectoral trade) and Heckscher-Ohlin Hypothesis (difference in factor possession, intra-industry trade). The total population of the respective countries is also another economic mass variable.

In the model we have the distance variable, where the distance between countries and transportation costs are included. Furthermore, FTA and common border (if countries i and j share a common border) variables are included as qualitative variables. In the analysis we included 27 partner countries based on the volume of exports and imports of these countries with the home country. The analysis and the model includes data from 1993 until 2012 with 12 variables and 562 observations. The method used for estimation is the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method.

Empirical results

The case of imports

The analysis of the imports is done through three import equations where in the first one all variables are included. In this model, though the general model is significant not all of the variables are significant. Consequently some variables have been excluded from the model and the second equation, which is also generally significant, is taken. While observing the signs of the coefficients we can see the positive relationship between imports and common border, imports and sum of the country's population, and the inverse relationship between imports and the distance variable. Furthermore, obviously the sign of the lndifGDPij (the difference in GDP per capita betwwen home country and partner country) is negative which shows that the Linder hypothesis holds. However, having into consideration that the home country's (albania) main imports are from Italy and Greece this indicates a problem in the model. As a solution to this after excluding some outliers we have adopted the best equation model, equation 3.

Table 1. Empirical reslts for the case of imports

Variables	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 3
Intercept	13.62	14.20	12.45
lnGDPj	0.45		
lnGDPi	0.692		
Common border	0.58	0.481	0.537
sumPOPij	0.752	0.249	0.69
lndistance	-2.134	-3.02	-1.84
FTA	0.53		2.25

lndifGDPcij	0.62		0.61
lndifGDPij	2.13	-0.112	
lnGDPcj		0.91	
lnGDPci	-0.65	0.374	
R square	0.518	0.828	0.74
F-test	73.23	46.08	88.2
Sig.	0	0	0

The best equation model derived from this analysis is:

lnIm= 12.45 + 0.537 common border + 0.69 sumPOPij – 1.84 lndistance +2.25 FTA +0.61 lndifGDPcij

The emprical results show that our import are sustainable.

The case of exports

The same path and method was adopted and applied for exports and the following table shows the empirical results for the three equations.

Table 2. Empirical reslts for the case of exports

Variables	Equation 1	Equation 2	Equation 3
Intercept	15.72	10.961	11.15
lnGDPj	0.204	0.82	
lnGDPi	0.851	0.12	
Common border	0.62	0.681	0.841
sumPOPij	0.95	0.91	0.922
lndistance	-5.34	-3.62	-2.62
FTA	-2.23		0.63
lndifGDPcij	0.203		
lndifGDPij		0.75	0.84
lnGDPcj			
lnGDPci			
R square	0.46	0.62	0.64
F-test	37.81	68.91	181.12
Sig.	0	0	0

The analysis of the exports is done through three export equations, like the case of imports, where in the first one all variables are included. In this model, though the general model is significant not all of the variables are significant. Consequently some variables have been excluded from the model and the second equation, which is also generally significant, is taken. While observing the signs of the coefficients we can see the positive relationship between exports and lndifGDPij, which in turn shows that the Heckscher-Ohlin Hypothesis holds. So, our home country exports more to the countries with different incomes. The third equation is estimated after we have excluded from the model some outliers that have affected our model.

The best equation model derived from this analysis is:

lnEx=11.15 + 0.841 Comman border + 0.0.922 sumPOPij -2.62 lndistance +0.63 FTA

+ 0.84 lndifGDPij

The empirical results, the signs of the coefficinets and the significance of the variables indicate that the home country imports and exports are sutainable.

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Assessment of Role in Non-Governmental Organizations and Their Humanitarian Effort in Refugee Camps Worldwide

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Abstract

The relief and humanitarian effort of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in refugee camps worldwide requires prompt, coordinated, and effective interventions. As evident by the physicians and nurses make up of NGOs, a significant portion of such effort is focused on health care issues such as treating, managing, and preventing the spread of infectious diseases of refugees. In this literature-based project, the role of pharmacists in the relief efforts of NGOs is examined. Currently, pharmacists represent a small fraction (~9%) of the non-governmental organizations' task force, which undermines the invaluable potential of their contributions to the relief efforts. Student pharmacists should also be introduced to the role of non-governmental organizations' humanitarian efforts and the world of opportunities available in helping people under stress while being exposed to different cultures towards their own professional growth.

Keywords: Globalization, healthcare

Introduction

According to UNHCR global trends report, there are approximately 36.5 million refugees worldwide due to wars and natural disasters (either natural or man-made). A refugee is a person who meets three general criteria, including being outside of their own country without the choice of returning home due to fear of persecution, or due to race, nationality, political opinion, membership of a particular social group or religion (Heptinstall et al., 2004). An asylum seeker is a person who has lodged an asylum claim with the Immigration and Nationality Directorate at the Home Office without a permission to leave the country until office's approval (Heptinstall et al., 2004; Burnett and Peel, 2001). For reasons beyond their control, the lives of refugees are interrupted and they are forced out of the safety of their home and country to become homeless. Poverty also drives families to migrate in search for a better life for themselves and their families. Regardless the reason, refugees and immigrants leave home, family, friends and childhood memories to the unknown with so many variables. Many non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are formed to take care of these disadvantaged individuals under severe circumstances. It is the hard work, knowledge, and dedication of humanitarians that make it possible for the hopeless to survive another day. The number of humanitarian projects and historic military missions is a continuously growing effect due to international instability (Drifmeyer et al., 2003). Most of these non-governmental organizations have a major portion that belongs to the health care, which in turn is run and managed by health care professionals such as physicians, nurses, and many other aides that work tirelessly and willingly in order to make a difference in improving the lives of refugees by preventing diseases and treating the sick.

The history of these non-governmental organizations started in the early 1970s and the greatest global expansion of these organizations occurred during the 1990s when the number of them went from 6,000 to 26,000. In addition, there was a dramatic increase in the number of international NGOs that were supported by the US Agency for International Development; it increased from 18 organizations in 1970 to 195 in 2000 (Pfeiffer et al., 2008). Parallel increase in NGOs inside the United States occurred during the same period to manage an African development effort. Non-state organizations funding originate mostly from large donors such as World Bank and European bilateral agencies and has significantly increased (350% between 1990 and 1999) to match a mounting number of refugees around the world (Pfeiffer et al., 2008).

The humanitarian effort of these organizations is invaluable, without a doubt, very beneficial for millions of people

worldwide. However it has been reported and it is worth noting that these organizations also have the tendency to lure governmental health workers, especially from third-world countries due to relatively high-paid jobs (5 to 20 times of their original salaries) and resulting in "brain drain" in those countries. This process of employing a small number of bright citizens of a poor country and enriching the lives of only these few individuals and their families leads to health-care management crises paralleled with morale and social problems for the populations left behind (Pfeiffer et al., 2008).

In this report, the role of pharmacists in the humanitarian effort of non- governmental organizations is examined. The hypotheses driving this project is that pharmacists have invaluable role in improving the relief effort by the NGOs on refugee camps pertaining to health care.

Method

This report is literature-based review concerning the relief effort and humanitarian role of non-governmental organizations in refugee camps and the degree of involvement of pharmacists in such efforts worldwide. The literature search was limited to English- language articles using CINAHL EBSCOhost: Advanced Search database and OVID Medline database. Different combinations of keywords were used in literature search that include "non-governmental organizations", "humanitarian organizations" in combination with terms for specific work location (e.g. "refugee camps", "war"), "pharmacist roles" and "pharmacist responsibilities." At the conception of this report, the following questions were raised to guide and focus the studies reported here: First the history of non-governmental organizations and their role in the health-care in refugee camps worldwide. Second, what is the current role of pharmacists in the health-care related efforts of NGOs? Third, what are the advantages of an expanding role of pharmacists in NGOs? Finally, how can the University of Minnesota lead the effort to prepare pharmacists in being a part of the humanitarian missions of non-governmental organizations?

Results

Health Issues Associated with Refugee Camps and Disaster Regions

Asylum seekers and refugees are more susceptible genetically to some conditions just because of their ethnicity. According to the NHS, for example, hemoglobinopathies are more likely to affect only people of a certain ethnicity such as people from Greece, Cyprus and eastern Mediterranean. They also recognize that heart problems and diseases have higher incidence in persons from Africa and Diabetes Mellitus is more prevalent in people from Asia (Burnett and Fassil, 2002 & Taylor and Glair, 1999). It has also been found that the lifetime incidence of depression is heightened by the memories of war's deaths and destructions (Erickson D'Avanzo & Barab, 1998), which lead to PTSD (post-traumatic stress disorder) symptoms and other dysfunctional personality traits, including difficulties in employment, irritability, difficulties in relationships, legal matters, medical problems, and so on (Maguen et al., 2009).

According to NHS (Nursing Health Standards), we must recognize that refugees and asylum seekers are not 'vectors of infection', although the refugee camps put them at a greater risk of infectious or communicable diseases such as malaria, hepatitis, tuberculosis and typhoid (Burnett and Peel, 2001). As a result, participating volunteers and health workers are trained to enhance their own protection as well as to guarantee an effective response to disaster area (Litchfield, 2010).

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) is designated to help improve childrens' health in third-world countries, refugee camps and war zones. The highest rate of mortality in refugee populations occurs in children younger than five years old with common causes of death such as acute respiratory infections, malaria, measles, diarrheal diseases and severe malnutrition (Moss et al., 2006). Other needs of children in complex emergency situations include malnutrition and macronutrient needs, trauma, neonatal health, mental health and many unaccompanied children (especially those with special health-care needs). The best knowledge that has been acquired from death camps was that it is clear that health interventions are best guided by applying the most basic epidemiologic principles such as monitoring mortality and morbidity rates, rapid response to outbreaks of communicable diseases and establishment of surveillance systems (Waldman et al., 1999).

In addition to NHS's rules, regulations, and suggestions, certain conditions such as rheumatic heart disease, poor dental health, respiratory problems, gastrointestinal problems, malnutrition, and ocular conditions that may be ascribed in their country of origin during the flight to their refuge destination or during their stay in refugee camps (Burnett and Fassil, 2002). An infectious disease prevalent among refugees and asylum seekers is HIV (mostly in victimized women who have been raped or sexually assaulted), especially in persons fleeing from Africa where antiretroviral therapy is unavailable and

unaffordable most of the time and in most countries in Africa (Burnett and Peel, 2001). In relation to HIV epidemic is the rising incidence of tuberculosis because immuno- suppression associated to HIV allows development of tuberculosis. Partners in Health (PIH), a Boston-based non-governmental organization, describes its mission as "caring for patients, alleviating the root causes of the diseases in specific communities and sharing learned lessons with the rest of the world" (Litchfield, 2010), which is perfectly tailored for pharmacists. Pharmacists partnering with NGOs could help prepare for emergencies by developing procedures of standard operations, forms, and data management tools, which can be modified easily for surveillance activities in humanitarian emergency settings (Magloire et al., 2010).

Current Role of Pharmacists in the NGOs Relief Effort

Currently, all indications suggest a negligible role of pharmacists in the non- governmental organizations and their mission in humanitarian and relief effort. The main health care providers in these non-governmental organizations are predominantly composed of nurses (45%), both registered nurses and nurse practitioners, and physicians (25%) (Solheim, 2005). Among those health-care providers, pharmacists are considered as a minority with about 9% representation in NGOs in the overall NGOs mission related to public health, epidemiology and laboratory researchers (Figure 1). What is quite fascinating is how registered nurses have taken the matters into their own hands and set their own guidelines (Nursing Health Standards, NHS) for their relief effort practice within NGOs worldwide, which can be attributed to either necessity or economic reasons (Burnett and Fassil, 2002 ; Taylor and Glair, 1999). While there is an important role for nurses to play, the knowledge and expertise of pharmacists in the relief effort is invaluable in helping refugees and their family in an extreme environment in accordance with the health care guidelines. The mortality rates in refugee populations are highest among children of ages less than five, which comprise approximately 18% of the entire refugee population (Moss et al., 2006). In addition, children above the age of five tend to exceed the mortality rate of the young children usually after outbreaks (e.g., cholera, or dysentery). It is in this very young population under these severe conditions that pharmacists can be very beneficial in infection prevention and control, antimicrobial stewardship, immunization and treatment of diseases such as diarrhea, measles, malaria, acute respiratory infections, pneumonia and malnutrition.

In the following sections, the American Health Systems Pharmacists (ASHP) guideline will be discussed concerning the recommended role of pharmacists in infection control, promoting optimal use of antibiotics, and educating patients as well as the public.

Pharmacists' Role in Reducing Infection Transmission:

In order to reduce and control the transmission of infectious diseases, pharmacists have to be involved in the decision making process in disastrous areas. For example, pharmacists are the best-equipped health-care professionals to advise on issues concerning drug handling, storage, labeling and the importance of sterile products and protocols. Pharmacists are also knowledgeable concerning the establishment of pharmacy policies, quality-control programs within any setting (e.g., a refugee camp) and to ensure proper health standards and health precautions. Pharmacists are always striving to update and upgrade the most useful treatment, preventative and risk assessment guidelines, and immunizing as many proper patients (according to immunization guidelines) as there are available resources, as well as promoting screening of patients (ASHP report, 2010).

Pharmacists' Role in Promoting Optimal Use of Antibiotics:

Optimal antimicrobial agent usage and promotion is of paramount importance in health care. This is best achieved by collaboration of multidisciplinary professionals, including pharmacy, within the health system management. This ensures proper therapeutic, prophylactic and empirical uses of antimicrobial and antiviral agents. Also, it is very important to utilize effective and efficient systems to eliminate potential drug reactions and potential or preventable errors (ASHP report, 2010).

Pharmacists' Role in Educating the Public in General:

The professional development and training of pharmacists make them uniquely positioned to educate the public and fellow health-care professionals about antibiotic stewardship and infection prevention. Pharmacists can achieve this task using different platforms such as conferences and newsletters' articles on antimicrobial stewardships and resistance, infection

prevention control, including the usage of decontaminating products, and proper sterilizing and decontaminating procedures (ASHP report, 2010).

Discussion

According to the Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report (2008), the health professionals have to be prepared to educate mothers about appropriate breastfeeding in order to prevent malnutrition and anemia in infants and young children. Social instability, wars, politics, and poverty seem to be here to stay and as a result society, as well as

NGOs have to be equipped with all necessary expertise to help the unfortunate when possible.

The above mentioned health issues associated with refugee camps and asylum seekers dictate a more pronounced role of pharmacists in the humanitarian and relief efforts of NGOs worldwide through managing patients' therapy through drug compounding, delivery and administration. The currently limited role of pharmacy in the relief effort and humanitarian missions of NGOs in refugee camps stands in a stark contrast with the evolving role of pharmacy in health care of the industrial nations. The United Kingdom's Nursing Health Standards (NHS) established a set of standards and regulations for nurses to treat patients most successfully and without difficulty. The NHS guidelines also include which populations were susceptible to what conditions, in order for nurses to be able to promptly recognize a condition based on ethnicity, race, or even culture as another sign in helping when diagnosing and treating patients. Magloire et al. (2010) also explains the idea of working with other organizations by learning from them as well as teaching them what we know and what we learn in the process. He states that preparing for emergency activities should involve partnering with NGOs in order to develop procedures of standard operations, forms, and data management tools, which are modified easily for surveillance activities in humanitarian emergency setting.

Further research is needed for developing and evaluating interventions to reduce neonatal mortality in complex emergencies. The development and evaluation of better tools are needed to assess mental health problems in children. Also is it needed to develop and field-test rapid-diagnostic and antibiotic susceptibility tests for Vibrio cholerae and Shigella dysenteriae. Lastly, evaluation of presumptive malaria treatment for children in complex emergencies is much needed (Moss et al., 2006). These areas of research can most likely be covered by graduated doctors of pharmacy.

In addition to their expertise in antimicrobial usage and infectious-disease prevention, pharmacists are the only health-care professionals with specialized knowledge on drug-body interactions and the associated methods to optimize their pharmacological benefits with safe, rational, and liable use of medications (Manasse,

2010).

Besides prompt and proper health-care delivery, health-care professionals must be knowledgeable about the cultural needs and language of refugees and asylum seekers that can be quite challenging. Otherwise, interpreters provide very accurate and much skilled word for word interpretation between the non-English speaking service user and the health care provider (Heptinstall, 2004). For example, while dealing with foreign women, especially victims of rape, one must keep in mind the cultural values that they may have towards abortion, use of contraception and other values of sexual health (Matthews, 2001).

The non-governmental organizations workers and volunteers must be fully trained in order to participate in a response team while undergoing a more competitive recruitment process by organization such as Medecins Sans Frontietes (MSF), otherwise known as Doctors Without Borders. Such training, which goes beyond the basic survival training, enables their workers to help others in life-threatening situations such as neglect, violence, war crimes, epidemics, malnutrition, armed conflict, natural disasters and health care exclusion (Litchfield, 2010).

Conclusion

Speaking from first-hand experience, both as a camp refugee and a refugee camp volunteer, I hope that this report will bring humanitarian role of NGOs into spotlight. The people in those refugee camps are vulnerable yet resilient under circumstances outside their own control. It is not trivial to understand what it feels like to be a refugee (Vernon,

2008). Most importantly, pharmacists have a unique opportunity to help in refugee camps with desperate and most deserving people while advancing the NGOs mission. Towards that goal, the curriculum of the college of pharmacy will best serve its students by preparing them for this new set of challenges with a global context. It did not escape my attention

that the involvement of pharmacists in the relief effort of NGOs worldwide would require a new set of skills such as learning foreign languages and cultural awareness, but these are nothing compared with the rigorous educational program they successfully complete. One could envision a pharmacist helping many victims of refugee camps by providing a quick treatment consultation about recent sunburn, simple gastrointestinal problems due to a contemporary lack of meals or change in their diet such as a recurring diarrhea or constipation, lice treatments and so many more health-related issues. In addition, pharmacists are knowledgeable of different states of many diseases and drug therapy managements could be critical in preventing health crises in refugee camp environments. Despite the complexities of urgent child health care in catastrophes, it is known that much of the burden in these situations is malnutrition and infectious diseases, both of which can very well be managed by pharmacists.

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Figure Captions:

Figure 1: Representation of field staff roles broken down into respective percentages. Leading practitioners in refugee-camp settings are nurses (including registered nurses and nurse practitioners), followed by physicians. Pharmacists occupy a small percentage even when combined with other health professions such as public health, epidemiology and laboratory work (adapted from Solheim, 2005).
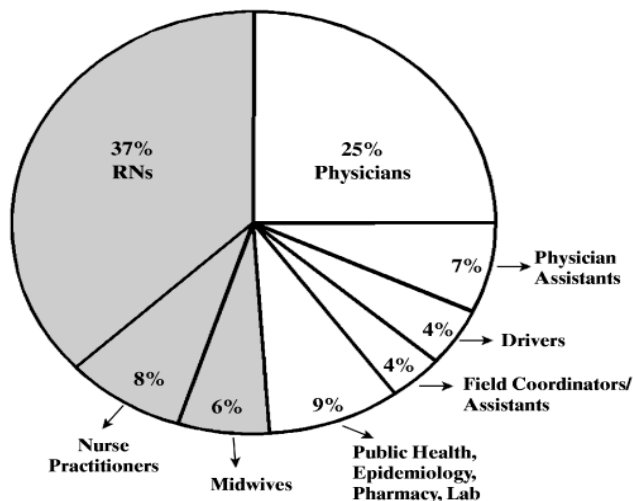
Employment, Foreing Direct Investment and Challenges for Government Reform

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Abstract

This article aims at indetifying the tendencies of foreing direct investments (now on FDI) wether any FDI is productive or not for the economy of the host country. As regards the methodology, can be said that the literature of the FDI attraction field is being analized, which encopases the preference toward the tipology of investments. FDI's attraction is crucial for countries with small economy, like Albania, especially on difficult financial times. However, not all the investments are beneficial for the host country.

Keywords: Employment in Albania, FDI, transition economy, government reform.

Introduction

Foreign Direct Investment is an integral part of an open economical system and a major katalisator of economic development. However, the benefits of FDI do not happen automatically and not disperse evenly among communities. National politics and the international structure of investment do matter for the attraction of FDI's into an ever growing number of developing countries and for a better absorption of the positive potential of those investments into sustainable growth. Challenges mainly are on the side of host countries, which have to create an open, transparent environment, that is clear and effective politics for the attraction of such investments and to build human and instructional infrastructure for the proper implementation of such politics. The role FDI's plays for guiding economic development and economic growth has ever been a contested one. Since the beginning there have been viewpoints in favor and against FDI. Some authors, argues that FDI led to economic growth and increase of productivity and hence to economic development, but others note the risk of FDI in destroying local capacities or over- exploiting the natural resources. There has been an increase of FDI into developing countries noted recently, although concentrated in certain countries, reflecting economic wealth and barriers to trade.

However, the decision making factors of FDI and as a consequence also the perspective of development dictated by FDI have changed over the time. As the barriers to trade and investment do have an impact to attracting FDIs, the later are in the search for countries in the web of global production processes, hence in need for countries with good economic foundations such as: size of the market, adequate human resources, decent infrastructure and good technological local capacities.

Nonetheless, as countries have begun to understand the positive effect of FDI's, a diverse perception about the role of FDI on sustainable development has risen among the academic community, perceiving the impact of FDI not only positive or negative, but the effect varies on typology of FDI's, firm characteristics, economic conditions and host countries politics.

The type and sequence of general and specific policies in areas that covers investment, trade, innovation and human resources are considered as crucial within the link FDI and development. As FDI are superior in terms of capital and technology, the spillover effect into the development does not happen automatically. The suitable politics for attracting FDI's include: a) building human resources, b) building infrastructure and technological capacities, c) increase the absorption capacities to catch the spillover effect created by the productivity potential of FDI's. Countries have always used general and specific policies to reach the point where FDI's work for development.

As a conclusion, one can note that a major change has happened in FDI's liberalization and nowadays FDI's are considered as more positive than a couple decades ago, while governments steadily perceives that their politics can influence the FDI's effects on economic development.

Choice of Location

Multinational Companies (MCN) faces a lot options when it comes to decide to locate their activities outside of the country of origin:FDI, exports, linceseing, or joint vention. The tradicional international business theories puts an emfasis on the advantages of onewership, location and the phenomena explained by OLI Paradigm (Dunning, 1993). Onwership advatanges are those that enables MNC to sucseed in a foreing market despite not knowing the market as well as the domestic companies and despite of the aditional costs of establishin a new branch. Onwership advantages are all about technological superiority and managerial know how. Location advantages are about what the host country can offer to MNC, i.e: market size, labor cost, good infrastrukture. Inner advatages drawn from OLI phenomena, when it is cheaper to invest than to export. While the onwnership and inners advantages are on the investor backyard, location advatages are specific for the host country. Even though the location advantages are becoming part of the investors decision making cause the host countries are continuously competing for FDI.

Enabling Enviroment of the Host Country

There is a blossomly literature on the location advantages of FDI, UNCTAD, the UN Conference on Trade and Development presented on its '98 session the main reasons that now are founded sistematically in literature, clasifieing determinants factors of FDI in thre major groups: economic factors, the framework of policies for FDI and ease of doing business. According to the (Lee and Houde, 2000) analisis, six are the main location advantages, as follows:

Market size and the prespektive of extension. Factors like market size, prespective of extension, degree of development and income per capita on the host country are among the determinants of MNC when it comes to select location. Host Countries with large market, high economic growth and relative high degree of development are in a better position for MNC to exploit their onwership advantages thus to create economies of scale. FDI that are drawn by such advantages are consider as market oriented.

Human and Natural Rescourcese

The cost of the advantages but also the availability of human and natyral Rescources are the driving engine behind any FDI. FDI that are oriented toward exports seeks specifically comparative advantages that relate to cheap labor or abudant natyral rescources.

Fisical, financial and technological infrastructure

Differencies in infrastructure i.e transport, does influence the decision for investing in a not only among countries but among localities within the country. Most likely FDI chooses those locations that have better acsess to transport of course whith a minimal cost. Exept the quality of highways, trains, ports and airports, the level of telecomunication is continuosly more important caouse this sector has been subject to revolutionary change these decades. Human capital technological abilities in host country are a major factor in atracting FDI, (Ermir Hajdini, 2012).

Openess to global trade

Economic reforms, "open dors" politics as well as other measures to promote trade- through bilateral agrements or unilateral measures i.e the voluntary cuts on tarrif to trade, may atrract export oriented FDI. The strategic geografic position or even attractive geografic position assisted by importing abilities of the host country also the acsess to regional or global markets may result a major factor in atracting export oriented FDI

Political and Rregulatory Frame and Political Coherence.

General economical policies and social stability can establish the background for FDI policies, in Albanias case, legal and business enveroment transparent and well functioning are of an major importance because they lower the risk operating in a foreingh enviroment. Measures or rules relating to entering the market and proper functioning of foreing firms as well as the standarts for treatment of foreing firms are especially important in this aspect. Good corporate governance practises and fair ans transparent business practices, combined with fight against corruption- that create higher costs- influence positively not only to FDI "firstcomers" but also to the decission for riinvesting of profits. Also important are the policies that influence to the market functioning and structure, i.e kompatitionor trade policies even those politics that have to do with merger and acquisitions, privatizations and the coherence of those politics. Ending, a proper safeguard of investments is

usually a minimun requirement for FDI. Therefore, where transparent procedures for resolving commercial disputes do not egzists and the egzisting rules are interpreted in a eneven way, FDI diverge.

Discusion

The above mentioned factors are somehow appealing to investments. However, the decision-making of an MNC to invest is subject of more complex and strategic consideration, including even the natyre of the profit that investor is expecting to make from the investment outside his country of origin. All in all the teory of "global integrated productivity", argues that: any part of the production chain is placed there where MNC makes the higher profit (UNCTAD 1999b). Several main reasons that motivate FDI are explained below:

FDI oriented towards rescources. The clasical reason why MNC search to invest in developing countries is the abunce of cheap production factors. However, the natyral rescources have been tradicionally the production factor that greatly attracted FDI, lately we are witnessing a rising tendence of cheap qualified labor as an most inportant factor in motivating FDI

Natyral Rescources. Multinational Kompanies (MNC) that operates in sectors like minning or in agroculture business of course that are attracted in those countries that have abudant natyral rescources. However, under the sight of sustainable development, must be noted that MNC have the tendency to export the majorit of their production and rely on imports of their inputs, thus contributing less on the economic activity of the host country. This tendency may be deteriorating by the import policies of the origin country, that well may lead to the discouragement of the local industril capacities.

Human Capital. FDI that seeks to benefit from cheap labor quite oftenly happens that MNC reacts toward the presure for hiegher wages in their country of origjin, sending the production proceses abroad. Furthermore, the benefits of FDI vs other forms of MNC invoelment in industries that are labor intensive are related to informality and scale disadvantaged that prevent host countries to benefit from their labor.

Market seeking FDI. The acess on the host country market for finished goods is an important reason to invest in manifacture sectors, especially in those cases where imports blocks the direct exports from countries of origin. Further reasons include: transportation costs, consumer taste, etc. Empirical data seems to suggest that local gathering gives boost to FDI to serve these magnified markets.

Eficency oriented FDI. MNC strategies to rise eficence through investments to developing countries go beyond realocation of labor intesive production. According to such strategy known as "component outscourcing", firms in developing countries undertake the obligation to supply MNC with fully finished goods whithin te trademark of MNC. The oppurtunities on behalf of the host country are greater than in those cases where there are just employment relations, but this also imply that host country firms are well developed technological skills. Another form of eficency driven FDI are the so called "horizontal" FDI, where the foreign capital establish companies according to the taste and standarts of the host country. Nonetheless, these FDI are limited to certain countries with large market and advance technologically.

FDI on search for Strategiic assets. Companies in search for assets having a comparative advantage- in most cases even a monopoly- do invests aiminig at those "strategic assets". in some public cases, MNC have invested out of their country of origin to obtain R&D abilities. Developing countries may be atractive to such investments by developing their human capital and fisycal infrastrure. Another way through which MNC deeks to benefit strategic assets is the market dinamics that is the outcome of an hostile takeover.

The efect of FDI and specially the benefits Albania may enjoy from entry FDI, in major part are dependant on macroeconomic factors i.e balance between savings and investments, the degree of integration to the international financial sistem. VIS a vis to the balance betwen investments and savings a diferentiation must be made among those developing countries with enough savings to finance capital formation with optimal economic terms and those countries that can not achieve that. A second category is been made betwen those countries that theoretically have unlimited acsess to financial marke to finance its corrent account deficit and countries that do not have this opportunity.

Possibile channels through which FDI can influence the macroeconomic performance and as such economic groawth can be divided in thre categories: a) a surplus in total fonds for domestic investments, b) unlimited and stable financial means rather than credit or portofolio invesment, and c) contributes to the global integration, generates more extremities or create safe ground for structural reforms. However, we mustt note that the benefits from a dhe b are generic and happens indipendetly of investment nationality. FDI indirectlly helps in achiving points a ande b through additional rescources for credit finance or contribution toward a stabile econo-social climate.

As shown above, the benefits for rising funds through posible investment depend on ountry ability for acsess to global or regional finance.

The combination betwen local savings and a relatively unlimited acsess to finance internationally oftelly can be found in transition economies like ours. Policy- makers and companies must apreciate FDI in terms of an optimal mix betwen debit and credit to finance economic groawth. FDI are usually considered as an stable rescource of funds rather than portofolio investments or short term credit. for as long as FDI bring macroeconomic advantages beyond specific benefits, these benefits must be executed evenly notwithstanding the macroeconomic situation of the country.

Economic Costs of FDI

Economic costs of FDI or of foreing company presence can be outlined as any loss in social wealthcare of our country. However this "bold" statement rises conceptual problematics for as long FDI oftenly happend in the verge or contribute to radical economic referms, which may have pozitive or negative impact. As an example, if FDI are handeled as a tool for development therefore would be no room for any critics.

Furthemore, it is important that the distinction is made betwen net costs. for example, for improuving its economic performance, FDI must firstly impact its way to the egzisting structures and practises and it is expected that some economic actors to face a deterioration of their status. Policy-makers of our country must carefully evaluate the situation and balance social costs or any other costs coused by FDI with benefits from the invedtment. Only in rare cases of withdrawn, policy-makers concentrated their FDI policy esclusively in cost reduction.

As a conclusion, the need to consider general costs in long term is important. Local authorities but also the public opinion that asses only the negative impact in shorter term of FDI must take into consideration the long term impact of FDI in economy and such clarification must be made always. It is clear that FDI rises the macroeconomic productivity and doubtless there might be short term term shortages, unemloyment etc but with flexibility and adaptive policies in host economy, the long term impact in social wellfare would be positive. in absense of an adaptive aproach from the labor market, the negative effect would last longer but this can not be seem as a FDI cost but rather as a deficit of the host country.

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Table 1. Specific benefits from FDI

Limited acsess To finance	Unlimited acsess To finance
a) Fonds rise	b) Financial stability
c) Specific benefits from FDI	c) Specific benefits from FDI
c) Specific benefits from FDI	c) Specific benefits from FDI

Outdoor Play Environment in Early Childhood for Children

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Abstract

Every adult is aware that children enjoy playing. Even before a child is able to grasp an object, bright coloured toys are suspended in a crib or held for him to enjoy. Once the child is able to crawl, stand and walk, the opportunity to explore the environment and play are expanded. Through rich educational programmes young children can demonstrate effective learning and significant development. This even has been developed to explore ways to create an outstanding environment for children under three years. It will examine ways to achieve consistent high standards across education programmes through creating rich, varied and imaginative experiences for children. Outdoor play environment offers the children much needed exercise, sunshine and the opportunity to practice motor skills in a different setting. Through a supportive outdoor play environment, the children are exposed to best support for children's emotional, social, physical development and ways of acquiring communicative and language skills so that they are exceptionally well equipped for school and next steps in their learning. A combination of inspiring and motivated exciting environment provides the child with the grounds for learning through play and experience and a different type of freedom and confidence in exploration of nature and habitat.

Keywords: Environment, Outdoor play, Play, Children, Learning and Development

Introduction

 The environment both indoor and outdoor plays an important role in the development of babies and young children from their earliest experiences. Even before birth, the quality of the environment impacts significantly on the foetus development in the womb. in the early days a child's environment is mainly the adults who care for them. The environment gradually widens to include different people and varied surroundings. Children are sensitive to the ambience within any environment. It is important that this is recognized.

 A rich and varied environment supports children's learning and development. It gives them confidence to explore and learn in secure and safe, yet challenging, indoor and outdoor spaces. The emotional environment is created by all the people in the setting, but adults have to ensure that it is with children and support their emotions. When children know that their feelings are accepted they learn to express them, confident that adults will help them with how they are feeling. Being outdoors has a positive impact on children's sense of well-being and helps all aspects of children's development. Outdoor opens children the opportunity for doing things in different ways and on different scales than when indoors. Dempsey (2005) observed that children playing outdoor gives them first-hand contact with weather, seasons and the natural world. It also offers them freedom to explore, use their senses and be physically active and exuberant.

 Children learn from and adapt to their environment as they build a sense of self from the attitudes and values of the significant people around them. Adults who are affectionate, interested, reliable and responsive help young children to develop a sense of trust and a positive self-image. Most babies and young children are sensitive to the moods of those around them and they instinctively know when adults are for example, relaxed, tense, pre-occupied or keen or provide focused attention. Babies and children look for both verbal and non verbal messages that communicate respect, value and love. Greenman (2007) feels that the most important message and demonstration to ensure that children are always greeted with a warm welcome upon arrival in early setting is; "creating a positive ethos within a safe, welcoming and nurturing environment by ensuring a high level of involvement and overall sense of belonging for children and families, responding appropriately and positively to children's needs and preference also respecting and valuing children's interest".

Planning Outdoor Positive Environment

A well planned and sensitively thought out door environment helps to foster and promote a positive sense of self and wellbeing in babies and young children. Goldschmied and Jackson (2004) maintain that "creating a satisfactory visual environment is not a one for all jobs but something that needs to happen continuously. Just as at home we are constantly making small adjustments and improvements changing picture from one place to another, moving a lamp or a plant, a nursery will only look limiting and cared for if the same kind of process is going on". Planning and organizing a playing environment effectively is a key and challenging role for care givers and staff team in early childhood centres.

When considering play ground development, it is important to consult with all the stakeholders to discover their views on the outdoor area. The stakeholders include the children, the staff or care givers, parents, school managers/administrators and the wider community.

The process of change occurs in four stages'

Self Evaluation: Where are we now?

Vision planning: Where do we want to be?

Active planning: How can we get there? And

Implementation: Making the changes.

Every outdoor space will be different and will have limitations that need to be marked within the setting and need to be considered in the available space for the children to play and how to make most of them compatible with the resources available. Gabbard (2008). When making changes, ensure that the ongoing plan for maintenance and care is in place particularly for natural or growing spaces. Even though every space is unique, there are some key factors that are applicable to all spaces, they include; access and security, shelter and studies, appropriate chatting, appropriate storage, variety surfaces, the four elements (earth, water, air and fire) natural spaces, growing spaces, active spaces, reflective spaces, creative spaces and social spaces. Note that all of these factors overlap and connect rather than operate in isolation to allow the children the opportunity to explore freely in the outdoors. Risk management processes should be shared with the children where possible, to enable them to make appropriate choices and manage risk themselves according to their developmental ages.

Outdoor learning is most significant and effective when complementary to the indoor space. Ideally both environments are available simultaneously to the children through a seamless transition space and the children should be able to choose between spaces in free flow provision. Play and learning that flow seamlessly between indoors and outdoor enable children to make the most of the resources and materials available to them and develop their ideas without unnecessary interruption. Karas (2007). Playing is vital especially the outdoor which is vial for children's physical health and development, emotional well being and promotes cognitive development and achievement. It enables children's freedom to explore and develop their physical boundaries to take risks and to discover the real world with all the child's self esteem and confidence. Outside is dynamic, liberating, give room for active, noisy, messy and work on a large scale. One couldn't predict what might happen and as such it provides opportunities to experience how to deal with them. Young children's basic need for well being and involvement and their urge to explore and make sense of the world is developed through risk quality play in an outdoor environment.

The Importance of Taking Infants and Toddlers Outdoors

One of the more challenging criteria to meet on the infant – toddler environment rating scale is taking infant and toddlers outdoors to play. Parents often don't want their infants outdoors because they will get sick or there may be no time to take young children outside. When there are so many routines and individualized schedules. Why is it important to take infants and toddlers outdoor? How do you set up a safe outdoor environment for children? What do you do with them once you get them outdoor? During the first few years of life, infants and toddlers are trying to make sense of their world. One of the ways they do this is by soaking up every noise, every sound and every experience that they have. They then take this information and come up with ideas about how the world works. So not only is being outdoors an enjoyable experience for infants and toddlers, it is critical for cognitive development.

in the first three years of a child's life, brain synapses is formed at a rapid rate. These synapses are formed based on the richness of the child's sensory environment. So, it would make sense that childcare providers would want to provide a stimulating environment for infants and toddlers both indoors and out doors. in addition, the knowledge they gain outdoors provides a foundation to literacy and science learning (Harm, Cryer and Clifford, 2006)

Outdoor experiential learning also promotes early language development. Having a rich sensory experience gives young children something to talk about. When an infant feels the leaves or the toddler notices the airplane in the sky, they are more inclined to verbalise this experience because it will elicit a favourable response by their care givers. This verbalization to others also promotes social development. Even infants who do not have the ability to physically play with others are able to watch others, which is the first step in social development (Oesterreich, 1995)

Outdoor experiences are critical for infants and toddler's physical development. Gabbard (1998) observed that the "window of opportunity for acquiring basic motor movement is from prenatal to five years of age. During this time, the brain gathers and stores information and a solid foundation for movement activities is built. Infants need interesting things to look at from a horizontal and vertical position. They need materials and space to practice crawling and things to pull up on, so that they can learn to walk. Toddlers also need space and materials that will help them act out preposition over under, on top of, inside, outside, behind, in front of, up and down (Riukin, 2000)

Care Recommendation of the Child in Outdoor Play Environment

Infants and toddlers require supervision when they are outdoors. Because they explore their world, they often taste it first which can result in more exposure to germs or to choking hazards. Therefore, it is necessary to make sure that all potential choking hazards are removed from them, the area and that care givers are in close proximity to children so that they can remove unwanted objects from their mouths.

They need surface that will allow them to move around easily. This surface should be accessible to all children. It should be made of materials that will not be too hot in the changing weather. It should provide comfort, tactile experiences and protect children that are still mastering balance, there must be enough room to move without hitting a hard surfacing material or sharp edges.

The outdoor material need to be challenging the children but base on realistic expectation about what children at their age can or cannot do. All anchored equipment should be designed based on guidelines for children ages 6 – 23 months. Many playground manufacturers are not aware of the new standards, therefore, it is important to check with them before purchasing equipment bearing in mind that these kids are just learning to walk. They do not need high climbers or ladder because they haven't mastered taking large steps. Walking across a low, wide bridge or balance beam is challenging to them. Playing with riding toys, tricks, weapons where they can put other materials in it and different sizes of bells are just as interesting as climbing onto a structure.

Beyond the activities already mentioned there are many interesting and fun experiences that you can provide for both infants and toddlers outdoor.

For children 0 – 3 months

Provide a bucket for the baby to lay on point out the leaves moving, let them feel the leave and grass and point out nature sound that they hear

For Children 3 – 6 months

With the blanket let the child explore on his or her stomach. Bring out objects to grasp, blocks, or activity gyms. Again plant out the things happening in nature and let them feel natural objects.

For 6 – 9 months

Create a texture part on the ground using assorted textures such as carpets, squares, rings, grass and resilient surfaces. The children can crawl along this path to explore large motor skills and sensory stimulations, provide tunnels, bells and safe sensory tubes.

For 9 – 12 months

Provide balls, bubbles and toys that are small enough for them to practice standing. for early walker provide simple push toys. Attach musical toys, activity centers and mirrors to fence at different levels for kids who are still crawling and for those who are standing.

For toddlers

Continue to add more materials that reflect the variety of developmental skills. Ring some music outdoors so that they can practice dancing, jumping.

Provide a garden outdoors so that the children can learn about soil, plants and insects.

Remember that the experiences that these infant and toddlers have outdoors while they are in child care, may infact be the only opportunity they may have to really explore the outdoors.

Conclusion

By taking children outdoor a wonderful opportunity of getting up a good model for parents to follow is provided. If children learn to love being outdoors when they are young it will make them healthier. It will also help ensure that they will take better care of our world when they become adults. The outdoor environment is where children come into contact with the ever changing system of nature and the four elements. It is the dynamic world of living and non living things that aimlessly interact through time and space. The seasonal changes and differing weather conditions provide children with a sense of time and place and later endless investigation possibilities. Every child has a target to daily outdoor learning and as much value should be placed on the outdoor environment as inside. The same amount of resources, planning, time and money should go into providing the outdoor space as the indoor one. It is not an optional extra. The outdoor excitement can provide more freedom for a greater range of play and learning and it is every child's entitlement.

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Why is there a higher rate of self-employed people in the minority sectors than in the majority sector: Study case in Israel 2011

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Abstract

One of the main problems facing governments today is the integration of the minority sectors into the national economy. This study examines this issue in the context of the Arab minority and the Jewish majority in Israel. An important aspect of this problem is the integration of Arabs into the Israeli workforce. The objective of this study is to investigate this problem by dividing the workforce into two sectors – wage-earning employees and the self-employed. The basis for the discussion is that an employee in the job market who, for different reasons, is unable to receive suitable remuneration that is on a par with his or her skill level will turn to the self-employed sector. Within this framework, I compared the way in which the workforce in each sector (Jewish and Arab) was divided between the self-employed sector and the wage-earning employee sector and from this distribution I sought to learn about the integration of Arabs into the Israeli workforce. in 2011 the results of this study show that within the Arab population, the self-employed sector has a relative advantage because of the weakness of the wage-earning employee sector.

Keywords: Salaried employee, self-employed, Jews Arabs, income disparity

Introduction

This study addresses a number of economically significant aspects of the relationship between the Jewish majority and the Arab minority in Israel. The relevance of this study is not limited solely to Israel as many countries throughout the world find themselves contending with ethnic minorities and the associated problems. This study looks at Israeli citizens living within the Green Line (Israel's pre-1967 border as defined by the United Nations).[1] The majority of the population living within these borders is Jewish (80%); however, there is also a sizeable Arab minority (the remaining 20%) living within these borders too. Within the Israeli Arab segment of the population, the vast majority are Muslims, although approximately 10% of Israeli Arabs are Christians who, in many ways, differ from the Muslim segment (birth rate, standard of education, and so on).

In socio-economic terms, the Arab minority is in an inferior position, as can be seen by the lowly position of the Arab local authorities in the socio-economic clusters. These clusters are used to gauge the strength of the local authorities. The Central Bureau of Statistics (2008) uses certain criteria (family size, average income, standard of education, standard of accommodation, mobility level, and so on) to divide the local authorities in Israel into ten socio-economic clusters. The first cluster includes the weakest local authorities and the tenth cluster includes the strongest. These classifications are updated every few years. The following table shows the cluster breakdown of the local authorities based on sector for the year 2008.

Table 2. Breakdown of Local Authorities into Socio-Economic Clusters based on Sector for the Year 2008

Cluster	Arab Authorities	Jewish Authorities
1	3	2
2	37	3
3	18	6
4	6	13
5	2	30

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[1] For those who need a reminder about Israel's borders – in 1948, when the State of Israel was established its borders followed what is known today as the Green Line. in 1967, Israel occupied additional territories (Gaza, the West Bank and the Golan Heights) but never annexed them, and in 1992 following the Oslo Accords, transferred most of those territories to the Palestinian Authority. The residents in these territories are not part of Israel's population and are therefore not included in this study.

6	0	14
7	0	13
8	0	23
9	0	7
10	0	3
Total	66	114

We can see from the table that the majority of Arab local authorities are positioned in the four lowest clusters.One of the factors contributing to the low socio-economic position of Israeli Arabs which will be discussed in this study is the inferior status of the Arab sector in employment-related matters and particularly concerning work-generated income. Epstein, Gharrah and Cohen (2001), Hasson and Abu-Asbah (2004), and Hasson and Karayanni (2006) found that there was inequality in employment opportunities because of a dearth of job openings in Arab settlements and because of difficulties faced by Arabs wanting to integrate into the work place in Jewish settlements. Furthermore, it was found that despite the improved education of the Arab labor force, the Arabs are still unable to utilize their skills to the fullest in the Israeli labor market. Zussman and Friedman (2008) found that between the years 1987 – 2005 the disparity between the hourly rate paid to Arabs and Jews actually grew. There are several possible approaches that might explain income disparity between different groups of workers:

The Human Capital approach, presented by Becker (1964): This approach asserts that an employer operating in a competitive market and striving to increase profits as much as possible will pay the employee according to his or her marginal output. This method maintains that if the high-potential employee with human capital produces more than the employee without human capital, the former should earn a higher salary than the latter.

Professional Segregation approach (Haberfield, 1990): This approach focuses on qualities and skills required by the labor market (whereas the Human Capital approach focuses on the employee and his or her attributes). According to this approach, the salary paid is based on the job itself and not on the person doing it. There are some jobs and professions that are more important to the employer than others. With this approach, Jews will earn more than Arabs if they are doing a job that the employer pays a higher wage for.

Another possibility is that one sector of the population discriminates against the other (in this case, against the Arabs): According to the Human Capital approach, there is discrimination when the average wage earned by the Arabs is lower than that earned by the Jews despite the similar levels of human capital of the two sectors. According to the Professional Segregation approach discrimination exists when a lower wage is paid for the professions in which Arabs are working.

The outcome in all three situations above is the same – Arab Israelis encounter difficulties integrating into the Israeli workforce as salaried employees. These difficulties can be circumvented by becoming self-employed as the individual is not required to "show documents (qualifications)", and his or her income will depend on their ability to "provide the goods" for the customer. We can therefore assume that a greater number of people will be self-employed in the Arab sector, and that the disparity in salaries between Jews and Arabs in the self-employed sector will be less than the disparity in the salaried employee sector. The objective of the first section of this study is to test both of the above-mentioned assumptions. in the second section of the study, the income disparity between the two sectors (self-employed and salaried employees) will be reviewed to check if it stems from discrimination against the Arab minority.

Data Description

Data for this study (self-employed income and Muslim – Christian population division) will be taken from population records for the settlements. Arabs and Jews do not usually live in the same settlements, thus the division into sectors will be based on this data. The following settlements were removed from the sample: (1) mixed settlements (Jerusalem, Acre, Maalot-Tarshicha, Nazareth Illit and Ramleh); (2) settlements in which the Druze comprise more than 30% of the population because a large number of this ethnic group serve in the standing army and their data is not available through the Central Bureau of Statistics. in the end, the data base includes 53 Arab and 87 Jewish settlements. Data about income and the division into self-employed / salaried employees is based on data supplied by the Central Bureau of Statistics (2014) for 2011.

Data Analysis

As mentioned above, the objective of the first section of this paper is to test two questions: (1) Will the number of self-employed in the Arab sector be greater than the number in the Jewish sector? (2) Will the income disparity between Jews and Arabs in the self-employed sector be smaller than the disparity in salaries in the salaried-employee sector?

These two questions were tested using the data in the following table. The first row of the table shows the rate of self-employed in the overall workforce for both sectors. The second row shows self-employed income for each sector during the same years, and the third row shows the salaries for the salaried employees.

Table 3. Comparison of the percentage of self-employed and the average salary of self-employed and salaried-employees in the Jewish and Arab sectors (in current prices)

Sector	Arab	Jewish	Ratio between Arabs & Jews
Percentage of self-employed	0.078	0.067	.117
Self-employed income	7,000	9,205	0.76
Salaried-employee income	5,018	8,491	0.59

The above data shows that: (1) the number of self-employed in the Arab sector is greater; (2) the disparity in income between Jews and Arabs in the self-employed sector is lower than the income disparity in the salaried-employee sector. These findings indicate that Arabs have a relative advantage in the self-employed sector which seems to stem from their weakness in the Israeli labor market.

Does the disparity in income between the Jews and Arabs stem from discrimination?

The question that comes to mind is what makes it difficult for Arabs to integrate into the salaried-employee sector? Is it discrimination or are there other causes? Are the qualifications of the Arab sector (such as level of education) ill-suited to the Israeli labor market? It should be pointed out in this context that ethnic-based discrimination occurs when those belonging to a specific sector receive less because they belong to the said sector. Thus, the fact that there is a disparity between the two population sectors is not enough to indicate that discrimination occurs. for example, in the labor market ethnic-based discrimination exists if a worker from one specific ethnic group earns less than a worker from another ethnic group even though both workers have identical skills. and indeed, articles examining ethnic-based discrimination in the labor market were not satisfied with finding disparities in salary and professional prestige. Instead, they addressed the question of why ethnic origin is liable to cause such disparities (Becker (1993); Arrow (1972); Darity, (1989), and others). Cleiman (2001) makes a similar claim in his comments on an article by Gharrah and Cohen (2001). He claims data showing that there is more poverty in the Arab sector is insufficient proof of discrimination. in order to prove the existence of discrimination "a straightforward description of the characteristics of the poor Arab population in terms of its distribution according to age, family size, education, etc. in comparison to the poor Jewish population is needed. Only data such as this will help differentiate between the increased occurrence of poverty in the Arab sector stemming from demographic differences and that which stems from discrimination". Similar issues are also raised in a study by Dahan (1998) which examines inequality in general in the labor market in Israel, and in this context also refers to wages earned by the Arabs. for this purpose, he adds a dummy variable to the equation that determines salaries for the Arab sector in Israel. His findings show that there is a disparity between salaries in the Jewish sector and salaries in the Arab sector. However, he points out that this result does not provide enough information to reach the conclusion that this disparity is caused by racial or nationalist discrimination because the regression does not include all variables affecting salary levels.

One of the ways to examine this question is to divide the Arab sector into two groups: Muslims and Christians. The test is based on the assumption that the Jewish population (which forms the greater part of the labor market) does not differentiate between Christians and Muslims (refer to explanation in the appendix). Consequently, if the weak Arab position in the labor market is caused by ethnic discrimination we would not expect to see any difference between the Christian Arabs and the Muslim Arabs.

We will run two models to test this assumption. in the first model, the dependent variable is the average income for a salaried position which will be noted by IW. The explanatory variables are: (1) the number of Muslims in every local authority and will be noted by M; (2) the number of Christians in every local authority will be noted by C, and (3) proximity of local authority to the boundary of the Tel Aviv District, which is called "economic heart of the country". Israel has a clear core-periphery structure, where the Tel Aviv District serves as the country's economic and business center located in its geographic center (close to the middle of the north-south axis).This variable will be noted by TLV. This produced the following model:

$$(1) \quad I_w = \beta_0 + \beta_c C + \beta_m M + \beta_t TLV$$

Table 3 shows the results of the first regression.

Table 4. Factors affecting salaried-employee income

Variable	Coefficients	P-value
Intercept	9,655.44	0.000
Christians	-9.39	0.46
Muslims	-33.66	0.000
TLV	-15.78	0.000
Adjusted R Square	0.41	

We can learn two points from the table that are significant to our study:

The coefficient for Muslims is negative. This implies that when the number of Muslims increases the income from salaried positions decreases. This could indicate that income earned by Muslims is lower.

On the other hand, the Christian coefficient is not significant. This implies that the measure of Christians does not affect the income from a salaried position. This could indicate that the income earned by Christians is not lower than the income earned by the Jewish majority.

In the second model, the dependent variable is self-employed income noted by Iself . The explanatory variables are the same as for the first model. This produced the following model:

$$(2) \quad I_{self} = \beta_0 + \beta_c C + \beta_m M + \beta_t TLV$$

Table 4 shows the results of this regression

Table 5. Factors affect self-employed income

Variable	Coefficients	P-value
Intercept	9,294	0.000

Christians	-3.64	0.705
Muslims	-16.85	0.000
TLV	-9.13	0.002
Adjusted R Square	0.24	

We can also see in this table that the Christian coefficient is not significant. This implies that self-employed income of Christians and Jews who live in the same area does not differ. Consequently, here we also reach the same conclusions as for the previous table. However, we can also reach another important conclusion. The self-employed income of the Muslims is lower by approximately 16, while the income of the salaried-employees (as can be seen in table 3) is lower by 33.66. This reinforces the result that we received previously, which indicated that the disparity between Jews and Arabs in the self-employed sector is smaller, in other words, Arabs find it easier to function as self-employed.

Conclusion

The above discussion generates a number of conclusions: (1) the weaker group in terms of income is the Muslim Arab population. The Government must therefore take steps to improve their situation; (2) this weak position is not typical of the Christian population. If we accept the claim that the Jewish population does not differentiate between Christian Arabs and Muslim Arabs, then the fact the Christians are able to successfully integrate into the labor market of the Jewish majority raises the possibility that the weak position of the Muslim salaried-employees does not stem from discrimination. It is likely that this weakness stems from the fact that the Arab labor force is not compatible with the Israeli labor market. It is therefore important to implement programs that will teach this sector of the population the skills they require for the labor market. This requires investment in areas such as education, vocational training, and so on. (3) The income earning ability of the Arab population in the self-employed sector is greater than its income earning ability in the salaried-employee sector. These findings indicate that in the short and medium term, steps should be taken that would enable the Muslims to be self-employed by developing an industrial area for small businesses, setting up advisory centers, giving credit, and so forth. in the long term, the Muslims should be given help to acquire skills that will enable them to join the labor market. It is therefore necessary to continue with a study that will identify the areas that need to be reinforced to enable Muslim Arabs to be more successful at joining the labor market.

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Appendix: Example of ethnic discrimination

Let us suppose that patients belonging to the majority group (Jews in the case of Israel) refuse to be treated by a doctor belonging to the minority group (an Arab in this case). The hospital is therefore forced to dismiss the doctor (or to employ him or her in an inferior position). in such a case, it could be claimed that the employment and income-earning disparity between Jews and Arabs stems from discrimination. The main ways that Jewish patients can distinguish that this is an Arab doctor is by his or her accent and the typical way in which they speak Hebrew, as well as their name (Arabs tend to have names that are different from those use by Jews). Given that both Muslim Arabs and Christian Arabs speak the same form of Arabic, and that they also have similar names, a Jewish patent cannot differentiate between them. This implies that if there is discrimination of this type against Muslim Arabs then it will also exist with regard to Christian Arabs. Consequently, the fact that the position of Christian Arabs is not inferior of that of Jews raises the possibility that the inferior status of Muslim Arabs does not stem from discrimination.

Higher education and graduate employment in Albania

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Abstract

In the social and economic transition, the Higher Education in Albania has tremendously ocercomed its capacities and the opportunities offered. Albania is considered the champion country in Europe for the high number of universities. Besides the public universities, in the country also operate dozens of private universities. in Albania there are about 20 universities per million inhabitants, (161500 students for a population of 2,8 million people), nearly eight times more than countries like UK that have internationalized higher education and have a very large percentage of foreign students. This paper takes into account the development of higher education and the responsible institutions of this development during the transition in Albania, the current structure of universities, the financial problems and the reform of higher education. It also examines issues such as: the measurement of quality, the ranking and the competition between public universities and private institutions. Then the focus of the paper runs on the employment of the young graduates who have finished albanian universities in the last five years. Firstly, relying on foreign literature, I have analyzed some of the main models of employment of graduates, their skills in the labor market, and also the changes that have occurred in the careers of the graduates in the last century. for the extraction of data are used questionnaires distributed electronically to over 230 employees that have brought significant conclusions about the employment of graduates in Albania, as well as the impact of such factors as: GPA, the training, the number of foreign languages spoken and other qualifications and skills that affect the level of salary and their position at work. Also starting from the above models, the scope is to identify the key elements that affect the careers of albanian graduates, and the key factors that have driven their employment. In the end of the paper are given some conclusions and recommendations on how higher education in Albania should be reformed, given by the sample responses of the interviewers, but also by a concrete analysis of the problems that are facing this sector in Albania, and how this reformation of higher education can increase its fruits on more qualified and employed youths in their respective fields. The methodology used is mainly from primary sources, ranging from the data collected by the respondents, as well as from secondary sources of data published for this area of study. The main limitation of such a work is the limited number of samples under the survey, the data of whom has been generalized for all the population of the paper.

Keywords: Higher education, private university, reform, graduate employment, skills, career

Literature review

The 21st century of work can be described as a quick and variable environment that sets high levels of pressure on them that act in this context. (Fugate, M & Kinicki, A.J, 2008). Today's economic climate reflects flexibility, volatility, creativity and adaptability (Van der Heljden, 2002), skills that are not traditionally required for a successful career. It is widely known that employees today do not only hire based on the level of education. (Stewart & Knoëles, 1999; Archer & Davison, 2008, Nilsson, 2010)

 Youth employment is largely a problem that affects every society and societies largely still fragile economy and high unemployment rates, as is our society. However it has also skeptics who argue that employment is not more than " the last movement of the world " Employment is generally described as the ability to gain meaningful employment (Clarke M. , 2008). However each person becomes more and more aware of the importance of learning and the role of institutions of higher education regarding employment. (Van der Heijden, 2009) (Clarke M. , 2008). Employment especially of the youths one is a problem that affects every society and largely societies that have still fragile economy and high unemployment rates, as is our society. However it has also skeptics who argue that employment is not more than "the last movement of the world " (Clarke M. , 2008). However each person becomes more and more aware of the importance of learning and the role of institutions of higher education regarding employment (Van der Heijden, 2009). Increasingly policy makers are focusing on employment of graduates as a key indicator in making choices in terms of education level (Dias de Oliveira, E. & de Castro Gulmaraes, I , 2010). Overall employment of students and, moreover, the availability of graduates willing to work has been the focus of labor market and policy makers in the last decade. (Brown, P., Hesketh, A. & Williams, S, 2003). Governments and employers are realizing the importance of combining knowledge, skills, and efforts of individuals in building a sustainable competitive advantage (Brown, 2003).

Employees are increasingly directed to HEI-s with the hope to provide graduate students who are well-rounded individuals, aware of their own knowledge and with all the attributes required in a position to be distinguished since the beginning of employment (Little, 2011). These last or organizations themselves, already require individuals who are suitable, creative, innovative, flexible, and solving the acute problems (Graduate Market Trends, 2010). When it comes to secure a job, the individual can not rely only to the degree level that has received (Yorke, 2006). (Yorke, M. and Knight, P, 2003) (Yorke, M. & Knight, P.T , 2006) showed in their paper that having a diploma enables important simply to compete for a job, but employers choose among graduates based on "something more complex. "

(Harvey L. , 2005) in his review on employment, notes that "It is not only to find a job more than is in the developing, learning, and the emphasis is less on "employment" and more on the "skills". Despite the lack of scientific knowledge of how to agree on the meaning and contribution to employment factors (Brown, P., Heskesth, A. & Williams, S., 2003), and it still have a wide acceptance as a suitable alternative on the concept employment (Clarke, M., 2008).

Students, regardless of the discipline of study usually have certain expectations about employment opportunities. Before they are concerned about their graduation and then they look after the options of employment. Although these expectations are unreasonably inaccurate as it came out from the search results (Psacharopoulos, 1987) students are very aware that where demand is very strong, there are differences in initial acquisitions, as a result of differences in the disciplines of study and higher rates of incomes growth for higher levels of diploma. Students therefore, tend to move to those areas and get those majors in which demand is high and where continued growth in demand is expected.

A study of EUNACAL Institute in February 2012, where 4.847 people were interviewed across the country, shows that the main reason why students of public and private universities have decided to attend university and their parents aspired so for their children growth are exactly employment opportunities for the future. The same study notes that the majority of young people now attend high school intending to continue their studies in the field of economy branches, architecture & planning, informatics, dentistry and law. A study EUNACAL Institute in February 2012, where 4.847 people were interviewed across the country, shows that the main reason why students of public and private universities have decided to attend university and their parents aspired for so children their growth is exactly employment opportunities in the future. The same study notes that the majority of young people now attend high school intending to continue studies in the field of economy branches, architecture & planning, informatics, dentistry and law (EUNACAL, 2012).

The main factors that affect pending employment or unemployment are: Expected revenue duration of work, field of study, level of education, gender, and the link between study and work tasks (Ama, 2008). Teichler (Teichler, 2000) in his study of higher education and work in Europe concluded that graduates appreciate their studies and believe that learning in higher education is helpful in coping with the jobs that they undertake. The graduates were of the opinion that higher education should prepare students to be better able to apply their knowledge about the environment in which they work and to cope with their job duties. So for the graduates 'job skills' become as necessary and important as education.

Higher education in Albania

"If knowledge is the electricity of a new international information economy, higher education institutions are the sources of energy in which the new development process must be supported." - Manuel Castells (1993)

Starting from the 1990's, higher education has gone through several significant stages with their positive and negative sides for its development. After the fall of communism, the period 1990-1994 was characterized slightly by the opening of the universities, where mostly the state dominates, and the university autonomy wasn't in a significant stage. Initially there were only two universities, and then also was well established the Polytechnic University, after its separation from the University of Tirana. Also existed in Tirana, three Academies (of Arts, Sports and Military), and in three regions (Shkoder, Elbasan, Gjirokastra) three Pedagogical Institutes and in Korce operated The Higher Institute of Agriculture. The research was conducted partially in universities, Institutes systems, and partially in The Academy of Sciences and in the Institutes under the departments located in Tirana and other cities. in 1992-93, Higher Education Institutions outside Tirana, were transformed into universities in these cities, respectively Elbasan, Shkodra and Korca. The years 1994 - '99 were characterized by further expansion of the higher education system and especially of the expansion of branches profiles on one hand and the university districts turned gradually to lose their identity and their specific profile. Still at this time private system was not a pressure on the public system, that's why the state system expanded more, but not equally with the economic development and the demand for certain professions.

The years 1999-2007 marked the opening of the first private institution of higher education. in 2001, the Ministry of Education orders the implementation of ECTS (European Credits Transfer System) in all HEI curricula in Albania. During

this period, starting from 2002, were licensed the first private HEI-s, which operated until 2005, almost all specialized (Luarasi, Counsel "Zoja e Keshillit te Mire", New York University, Marubi, and Faculty of Dentistry of UFO's).

While in the years 2000-2005 there were only five private HEI-s, in the period 2005-2009 were opened 34 new private institutions and between the years 2009-2013 were opened also 10 other private HEI-s. During the transition period, but in particular from 2005 until today, there has been a rapid growth and expansion of the entire system of higher education, as both of the public and non-public institutions.

Current Structure of Higher Education in Albania

In the social and economic transition higher education in Albania has gone under a tremendous mass appeal capacities and opportunities offered. Currently Albanian system of Higher Education presents the following configuration: 59 Higher Education Institutions in total, 15 public and 44 private. Among them, 19 have the status university (12 public and 7 private), 5 have the college status (all private), 26 high schools (all private), 8 academies (two public and private 6), the first institution (public, center Inter-university) and 17 subsidiaries (HEI 5 public and 12 private HEI-s). The number of programs offered in total is about 1500 of which 700 provided by public HEI-s and slightly less from private HEI-s and sorted by the level of study, approximately there are 650 in Bachelor, 250 in Master Professional, 350 in Master of Science, and about 100 third cycle programs and specializations in Ph.D. terms.

As reported by the international data, Albania has a large number of universities per 1,000 inhabitants compared with other developed countries. in Bangladesh there are about 20 universities per million inhabitants, nearly eight times more than countries like the UK that have internationalized higher education and have a very large percentage of foreign students. in terms of a country with 2.8 million inhabitants and an economy that invests no more than 40 million or 0.5% (0.4-0.6%) of its GDP on higher education, the figure is much higher

Ministry of Education have published 396 branches of private universities accredited by on 8th July 2013. Yet most of the students in Albania study at public universities (78.5%). However the first number of students in private HEI-s had a very rapid growth particularly in the last 3-4 years, and secondly there has been an increasment in the part-time studies at the public universities, that today constitute about 21.5% of the total number of students in the public HEI-s. These two extensions have brought massive and even have declined somewhat the standard. in the recent years, programs profiled and the few professional programs focused primarily on the fields of nursing, economics, law, Social Sciences, Political etc. Albania invests several times less in higher education than its neighbors, and this investment is even incommensurable when comparisons are made with the most developed countries of Europe. The state budget has available about 38 million euros to support over 126,000 students in the state universities. This amount can be added to the approximately 20 million euros from secondary revenues provided by the universities themselves), so only about 460 euros per student in the public sector.

The budget for education in general, has never been higher than 3% of the GDP limping in the intervals of 2.2 - 2.8% of GDP, while the objective suggested by UNESCO, UNDP, Millennium Goals, OECD, EU, etc, is at least 5% of GDP level (which means twice that currently allocates Albania). Western developed countries in the OECD framework of finance at levels 5-8% of their GDP university education, of which 1-3% of GDP goes directly to higher education and scientific research. Albania is currently spending on higher education 0.4 - 0.6% of GDP, as many joint state and private universities. So today Albania spends around 500-600 euros / student, while it needs at least 4-5 times more for to equate with Romania and Bulgaria, or 8-10 times more to be approached with Portugal, Spain etc. So, even taking into account our current conditions and opportunities, Albania should aim at least 1500-2000 euros figures / student, or in other words a budget of 250-350 million euros for its 161,500 students.

Today, professional higher education is almost negligible. Currently there are two private institutions that offer vocational programs of study, while in the public education there are three HEI-s with a total of 10 programs.

The next academic year 2014-2015 there will not be more part-time studies at university. Higher Education Commission, in the first draft report suggests the closure of part time studies at public universities and private, since it is considered as the "wound" of higher education in Albania. According to official data, only for the year 2004 -2005 the number of part-time students at public universities was about 20 thousand while today in public and private, they occupy one sixth of the total number of students in universities, over 31 thousand.

The problems in the Higher Education System today and the needs for Reforming

Albania is considered the champion country across Europe to the high number of universities. Besides public universities in the country also operate dozens of private universities.

Quality Assurance System was created in 2001 by the Accreditation Agency, which developed especially after 2003, with the establishment of the Council of Accreditation. The procedures of development and the criteria for evaluation and the construction of this system were relatively slow compared with the rapid growth and the expansion of these institutions and the study programs. Here are presented some of the problems found in the system.

The structure had not and still does not have a strategy, policy development and a clear pattern of our Higher Education.

There hasn't been conducted an analysis for the employment and the development of higher education orientation towards these needs in the current or future market needs.

Development of higher education is characterized by a distorted development, reflected in the very large number of HEI-s, distribution of the study programs, where compatibility between real preference study students and performed studies is about 10%.

 in our HEI-s, today there are institutions and programs that work with the minimum number of students, which brings problems of financial inability to cover costs and ensure minimum standards of teaching, not to mention research or other activities.

Private System of Higher Education appears fragmented, there are 44 private HEI-s that hold only 20% of the total number of students nationwide.

Many institutions which have the university status do not fulfill the institutional standards for this status.

Inappropriate open subsidiaries.

Quality of HEI-s and study programs in the public system are not tested through the assessment and accreditation process

Extensive expansion of part-time system.

Yet many university structures do not meet current standards of qualification, also due to their continued expansion.

Research as a key element of higher education institutions with university status, in Albania is very low, especially compared to European ones.

System and Foreign Internal Quality Assurance is characterized by problems and difficulties associated primarily with the knowledge and interest of HEI-s.

 Graduates and Employment

The current state of the labor market and graduates in Albania

Various official data published by the Statistical Institute in Albania (INSTAT), have published that the vast majority of Albanians who have graduated in the last decade in the public and private universities have lost their jobs, while universities continue to produce degrees without employment prospects. INSTAT data shows that from 2001 to 2009, 65 thousand Albanians completed high school, but meanwhile employment in the public and private sector grew by only 16 thousand people, showing that most of the graduates or are unemployed or have left the country and degrees are not worth anything.

In 2001, Albania had 394 thousand salaried employees in the non-agricultural sector, of which there were 189 thousand public sector employees and private sector employed 205 thousand people. in 2010, Albania had 410 thousand employees, of whom 167 thousand were in the public sector and 230 thousand in the private sector. This increase employment by 16 thousand people or less than 2 thousand jobs on average each year, is wholly inadequate to provide jobs for graduates, who seem to take very different degrees of the market needs.

Public universities have issued 60 thousand degrees from 2001 to 2009, of which, 12 thousand have been degrees in various branches of economics, 4500 in justice, and Polytechnic University of Tirana has graduated a total of 2,500 people, many of whom cars are engineering graduates, while for years, is the minimum number of graduates in electronic engineering, which is considered as the most perspective branch of today's world. in electronic engineering, Albania during this period has graduated 370 people, mostly in the period before 2005, while post graduate this year are only 37 themselves. Graduates in the economy in the period 2000-2008 had significant chances of employment, which was caused

by the fact that at this time Albania built banking and insurance sector. But after 2008, this sector appears to be "full", while the number of graduates is growing at high rates as a result of the opening of private universities.

 Less future certainly looks to law graduates. in the last decade are 4500 graduates themselves, where regional universities have been very active. Meanwhile, thousands of others are waiting to get a degree in law in two to three years ahead. Is problematic in today's society, the fact that where jobs will find thousands of students who are currently studying in private universities, mostly in social sciences as economics, law or international relations often.

Albania is not doing any effective effort to encourage young people to enter career fields that have more perspective on the international market. Government projects or increasing internet penetration knowledge on computers and students are limited in their use, but not in software development. Albanians prefer traditional occupations, which would hardly be able to offer jobs. Agriculture University of Tirana, for example, graduates more people in Economics and Agricultural Policy than in Agribusiness farms, predicting that the agricultural policy-makers in the future will be more numerous than agricultural managers.

Official statistics show a high level of unemployment among young people and jobs more scarce, and the sector which is experiencing increased levels of employment and occupies important role in the youth employment is the telecommunication sector and especially the call centers because they have the largest number of job offers, and they managed to hire about 6,000 youngers across the country. Even the apparel sector occupies an important place in youth employment and graduates.

Graduates Employment's Models

Despite the competition that HEI-s can have between them, driven by marketing elements, their most important output with which they must compete are students "who needed to meet market demands". This section will focus on Bridgstock's model for hiring graduates, also USEM model of Yorke and Knight (2006). Then a clear description of the model given to Bezuidenhout (2011), which includes the new demands of the job when considering the employment of graduates.

USEM Model

This model is supposed to be one of the most accepting and an indicator in terms of employment literature (Pool, L.D. & Sewell, P, 2007). Yorke and Knight's work is seen to be critical in terms of graduate's employment and how it can be combined with the higher education curriculum. This model suggests the presence of four interrelated components that affect employment.

Model USEM is an acronym of the following ingredients:

a. Understanding) referring to the critical role of higher education, but is not equivalent to the term "knowledge" that is broader and deeper.

b. Skills that refer to practices capabilities, including not only core traditional meaning of the word "skills", but a broader concept.

c. Confidence in the effectiveness (efficacy beliefs) as a component that differentiates USEM by Bennet (2000). The authors refer Dweck's work, which shows the benefits of a student more flexible than the theorical. These theories characterize a trend that sees tasks as opportunities to learn, and those students who possess these trends are more likely to believe in their ability to operate and the unique and complex challenges.

d. Metacognition is seen as a key element in the employment of graduates, and is known in the literature related to the learning. Yorke and Knight define this term as an inclusion of elements such as: learning how to learn ; reflection of practice; and a capacity of self-Settings.

This model is based largely on research, and is a convenient way of seeing how employment can be expanded. Yorke and Knight (2006) developed a list of 39 aspects of their employment in the project "Skills Plus" which are divided into personal qualities, essential skills, and abilities process.

We can say that USEM model has proven to be very useful in its applications within the field of higher education by providing a strong foundation for students to understand and access the employment. It is very important to prolong the possession

of learning, which is a necessity in the new world of work. This model allows all parties to understand the concept of the employees and what is required in this regard.
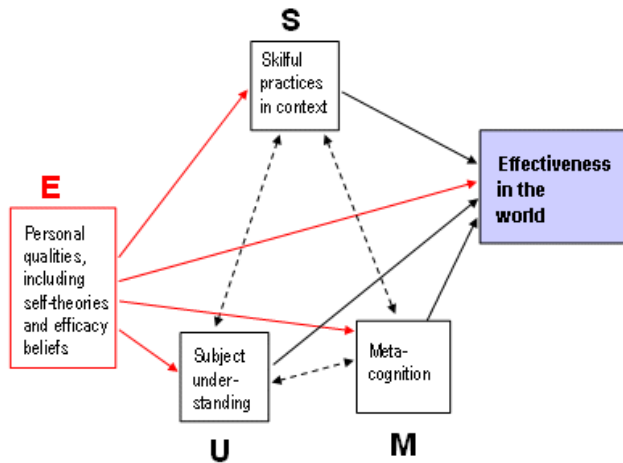
Figure 1. USEM model, Yorke and Knight, 2006, p 5

2.2.2 Bridgstock's (2009) conceptual model of the attributes of graduates for employment

The model developed by Bridgstock (2009) proposes that these skills are critical to improve the employment of graduates and the role of career management. Such skills associated with individual perceptions and evaluations regarding the skills, values, interests and goals referred to as self-management skills are closely related to the concept of career identity (Bridgstok, 2009). Bridgstock latter cites the work done by Eby, Butts, and Lockwood, developed in 2003, showing that students who possess a clearly developed concept of their personal career goals and also a positive and a realistic assessment of their capabilities (a strong and well-defined career identity), reported to have a higher level of employment than other students. These building career skills include:

• Knowledge of industry: Students should be informed about the opportunities, threats, and critical success factors associated with their area of expertise. Included here are "knowledge of the rules of the game", industry structure, beliefs, values, and culture, and labor market information (average wages, unemployment rates, and significant economic news).

• The ability to successfully identify and select the best options for the future growth related to the geographical position, projects, and position.

• Being able to identify where should start to see alternative options: This involves the acquisition of new knowledge, training opportunities, and the ability to act quickly once the new opportunities appear.

• Being able to represent themselves and capabilities in a way that every potential employer to see the added value that it has to offer.

• Being able to create personal and professional strategic relationship, as is shown it has a direct effect on hiring real and perceived.

The inclusion of the generic skills of such capabilities in the model is important because literature has proven that these skills are what employers seek to graduates.

Disciplinary skills are those skills that are traditionally incorporated in the curriculum of higher education because the mixture of the generic, self-management and career skills determine the employment. Bridgstok goes on to state that these skills are vital for employment. ". . They play a major role in determining how, to what extent, where and when generic skills, discipline are learned, used (ex. in applying for a job, etc.)". Based on this model, we can say that a graduate who owns them is able to apply for a job. So, more and more heavy weight is given to the needs of career development skills. This is understandable, given the increasing pressure on the largest individuals to assume their responsibilities and career

development as a result of very rapid change that characterizes today's work environment (Zhiwen, G. & Van der Heijen, B., 2008).

2.2.3 Bezuidenhout's model of graduate's employment

This model is based mainly on the idea of accessibility. Bezuidenhout (2011) defines employment as "a psycho-social construct that represents a combination of attributes (Cut, values, behaviors, and skills) to promote proactive adaptability to the changing environments, to strength employment eligibility of individuals and also to succeed in careers (Bezuidenhout, 2011). It's important to assess the adequacy role in this determination. Specifically dimensions of this model are shown below:

Career self-management

This is related to the new career styles, which include career with fewer boundaries and variable (Inkson, 2006). De Voest and Soens (De Vos, A & Soens, N, 2008) made a deep study about the issue and concluded that career self-management makes the difference when it comes to career's success. The is also defined as the creation of opportunities, the setting of goals, and a constant search for new information, which adds an adaptive behavior of each individual employee.

Cultural Competency

These play an integrated role in the 21-st century, given the global environment in which individuals find themselves. A number of studies have shown that employers evaluate international work experience, and this is a multi-cultural work environment. Therefore, the ability to effectively adapt and understand diversity is one of the core competencies in employment.

Personal particulars

The model shows how personal trait: self-assessment of career, entrepreneurial orientation, being social, being proactive and open to change can lead to improvements in employment and possibly towards career success.

Self-assessments related essential career

(Wellman, 2010) cites the work done in 2009 by the Commission for Employment and Skills, which means that more specific knowledgies and technical skills should be added during tertiary studies. Cornford's work in 2005 shows that it's difficult to understand the terminology used to define the employment of graduates. However, those who have generic skills including: communication skills, problem solving, writing on the computer, computer knowlededgies, as well as working in a team with others are more likely to compete more successfully in the market. (Ng, P., Abdullah, K., Nee,P. & Tiew, N., 2009) The primary goal of any institution of higher education is to prepare their students for the working world. As Maher highlights (2004) employers are more interested in what the graduate can do rather than on what he knows. From a survey made by Clarke in 2008 among 40 CEO-s, they said that they were looking for employees that have such attributes as: continuous learning, flexibility, willingness and ability to grow in leadership. Another survey conducted in 2007 by the Institute of Directors in the UK published a list of 28 attributes and the Association of Higher Education (as cited by Wellman, 2010) presented a list of 14 skills required, based on marketing of the graduates as follows:

• Creativity

• Flexibility

• Willingness to learn

• Autonomy at work, etc

There is a broad consensus on the fact that "soft skills" such as leadership skills, negotiation, intrapersonal skills, etc., are critical for any graduate who wants to work in the new world of work, and many employees are becoming more aware of the critical impact of these capabilities in providing a competitive advantage (McQuaid & Lindsay, 2005). Navarro (Navarro, 2008) argues that these are as important as data analysis and rigorous application of the management and analytic tools. The employees, as well as the recruiters of graduates, constantly emphasize the value of these skills as a soft key in the selection process, but also in maintaining long-term career success. (Pittenger, K.K.S., Miller, M.C & Mott, J., 2004)

Yorke and Knight (2006), compiled a list of 39 dimensions of employment, grouped into three categories namely: personal traits, qualities and skills essential procesive. These dimensions were considered useful in the analysis and design of high education curricula. They further citing the work of John Brennan and colleagues considered as primary the following powers:

• Ability to work well in pressure situations

• Communication

• Accuracy

• Attention to detail

• Working in groups

Heyler (Heyler, 2007) is of the opinion that employment is a mix complex of elements that can vary from one position to another. It shows in her work that people need to be adaptable and "multi-functional" as employees and also have the ability to recreate themselves occasionally.

According to (Bowers, M & Metcalf, M., 2008), graduates today are not adapted to deal with complex uncertainties of the 21st century, that come as a result of the decentralized organization of the 21st century - the. in most cases, graduates have the technical knowledge but lack the technical skills to use this knowledge Maher (2004) Oxford Brookes University lists five main disadvantages to graduate students for the job market (Zhiwen, G. & Van der Heijen, B., 2008).

Coping complex situations

Initiative

Lack of tolerance and stress

Excessive Confidence

They support the fact that "soft skills" are not developed enough to graduates. It is clear from this perspective that is a perception that there is a lack of graduates mainly communication skills, which is critical to achieving success at work. (Beaven, Z. & Wright, R., 2006).

Changes in career graduates

Until the 1800s careers were perceived as terms of life-long employment, the mutual loyalty and well defined borders. Small specializations in appropriate jobs were relatively short-lived and foremost for continued employment was the church specific skills for a specific project. (Clarke.M & Patrickson.M, 2008). This era was short-term, non-specific placements were followed by industrial developments. Economic growth and organizations seeking a new kind of career, instructions and much larger structure returned necessity (Clarke M. , 2008).. As a result workers returned to specialists in their respective positions. The standard was to start in a company, then you were climbing that achieved with hard work, and in return the organization to provide continuous training and job security.

The organization of the 21st century is characterized by decentralization, fast pace and constant change, and internationalization. These changes are a result of a decline in organizations for being "supportive" by escalating, which has given managers a greater degree of accountability and finally a short term change or a stable contractual agreement. (Harvey L. , 2000). These changes in the environment require more treatments lasting from workers and employers. (Briscoe, J.P., Hall, D.T & DeMuth, R.L.F, 2006). Not only adaptability and sustainability are strong on the agenda, but accountability for security and personal development already apparently rely solely on the shoulders of workers and moreover to graduates. Reference is made to a new careers, including career and infinite variable. These structures reflect career independence and individual employees do not see themselves more connected to these events, and to some extent the relationship is transactional back somewhat.

Arthur and Rosseu (1996) describe as a career characterized by infinite or free movement between organizations, positions and careers. On the other hand unstable career has to do with the behavior of independent workers, more people become self-governing in managing their careers, and their system of values do be keynote speaker (Briscoe, J.P., Hall, D.T & DeMuth, R.L.F, 2006).

Some changes that were observed in 1995 with special reference to the work of graduates are as follows:

• a smaller proportion of graduates in traditional graduate jobs.

• fading career ladders.

• many graduates are becoming self-employed.

• fewer graduates are employed, because most do not have experience.

• concept of life- working is disappearing. (Stewart, J. & Knowles, V., 1999)

Graduates are now expected to show consistency and ability to work in group projects (Harvey L. , 2000). Stewart and Knowles (1999) assigned to the Association of Graduates Recruitment, in a survey in 1995 to show that today's working world, is characterized by a degree of interaction with customers, giving value to every aspect of work, lifelong learning, career development portfolio, self-development and an extreme need to be employed. Harvey further argues that today's graduates are sought, or rather, expected to "enhance" their jobs within the organization. However, problems related to the "willingness to work", the graduates were the main items around the world and are always-presented to all the participants concerned. (Brown, P., Heskesth, A. & Williams, S., 2003). It was mentioned that the focus of graduates who are ready to work should be included university attributes that enhance these individuals distinguished in the new world of work, allowing them to work faster productively in their careers. It is widely accepted that each employer has unique requirements for the organization of his / her new employees when required and literature here does not determine which is the list of abilities that can provide employment (Wellman, 2010).

The study

 This paper has considered the questionnaires of about 230 graduates who have finished their studies in public and private universities in Albania during the last five years, among which 55% were female and 45% were males. They responded to various questions concerned mainly on the identification of the factors affecting the wages, as well as the key elements that they identify as inherent to their career development. It also measures the average time of the graduates to transfer from university to the workplace.

Purpose

The main aim of the paper is to highlight the correlation between the wages of the graduates with the number of trainings, with their GPA-s, with the number of foreign languages spoken, with the number of working hours during the week, other personal skills etc..

Findings

The majority of respondents (39%) had 1 year or less employed. About 29% of them were employed as 2-3 years and 31% had more than 4 years you worked. Among them only 27% were only bachelor level, 25% of their had finished Professional Master, 43% of them Master of Science, and 6% of them were with PhD. Half of them (50%) were specialized in the field of economy. The rest of the respondents had a degree in the field of Law (7%), of Engineering (19%), political sciences (6%) and the remainder of them were of the teaching field. Most of them said to have attended internships before being employed in current position (62%). An interesting fact is that half of them admitted that the university where they had finished their studies had helped them to find a work. As resulted from the calculations, the average time of the transition of the graduates from the university to employment was 1.75 years. About 74% of the respondents were employed in the private sector (most of them in the big businesses) confirming the fact that this sector is still the main generator of employment in the country, 18% were employed in the public sector and only 9% were self-employed. However one of the problems observed today, besides the graduates employment, is that of procuring a job that fits with their academic level. Only 68% of them thought that they had found a suitable working position with their formation. The rest did not think so. According to the the above graduate models studied, respondents replied that they assess more these skills:

Sustainability 38%, Management 32%, Variety 13%, Autonomy: 17%

Those classified as a major factor of job satisfaction: the work they do (37%), the opportunities for growth in responsibility and professionally (34%), secondary factors such as: staff, good willness of the institution, working conditions, etc. (19%), and the salary (7%). They assessed some important elements that they felt had influenced in their employment. As the most important elements that they appreciated were the individual skills, the GPA of their studies, the prestige of the university where they had completed their studies.

They also assessed some important elements of what they thought a graduate should obtain in order to achieve success and career growth, and the element that was identified by them as most important were personal features, the second self-

career-related assessments, and career self-management and cultural competence recently. They were asked to express their opinion about the causes of the high rate of unemployment of graduates nowadays. Most were of the opinion that the main cause was the unfair competition in the labor market, the large number of students that graduate every year (from public and private universities), the mismatch of the skills that graduates possess and the requirements in the labor market, and the disability of the state / businesses to generate new jobs. Finally they choose the optimal solution for the financing of higher education in the context of Albania, where the majority (79%) was for a system funded almost entirely by the state and a small part by the student fees, the other part (21%) was pro the transition to a higher education system funded entirely by student fees.

Findings of Regression Analyses

To estimate the factors that influence on the wages of the graduates in Albania, firstly it has been a division between those who had attended private universities and those who had attended public ones. The explanatory variables included in the model were: the number of trainings and internships, their GPA-s, the number of foreign languages spoken, the number of working hours during the week, and the level of their computer skills. in the first observation, that took in consideration only those who had attended private universities, the results were more significant, (F [1, 141] = 13.23; R^2 =. 08, β =. 11, t [141] = -2.1; $p <$. 01) more than of those that had attended private universities (F [1, 94] = 7.39; R^2 =. 03, β =. 071, t [94] = -1.7; $p <$. 01).

Conclusions

While the above explanation highlights the influence of some quantitative factors that affect salaries, there also other explanations consistent with the results. When graduates are able to impose higher standard of their work, the employers are likely to impose more higher salaries. Accordingly, those individuals who have more productive capabilities, despite their GDP-s or other formation that they achieve from their university, after maintaining and developing their characteristics, are more likely to gain better employment. As it comes out from other studies also, the Albanian graduates must develop better their soft skills, in order to be more efficient in their work and to have the possibility to grow up fast in their career. Our century is characterized by decentralization, fast pace, constant change, and internationalization Every stakeholder must contribute in the future employment of the graduates that finish their every year from our universities. Also is an emergent need, the reforming of higher education in order to reorganize the number of students in each field appropriately with the demand of the labor market. Every student should be aware of the possibilities of employment before choosing the university in which he/she is going to study.

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Social movements in Contemporary Portugal

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Abstract

This paper focuses in transformation of Portuguese society throughout the analysis of social movements. Social movements in Portugal were changing as the evolution of society. Throughout the ages, according to circumstances of each historical period protest as changing. in the early nineteenth century, the transition from the Old Regime to Liberalism sparked riots. The protests were dominated by the peasants, motivated by the introduction of liberalism and capitalism, which have transformed the traditional way of living. The late nineteenth and early twenty centuries brought the claim of the labor movement and unionism with the consequent organization of social events, such as strikes. The industrialization of the country created a great social inequality between the factory owners and workers, the latter living in precarious conditions which led to revolt. Between 1933 and 1974 the Portuguese dictatorship dominated the political system but even the social repression prevented the existence of strikes and demonstrations due to hunger. After 1974, the country resumes freedom but political and social democratization brought much dispute motivated by the opening of society to the global world.

Keywords: Portugal, social movements, historical evolution, protest

Introduction

This paper describes how social movements have changed in the contemporary era in Portugal, alongside the political, economic, and social changes that have occurred in the country, and intends to verify whether these movements have also been an engine of this same transformation.

The perspective of the analysis is historiographic rather than sociological; therefore, the concept of social movement is to be understood as any collective act carried out by a social group (Tilly, 1978). We have also considered the opinion of Maria Glória Gohn, who classifies social movements as collective social actions of socio-political nature, which lead a part of the population to be organized around a common purpose (Gohn, 2011). According to this author, in any social movement there is an analysis of a given moment in history and the elaboration of a diagnosis of that moment, trying to present the solutions that make sense for the participants (Gohn, 2011).

Throughout contemporary history people have acquired rights of defense, which allowed them to use new forms of mobilization to acquire new rights. If initially strikes and demonstrations were considered public disorder, with the passing of time have become vested. in the public sphere exhibited new social movements with innovative claims. To this contributed greatly decreased State repression of these manifestations.

Thus, we begin by analyzing the movements of the nineteenth century and continue the analysis until the twenty-first century in an attempt to give historical significance to the social transformations resulting from the acquisition of the right of citizens to collectively expressed in public.

The nineteenth-century social movements

The social unrest has been constant throughout Portuguese history, generating various types of social movements, depending on the period in which they occurred. The transition from the Old Regime to Liberalism in Portugal led to riots, similarly to what happened in other parts of Europe, as shown in the work of authors such as Eric Hobsbawm and Edward Thompson, who considered these riots as "archaic" or "pre-modern" movements. These protests were due to the confrontation between the traditional way of life and the modern capitalist system of social organization.

People who had not been born or raised in a modern or capitalist world were facing the penetration of the relations of production and the logic of capitalism in their traditional world. The confrontation between these two realities led to conflicts,

in which kinship and other tribal bonds were of high importance in terms of the delimitation of the groups in confrontation, was expressed in an archaic form and had no political pretensions.

This social movements occurred due to the attempt of the people to adapt themselves or due to their inability to adapt to the new reality. Among those movements Hobsbawm studied the Social Bandit, revolutionary peasantry movements of the Millenarianism kind and rural secret societies (Hobsbawm, 1978).

Within the same type of pre-modern revolt are also the food riots, studied by Thompson to England (1979: 62-134).

The ones who took part in those primitive movements hadn't found a specific language to express their aims about the world yet and therefore their actions were considered pre-political. Their culture was mainly oral because they were illiterate in the majority (Hobsbawm, 1978).

This pre-modern agitation wasn't either often analyzed, or recognized as having any kind of importance, because it can't be included in the patterns of the modern social movements, the ones that took place in the last part of the 18th century. This kind of agitation could more likely be included in the occasional phenomena that happened in the Middle Age. But the truth is that it was a reality in the 19th and 20th centuries, happening at the same time as the modern protest movements.

These people, who weren't born or raised in a modern or capitalist world, had to face the production relationships and the capitalism logic that interfered with their traditional world. The confrontation of these two realities caused conflicts, expressed in pre-modern terms and with a pre-political language.

These societies, though pre-industrial, were aware of the State, the class distinctions, and the exploitation by landowners and merchants for a long time; therefore, their protest was already a class protest. The fact that there were kinship ties and tribal solidarities is what frames these societies within the primitive ones, though there was class consciousness. The authors cited above were precisely interested in the fact that these movements were class movements.

According to Thompson, the confrontation with a new capitalist practice changed the 'moral economy' that governed the traditional market practices in the eighteenth century, broke the paternalistic tradition, and gave rise to social movements.

In Portugal, there were various social movements considered "pre-modern" in the first half of the nineteenth century (Silva, 2007). Phenomena such as banditry or food riots occurred in the period of the implementation of the liberal and capitalist society. The political and social unrest that occurred after 1834 maintained and fostered this social phenomenon, and large groups of bandits, who became famous for their violent and courageous acts, were formed everywhere in the country. Among them, we highlight the Marçais in Douro, the Brandões in Beiras, and the Remexido in the Algarve (Ferreira, 2002). Banditry, though it was not a typical social movement, had to be considered a social phenomenon, because, in spite of being marginal, it was important as a collective action of a group of individuals who defied the established order (Hobsbawm, 1978:12), in an attempt to perpetuate the past, as their biggest problem was their adaptation to the new world they were facing. Likewise, the liberal state, when appointing to regional administration positions individuals who were not from those same regions, created a certain distance between the local authorities and the populations, which facilitated the introduction of the capitalist market laws, without complacency for the traditional moral of the people, generating food riots (Silva, 2007). Even in the country's capital, Lisbon, in 1856, people went to the streets to protest against the high price of the bread and the abusive practices of the merchants (Roque, 1985).

Though these protests occurred in the nineteenth century, they resorted to forms of collective action that were reminiscent of the Old Regime: gatherings of crowds after ringing bells, mediation of conflicts by local elites, attacks on public buildings, in a non-organized way.

One of the arguments that have been used to differentiate the traditional forms of protest from the modern ones is that the former do not undermine the foundations of the established social order and contribute to maintain and strengthen traditional and paternalistic ways of life, as stated by Thompson. Moreover, as these protests did not give rise to modern, organized, and politicized social movements, they must be considered and classified as pre-political and reformist movements, not revolutionary ones (Hobsbawm, 1978).

Although these ways of collective action were labelled as "traditional", "primitive" or "pre-industrial", seeming a remaining of the past, they show in the first half of the 20th century a clear importance of the popular within the social protest. At the same time the economic, political and social changes led to new ideas and experiences that would affect the society in an intense and permanent way, changing the features and ways of conflict. The progressive political reforms, the rising of capitalism and the modernization of a country due to industrialization, although weak and late, determined the gradual disappearance of the old forms of protest, since the persistence of customs and rights of the past didn't make sense in a world which was constantly changing. The local, spontaneous, sporadic and non-political manifestations were replaced by modern protests with national ideologies. It is yet obvious that this change from the old to the new wasn't that simple. It had

different features according to each region. The transition from the traditional to the contemporary society took place at least throughout the whole 20th century.

According to Charles Tilly's terminology, the movements started as "reactive" ones, including the defensive practices in the face of external pressures (food riots, anti-fiscal protests, resistance to military service, hostility to machinery, land occupations, etc.) and became "proactive" actions, mainly from the mid-nineteenth century on, i.e., more organized forms linked to an associative base: strikes, demonstrations, trade unions (Tilly, 1978:143-155).

Actually, new forms of protest arose, motivated by the gap that was created between capitalists and workers, as the Portuguese industrial development was taking place (second half of the nineteenth century) and the social relations were changing due to the capitalist mode of production. This group of workers became stronger with time, gaining class consciousness. Associations of workers, and later trade unions, were formed. in Portugal, as in Europe, the first associations of workers had a mutualistic character, with a cultural purpose and promoting mutual support (Cabral, 1988), as sickness and death assistance, a memory of the ancient brotherhood crafts. This was the only possibility of association, since crafts associations were not allowed in Portugal until 1891.

This associative movement strengthened the organization of the workers, giving rise, in the second half of the nineteenth century, to a distinct type of social movement, the strike, in which there was a conflict situation between workers and their employers. This conflict was motivated by the low wages, excessive working hours, and poor working conditions.

In order to demonstrate their dissatisfaction and claim for better living conditions, the workers would cease work and protest, whether or not they were members of any association. By breaking the daily working relationships, the strike created a division, highlighting the class conflicts, and, even if it was generated by economic discontent, in the end, it united strikers and militants of different parties, becoming a means of ideological propaganda.

The Portuguese labor movement was strong in the late nineteenth century, and especially in the early twentieth century, because in 1910 the Republic was set in Portugal and the right to strike was decreed, as long as the strikes did not mean disrespect and violence against those who wanted to work. During the First Republic (1910-1926), consecutive strikes were promoted in various industrial activities: textiles, metallurgy, dyeing. The workers' demands were identical to the ones in the monarchic period: better wages, reduced working hours, and the introduction of machinery in the factories.

The labor movement became the expression of the conflict generated within the industrial society, between employers and employees.

The labor movement, considered a modern movement, lost its spontaneity; strikes did not appear and disappear as quickly as before and could last for days, weeks or months, depending on the confrontation and complaints. It became an organized movement that aimed at the acquisition of better pay and working conditions, moving from economic and social demands to political ones, especially when movements started being organized by unions. Trade unions gave legitimacy and legal framework to the strikes, whether they were professional or general strikes. in the latter, the political character was well evidenced. in Portugal, there were some associations with federalist and union character, but only after the legalization of associations.

Both the primitive movements of the early nineteenth century and the strike movements of the second half of the century, though different, had a common feature: the protest against the country's economy and society. The first movements corresponded to forms of protest against the inadaptation to a liberal and capitalist world, which disregarded the traditional way of living. The second ones were the reaction to the exploitation caused by a profit-oriented capitalism, which had on its base the bourgeois class that also dominated politics. The forms of protest that were used were completely different: the first ones were "reactive" and the second ones were "proactive".

Social movements in the dictatorship period (1933-1974)

The Dictatorship which was settled in Portugal with the State attack that took place on the 28th May 1926, had its apogee with António de Oliveira Salazar's Regime, known as the New State (1933-1974).

Salazar was in favour of a policy that refused the parliamentary and liberal past, since, according to him, only a change in the political, administrative, economic, social and cultural conditions could allow the rebirth of the Portuguese Nation (Salazar, 1928-33). Therefore he established the corporate nationalism, the social and economic intervention to develop a strong State.

From then on the ideals of Salazar's Dictatorship are confused with the ones of the other European Dictatorships, in spite of the Portuguese singularities. in fact, as Braga da Cruz points out, the New State wasn't theoretically totalitarian or, at least the doctrine didn't assume that way (Cruz, 1988, p.52).

Salazar ruled for forty years, despite the obstacles he had to face. for him the most important concepts, the ones he took for granted were "God", "Homeland", "Authority", "Family", Work". These were enduring values that couldn't be discussed by the Press or by any other sector of the public life. in the last years of the New State the resistance to this Dictatorship started to arise.

When Marcelo Caetano was chosen to be the Prime Minister after António de Oliveira Salazar, in 1968, he followed a policy of "evolution in the continuation", hence destroying the expectations of a change in the Regime. in fact, Marcelo Caetano followed Salazar's ideas, trying to make them seem more modern. But the strong authoritarian ideas against the existence of different political parties still existed, as well as the colonial war1. and the colonial war was in fact the reason why there was a military revolution on the 25th April, 1974. This revolution led to a Democratic Regime in Portugal.

During the dictatorship period, the social movements followed the same line of protest of the First Republic, though public demonstrations and strikes were prohibited. Nevertheless, even without legal authorization, there were movements organized by peasants and workers; they occurred in a smaller scale, but were much more intense due to the violent repression.

In the 1940s, despite the existence of a political police in the country, acting brutally and without judicial tutelage (Madureira, 2007), the protests of the workers, both in the cities and rural areas, started once more, due to the lack of food and poverty in which they lived. There were major strike movements in 1942, 1944, and 1947.

The World War was taking place, it was difficult for the country to import food and the people in the cities and rural areas were protagonists of several riots for subsistence, demanding food from the authorities (Rosas, 2000), and strikes in the factories.

These movements were not allowed, they were illegal, and soon became coordinated by the Portuguese Communist Party, also prohibited and clandestine and blaming the regime for the misery the workers lived in.

The Salazar government responded to the strikes through military occupation of the factories, bypassing the authority of the employers, the deportation of the leaders, and the conditioned readmission of the strikers (Raby, 1988). This repression was so effective that the workers who participated in the strikes did not repeat their action in the following years even though they were in penury (Rosas, 1990). The strikers who resisted were able to taste the subversion of the dictatorship, backed by the Communist Party. At the same time, groups of people resisting the authoritarian state were arising, but, as the demonstrations increased, the repression intensified. in 1944, during the workers' strike in Lisbon, hundreds of workers were detained and placed in the bullrings of Lisbon and Vila Franca de Xira. There, the police tried to separate the leaders and punish the other workers, delaying their reintegration at work (Cerezales, 2011).

The movements in the countryside created the first victim of the system. in 1954, a peaceful demonstration of peasants, who claimed for better wages before their employers, led the police to fire at close range at a peasant girl, who entered in history, becoming a martyr and symbol of the brutality of the Salazar regime (Godinho, 2001).

The sixties brought social change to a country closed by dictatorship. Emigration and tourism were responsible for the acceleration of this change as they allowed the Portuguese to have contact with the Western democracies. Moreover, as far as the political context was concerned, there were also expectations of openness due to the replacement of António Salazar by Marcelo Caetano. Hopes dashed.

The continuity of the dictatorship led to the maintenance of protests and to the arising of new social movements as the students' movement. The contact with other realities led students to unite and fight for freedom of association, the end of the colonial war, and the openness of the civil society to the students' academies. These students demonstrated against the war as a principle, they were not only considering the Portuguese colonies' war. in 1968, they gathered outside the Embassy of the United States against the war in Vietnam. These protests were violently repressed, but they strengthened the students' movement (Cerezales, 2011).

As this movement of students was developing, the workers, simultaneously, were leaving their lethargy, triggering various sectoral struggles over wages; there were no general strikes, but they organized standstills in different activity sectors.

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1 At this time Portugal was facing the war of its overseas colonies that wanted to become independent

Before these protests, the government tried to frame the workers in the trade union movement and started facilitating collective bargaining.

While the students' movement was still being organized, the labor movement was becoming stronger due to its framing within trade unions.

The social movements in the dictatorial period acted illegally and were supported by underground parties, but it is not possible to say that they were politicized.

Social movements in a time of Democracy

As the expected political renewal failed and the colonial war persisted, there was a clear feeling of discontent within Portuguese society, namely among soldiers who were sent overseas to fight a war they no longer believed in. On the 25th of April 1974, the Portuguese captains organized a military coup that brought down the dictatorship and led the country to democracy.

The Revolution that led Portugal to Democracy started with the appropriation of the means of communication: the Portuguese Radio Clube, the National Radio and the National Television by the military forces. (MFA). The rebellion started when the announcer João Paulo Dinis, according to the instructions received from Captain Otelo Saraiva de Carvalho, played the song "E depois do adeus" , by Paulo de Carvalho, five minutes before eleven o'clock p.m. (Ferreira, 1993). It was the signal for the troops to set forth and they did that very quickly. The Captain Salgueiro Maia, responsible for the School of Cavalry in Santarém, arrived in Lisbon in a record time: two hours. (Ferreira, 1993). Twenty-five minutes after midnight Renascença Radio played the song, Grândola Vila Morena, by Zeca Afonso. It was the confirmation that everything was happening as it had been planned.

At around three o'clock in the morning all other means of communication were already controlled by the troops. Those means of communication were always advising people to stay calmly at home, waiting for the news about the revolution that had been started by the military forces to put an end to the Regime.

The Government only reacted to the appropriation of the Radio on the following morning, by ordering the cut of the electric energy and of the telephones of Radio Clube (Ferreira, 1993).

The rebellions quickly solved the problem and their communication went on the radio and later on television. Actually the strategy used by the leaders of the operation "Regime-ending" of transmitting constant communications to the population was perfect, since they convinced the population who came out to the streets to support the military forces.

The first social movements in a time of democracy were the peasants' movements; they occupied the lands of major landowners, forcing an agrarian reform (Fernandes, 2002).

The workers, who were then allowed to participate in strikes, were called for a general strike on the 12th February 1982. The strike, which lasted 24 hours, was organized because of a project of constitutional reform the government was preparing at the time (AD), which would eliminate the reference to the agrarian reform from the Constitution.

The general strike initiative was organized by one trade union (CGTP), with the support of the Communist Party. The other trade union (UGT) did not support the general strike. The Ministry of the Internal Administration, predicting there would be strike pickets to prevent workers from working, announced that the police force would be used to ensure freedom to work.

This social movement introduced a new way of action, typical of the latest movements - the use of media as a propaganda factor. Nevertheless, at that time there was only one television channel in Portugal, which belonged to the state, and, therefore, the government used it to tell the public opinion that the strike had insurrectionary assumptions.

Since then, there has been a change in the way of action of social movements; they are no longer restricted to public spaces, they can be followed by everyone who sees them on TV.

These social movements are organized and politicized; though they do not aim at a political revolution, they are linked to parties, trade unions and manifest themselves in the public sphere.

Since the turn of the century, we have witnessed a transformation in social movements and, in the twenty-first century, we have observed phenomena with peculiar characteristics, going beyond politics and questioning the way democracy itself is being exercised nowadays. The "main objective of democracy must be to allow individuals, groups, and collectivities to become free subjects, producers of their history, able to reunite in their action the universalism of reason and the particular features of personal and collective identity" (Touraine, 1995:.263). Social agents act now through demonstrations, non-institutional action processes, recruiting their actors in various social contexts. The aim is to become visible, to bring the

public opinion to their cause, and have social repercussions. These new protagonists: youth, students, women, liberal professionals focus their struggle no longer on their living conditions or on the redistribution of resources, but on the quality of life and diversity of lifestyles.

It is not a protest in order to have more rights, but to exercise the already existing ones, full citizenship, which offers the freedom to express one's opinion and the privilege of participating in the political, economic, social, and educational areas. Several movements with these characteristics have occurred in Portugal, but we will highlight the movement which took place on the 12th March, 2011 - "The Scraping-by Generation".

In this movement, individuals, as citizens, as people belonging to a collectivity, intervened in the public sphere and discussed issues related to them – the crisis, unemployment, exploitation.

According to its organizers, the 12th March movement wanted the civil society to demonstrate its disapproval of various aspects of real life that they considered unworthy for citizens, by expressing themselves while an active part of a democracy. According to them, citizenship must not be limited to the Electoral Act.

On the 12th March, through social networks, nearly 500 thousand people went to the streets to protest against job insecurity and the austerity measures imposed by the government.

The purpose was to promote a more participatory democracy. Social networks disseminated the feelings and opinions of varied sectors of society, concerning the government measures, the banking system, the crisis, the political class, making it clear that the ones who charge and the ones who pay cannot always be the same.

It was a movement that entitled itself as independent from any politic party, without affiliations to political parties and trade unions, secular, peaceful, and without a formal organization. Nevertheless, it suffered some repression, as the elites feared its effects, and there were confrontations with the police. The fact that it was not included in any organized structure was also a reason for concern, as it was a movement not limited to a group of young idealists, but involved several social groups that no longer believed in political parties to represent them.

According to Ana Cabo, these new movements are not very heterogeneous, their objectives are little negotiable, and they maintain an ambiguous relationship with the political power (2008: 51). They believe that change is made by new routes, without leaders nor bureaucratic organizations, but using solidarity.

These twenty-first century social movements are differently configured from the previous ones, in the form of organization, the size, the dissemination, and the national and international media coverage. All this escapes all previous models. It is through the social networks that they are organized and they can mobilize thousands of people in several cities in the same country or even different countries. They reach a size that exceeds the regional and national scales and become planetary movements, in a search for new forms of democracy (Antimo Farro 2004).

Conclusion

The forms of protest have followed the evolution of Portuguese society. From the moment the politics, economics, and society started changing, the same happened with the forms of protest, allowing the change and acquisition of rights. It is true that this transformation was not always immediate or visible at the time of the events, but it is possible to say that the movements were also actors in these transmutation processes.

Currently, there is no doubt that social movements act differently, using the technological means that have been placed at the service of humanity to promote meetings, to disseminate their ideas, to promote themselves. The network society is fully operating, even as far as the organization of protests is concerned, reflecting the reality of globalization.

The reasons have also become more complex; first people contested to maintain or acquire rights, now they claim for a new world. Therefore, today's movements are more complex, as stated by Melucci "many contemporary conflicts are the expression of socially excluded groups who want to be represented socially" (Melucci, 1996:104-105), questioning the whole political-economic-social liberal model.

In this century, the Social Movements have become promoters of social conflict due to their "institutionalization" as a social actor needed to improve democracy. Thus, from the nineties to the early twenty-first century, the social movements have acquired a key role as a political actor in a democratic state, due to their recognized importance as the legitimate holder and dynamic representative of the claims of different sectors of the civil society (Machado, 2007).

The social movements in Portugal have acted as catalysers of change, and we will see the impact that the current movements will have as "agents of historical transformation".

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Youth Development in Albania

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Abstract

Young generations are those who make lives livelier and happier, who design the future and make the change, the ones with full hope and enthusiasm to go further and make the impossible possible. As every country of Europe, Asia or America, Albania as well is surrounded by a very fruitful young ladies and gentlemen's. This paper aims to analyse the changes of the youth development in Albania during the transition period. The young development in Albania has faced many problems, such as the difference between the levels of development of the youths that live in the other cities of Albania with the ones of the capital. Rural areas and small towns are closed where a portion of youth in minor are totally dependent from family, and they are exactly that with their weak hands are inclined to do the heavy work to keep their family one more day alive. Youth at the opening of the borders, generally tended to leave towards legal immigration either as tourist or in illegal opportunities addressing major countries like Britain, Greece, Italy, Belgium etc. Albania needs to make arrangements which will be financed by businessmen, private universities in cooperation with the state to offer young people opportunities to work together and to be closer to each other and to show their skills in conversation competitions. At the same time the state has other open universities in backward areas which will provide young entrepreneurs' with more opportunities for young people to graduate and to serve different areas. Meanwhile, there is needed a strategy to separate the fields in which there is a need to have more expert in the field which is required to work also which would come more to help the country's economy with the addition of experts. Albania is a country blessed where high mountains finish in seas, where groundwater resources are numerous, and with a conductive climate to produce almost all kinds of fruits and where vegetation is very diverse. If the youth will be directed towards learning of foreign languages and in recognition of their territories, traditions and customs, thus, we would make a big step because tourism market is precisely the kind of market where young people will find themselves more comfortable than ever, where the labour force will be insufficient paid and where the demand for products would be required as the number of tourists would be great and just the requirements would change in terms of application areas during the summer as it would be for beaches and seasonal fruits, while during the winter for skiing and mountain tourism.

Keywords: Albania, youth development, education, strategy, state, society, blood feud

Introduction

Albania is a small democratic country located in the South-Eastern Europe. By this time our country has become a strong member of UN, NATO, and The Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, Council of Europe and World Trade Organization. Even though Albania has gone through a lot of difficulties through its history, it has made to become this powerful state which is now days. All of this led by the youth force to dominate the new era of development. It takes time to put things back in the belonging place and the same happened with Albanian youth in the transition period. That was the most problematic period of youngster since the development of a country is always expected from the upcoming generations. Youth development was the only key to have a new powerful democratic country. But this development was not the same in every city if Albania. Youth development should include the vast majority of youngsters throughout the Albanian territory not only youngsters in the most developed cities. in our country this must be considered as one of the most significant problems of the time since the future of our nation is based on how we manage ourselves with respect to education and social welfare. The importance of this topic can only be understood by taking the right measures to prevent the unequal development in different parts of the country. Young people in Albania are divided into several classifications. If you can qualify as such, they are classified as: young people who are in the capital, in suburban towns near the capital city and young people who live in remote areas as small towns and villages. The Albanian capital city, Tirana generally consists of young people who come from the small towns and villages in order to have a better education near the capital this including better living conditions and education from the most qualified professors. The other cities have the possibility to cooperate and have schools as well but in a less developed way, and this is seen in different aspects, mainly when younger people coming from these cities have to face the habitants of the capital city. Still the importance stands still in the general aim of this paper.

Blood feud

2.1 What id blood feud?

Young people are the new leaders of a country. As such they need a special attention because they are the key to development. Unfortunately, Albania is still a black mark regarding a phenomenon which is inherited from generation to generation called blood feud. Blood feud started with Kanun of Leke Dukagjini. Kanun is a set of moral rules, a code of conduct that once was considered as a formal constitution. The basic principle of Kanun is preserving your honour. Some of its rules have even been included to current Albanian constitution. On the other hand, there is a need of special laws just to prevent some of Kanun rules. The problem with blood feuds today is that people are using their own personal interpretation of the Kanun to suit their needs. They are abusing the laws instead of following the original script, and this is why you see young people becoming targets.

In Albania, the blood feud has returned in rural areas after more than 40 years of being abolished by Albanian communists led by Enver Hoxha. More than 5,500 Albanian families are currently engaged in blood feuds. Blood feud has a simple logic, an eye for an eye. With that being said, if a man of a family is killed his family must take revenge by killing a man of the murderer's family. Albania's blood feuds are carried on through generations. Traditionally only men could be targeted in the vendettas, and only they could exact revenge. The Kanun states - among other things - that the blood of the victim can only be avenged with the blood of the killer. But the code is loosely interpreted these days, and nobody is safe.

Causes

Book Eight of the Kanun, entitled "Honor" addresses the topics of personal honour, social honour and blood and kinship (Kanuni 1989, 130-186). in particular, Article 601 of Chapter 17 of the Kanun states that a man is dishonoured in the following situations:

1. If someone calls him a liar in front of a group of men;

2. If someone spits at him, threatens him, pushes him, or strikes him;

3. If someone reneges on his promise of mediation or on his pledged word;

4. If his wife is insulted or she runs off with someone;

5. If someone takes the weapons he carries on his shoulder or in his belt;

6. If someone violates his hospitality, insulting his friend or his worker;

7. If someone breaks into his house, his sheepfold, his silo, or his milk-shed in his

Courtyard;

8. If someone does not repay a debt or obligation;

9. If someone removes the cover of a cooking pot in his hearth;

10. If someone dips a morsel of food before the guest, the guest is dishonoured;

2.3 Consequences of blood feud

This phenomenon has a tremendous impact in the children living in the pectin of mourning the absence of their basic rights. They have no single ray of hope that one day they will be free and not within the "prison" that their family has built for them to live in. These children are forced to live isolated in order to actually live. They cannot have a proper education, a normal way of living. Even if they manage to go to school, no one wants a friend that is involved in blood feud. They don't even own shoes; a pointless luxury since they can get by indoors with knitted booties. There are now more than 20,000 men and boys who live under ever-present death sentence because of blood feuds. Since 1992, at least 10,000 Albanians have been killed. All these bright minds have anything else but a bright future ahead, all the potential hidden in these kids is going to waste, and the biggest problem is that the government is not taking any exact measures to ban this phenomenon.

Solution

The phenomenon of blood feud, revenge and its consequences in our country exists and as a

Consequence of this, the right to life and other human rights and fundamental freedoms are

Violated. Although it is a localized phenomenon in some areas of the country and with limited expansion, it remains a concern and therefore deserves to be considered seriously, both politically and socially. State bodies have not yet been able to make proper assessment of this situation, neither start to develop a close collaboration with each other. This is shown by the fact that there are no accurate statistics.

The government should seriously evaluate the phenomenon of blood feud and strengthen the cooperation with non-governmental organizations in order to prevent blood feud or revenge.

 State Police authorities have to undertake measures in order to prevent conflicts, to detect, capture and delivery of all responsible individuals to prosecution bodies, by strengthening as well the cooperation with Interpol to extradite murderers hiding overseas.

The Ministry of Education and Science should play a major positive role in order to improve preventive educational programs, so it is ensured the education of the young generation in the spirit of tolerance, against self-justice, blood feud or revenge, and for the treatment of teachers in the areas where blood feud is present in order to assist confined students.

Social problems of confined families require a stronger commitment of the state, especially of the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, through the regional offices, in order to assist confined families having a low income, as well as to reduce poverty and unemployment.

 Prosecution bodies should better cooperate with police authorities and conduct prompt investigations, thorough and objective, sending cases for trial with complete and irrefutable evidence. It is not sufficient just to detect and capture offenders, but also their collaborators, organizers, facilitators and associates.

The courts have the obligation to quickly and objectively judge and give right sanctions for any offender. Any mild punishment or acquittal unfounded opens the door to self-justice, blood feud and revenge.

If the strength of my words would be exactly what would bring a revolution then I'm going to work for it every second of my life to come to the aid of every teenager's and every baby. Albania needs to state law enforcement tones, which will make possible the freedom of hundreds of young children as mountain winds, as the adult birds full of joy brought to flight. Change is hard, but the difficulties are precisely those that make us stronger.

Inequality between youngsters

3.1 Illiteracy and educational attainment

According to census results only 2% of Albanian citizens are illiterate; however this percentage is unevenly distributed. The inequality between rural and urban areas has faded these past year; nevertheless urban areas have a slight priority regarding education. The number of pupils that attend middle school is higher in rural areas in concern to urban ones, respectively 5, 7% and 3, 5%. But this percentage changes when we take into consideration high school and university graduated. Only 11.9 from 100 youngster graduate from high school in rural areas where there is a higher percentage of 29.7 in urban areas. Only 1.1% of youngsters living in rural areas attend university comparing to 8.9% in urban ones. There is also a slight change between different parts of Albania. The lowest percentage of illiteracy is in Tirana and the highest in the Northern part of the country, mainly because of unfavourable geographic conditions.

The ability to attend school

In most transition economies, where the labour market is not sustainable, temporary and seasonal employment is relatively high. This type of employment requires workers to be available whenever a work place is presented. An out ways to satisfy the requirements for this type of employment in some European countries east has been the employment of school age people. in some other societies this binding has come as a result of high levels poverty. If the population of school age is involved in this type of employment, school attendance will be affected as a direct consequence. Albania has all the prerequisites to this kind of employment, because it has a high poverty level and market-wing work is not sustainable at all.

The percentage of people who do not follow middle school is higher urban areas. This pattern is difficult to explain. However, an explanatory reason for this model can be that the opportunities to find permanent or temporary jobs in urban areas are

higher than in rural areas. Bearing in mind that, other results show a locally different model in which school non-attendance is predominantly rural phenomenon and it mostly indicates primary education. The vast majority of people who don't go to school are men, mainly because of economic reasons.

Main reasons of non-attendance in rural areas; They have lost interest of school; Agriculture work; Another full time work;

Marriage

As it is seen, youngsters abandon school mainly because of economic factors. Since in rural areas the living conditions are worse than in urban areas young people have to work to earn their living. There is clear lack of extracurricular activities in these schools so pupils lose interest of school. Living in rural areas, school can sometimes be seen as a waste of time since there are a lot of other things to do starting from agriculture work to producing dairy products. Their life is constructed in such way that this kind of "business" is inherited, meaning that they don't need a university degree to plant a tree. This is one of the worst mistakes of these people's intellect.

Solution

If I would have the proper strength to bring this change, than I would implement a strategy, which would come to help to all the youngsters but not only. I would have a strategy that most probably would bring a change. A group of lecturers funded by the state but also with the desire to be helpful to the society in general, at the same time all the students who are part of the teaching branches, nursery services, engineering, social sciences, political sciences etc. All university students with the obligation to have experience in the provision of learning prior to their academic cycle, and in collaboration with persons who do not have the economic means to be part of the school, but also people with disabilities. This would be a push for young people that have not yet economic stability, (that can accomplish it throughout their education) from looking at how far they can reach with their education, but also young people who have reached here to be more aware and not to hesitate to be alongside people in need.

The human ego has had a huge impact on today's society making us literally egocentric. in order for the society to develop everyone should contribute not only financially, but in every way we can. Exchanging experiences is one of the most effective ways of helping people that deal with children education.

Will help them to become graduated and serve in different areas, but without forgetting that within the university there must be such a policy to protect the graduates, making surveys and statistics so that the diploma is adequate for the students' skills. It is heart-breaking knowing that agriculture studies are the most underrated majors. It's true that agriculture is one of the most risky businesses, but then again the government isn't taking any measures to prevent the falling of its importance. The government should give scholarships for students that choose this kind of major or even give soft loans for every existing farmer, or anyone that is thinking this kind of business. Unfortunately, the number of tourism experts is very low. There is also a lack of quality schools in this field. Albania, located near Mediterrian Sea, is a very beautiful place. It has the ability of all three kinds of tourism, but it lacks qualified people. Tourism is that kind of business that has permanent incomes, but very few people are aware of this here in Albania.

Albania and the state

Addressing youth in vocational schools would be another important step after getting an apprenticeship. It would be a much better management of the separate field supervised by the specialized people instead of creating a huge chaos where no one is responsible of their actions. The specialization in their fields will increase the efficiency, the employment and then will increase the quality of the products.

The state should reduce the living costs of the students with low incomes or to offer them jobs (if for the private business is difficult to pay the salaries than the state should put a part of the money as well) as soon as they get the proper qualification. This would bring a greater demand for study, but also simultaneously help the business recruit new gifted employees with a small economic cost until they becomes experts of that field, the state will reduce the level of unemployment and help in the education of the youth graduating. Students also will be part of the development of the country's institutions and society. in this way many students would focus on graduating with honour degree, rather than thinking of a job because they would be more competitive in the labour market. The business hunger would never fade, at least for the field experts who can make revolutions by taking book lessons into practice.

Private universities

State being the main regulator in the functioning of not only the educational system but also in all other areas it will force the universities to turn their attention to the smaller cities with a qualified staff but with a limited number of branches which are generally seen as necessary for other cities and rural areas. This will make a greater distribution and a lower cost because students can study and also work at the sometime, because it is easier to work being close to both work and study. Private universities should have lower economical prices if necessary the state should help these universities with the fiscal barriers. This is one of the most flexible fields, starting from investing in pedagogues to private universities. Many students that have special abilities in certain fields are left undiscovered because of economic factors. Their families cannot afford taking these children to universities that really would take care of their skills.

Conclusion

Throughout this paper I have claimed the state to be the main factor but simultaneously be supported by private institution if it is unable to meet the burden that could have. I'm convinced that even if the state would reach for a partner to private institutions they will show willingness to work together, because state is the trust worthiest partner for private businesses since it can never go bankrupted. Let us hope that the state take up the role that belongs to it and be the one to put some of the proposals I have mentioned above into practice, thoughts which could become a reality and bring an increasing interest in young intellectuals for a rapid change of the countries situation. All this can help in creating the image of a strong and solid state that function well in its entirety as a system. This would lead to a social mobility, bringing the lower classes closer to the higher ones.

To sum up Albania in the future will become a part of the competitive countries in Europe and hopefully spread its roots worldwide. Only knowledge can bring the power of global competitiveness.

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New forms of government and the europenisation of minority representation: the case of European Roma

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Abstract

The situation of roma since the fall of socialism is a paradox. On the one hand, many organizations, international governing organizations (IGOs), such as the European Union (Council of Europe, European Commission, European Parliament), the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, the World Bank and the United Nations (UNDP, UNICEF, ILO), local and international/transnational NGOs, government agencies are involved in projects for Roma to improve their situation in Europe. Roma have become the target of social inclusion programs of the European Union (EU), the Decade of Roma Inclusion - a project of the Open Society Foundation and the World Bank -, Strategies for improving the situation of Roma developed by governments in Southeastern Europe. On the other hand, Roma continue to be marginalized, discriminated against, politically underrepresented, with a higher probability of being unemployed, not having access to public services - education, health , housing - compared with the majority population. This paper seeks to understand how was it possible to understand the recent shift from the representation of the Roma as a non-European minority, which lasted since their arrival in Europe until the fall of socialist regimes, to their representation as an European minority as it is shown in documents of the European institutions and the World Bank? How did Roma appear on the EU social inclusion agenda, the Human Development agenda of UNDP or the minority rights agenda of OSCE?

Keywords: roma, minority representation, governance

Introduction

Today, Roma are presented uncritically in EU's policy documents, inter-governmental organizations (IGOs) (such as Council of Europe, Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, European Union) development agencies (UNDP and World Bank), and national governmental documents, in an ambivalent way, as a 'European problem', 'vulnerable group' or 'European minority' (CoE 1993a; EC 2011; EU 2003; Liégeois & Gheorghe 1995; McGarry 2008; McGarry 2011a; McGarry 2011b; Mirga & Gheorghe 1997; Ringold 2000; Ringold et al. 2005; UNDP 2002; UNDP 2006). The Europeanization of various heterogeneous Romani groups has marked a significant shift in the political approach towards Roma. Indeed, if during the Enlightenment, the processes of nation-state building and under communism, the Roma was considered a non-European, as alien and barriers to civilization and progress, after 1989, the Roma and their identity have been Europeanized (van Baar 2011b). The Europeanization of Romani representation did not remain only at the IGO's level. Mass-media, Romani activists, pro and Romani non-governmental organizations and academics have all presented the Roma as a European minority. Recently, the Socialist & Democrats Party in the European Parliament has published a book, entitled 'Roma: A European Minority' (Flasikova-Benova et al. 2011). Due to constant pressure from advocacy groups and Romani activists and NGOs, the European Parliament has asked the European Commission through a number of resolutions (EP 2005; EP 2008) to put forward a European Framework for the National Roma Integration Strategies (EC 2011).

I do not want to suggest that responsibility for the inclusion of Roma has shifted upwards towards European institutions, neither that the IGOs have been the only organizations that were involved in projects and policies aimed towards the improvement of the situation of Roma. National governments and local/national/transnational NGOs have implemented policies which benefitted Roma. What I will try to argue in this paper, -using analysis of policy documents - is why this recent involvement of various IGOs and NGOs in a common effort to 'turn the tide' for the benefit of Roma. If large scale programs aren't new in Europe –we have witnessed such programs since the end of 18th century and during state socialism – what is truly new after 1989 is this European effort to actively include the Roma in the programs devised for them (van Baar 2011a). So, the paper is split in three parts in which, I present a short history of the IGOs implication in Roma affairs, its rationale and the recent shift in new forms of governance aimed at improving the public and social policies

Europenization and new tools of minority governance

The fall of socialism and the transition from planned to market economy has had significant consequences for the Roma population in the region. Deindustrialization, the abolition of collective farms and state enterprises - where they were mainly employed - has led to increased unemployment among Roma, being among the first laid off in these sectors. Without a steady source of income, the declining standard of living and the raising costs of crucial public services - such as education and health – all affected more the Roma for whom some socio-economic indicators receded throughout the transition. But this is not the whole story. The declining standard of living was doubled by the emergence of nationalist and xenophobic movements in which Roma were attacked, their houses have been burned and some of the attacks have even resulted with casualties. The cases of Hădăreni and Kogălniceanu are relevant for the above said. Roma were constantly imagined as the 'Other', a foreign minority, and made scapegoats for the failure of transition to market economy (Crowe 1999; Crowe 2008; Verdery 1993). This mob and institutional violence against Roma due to their mass unemployment did not remain unnoticed. Various inter-governmental organizations, from the European Union (EU), Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), Council of Europe (CoE), development agencies such as World Bank and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and human rights organizations embraced the Romani case and declared it as a 'human emergency'.

       The protection of Roma minority in the region became one of the key objectives of the Copenhagen criteria on which future Member States had to comply. The document stated, inter alia, that EU candidate countries must ensure a functioning market economy, the stability of democratic institutions, the rule of law, respect for human rights and to ensure the protection of minorities rights (CoE 1993b). In the same year, the Council of Europe will define Roma as a European minority. In Recommendation 1203, the Council stated that „living scattered all over Europe, not having a country to call their own, they are a true European minority" (CoE 1993a). IGOs will henceforth refer to the Roma as a European minority. When asking who the Roma are, the World Bank will respond in one of its extensive report with 'the largest and vulnerable minority in Europe' (2005: 3). Alongside with extensive reports, this IGOs have developed their own centers of expertize. OSCE established a contact point for Roma and Sinti within the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights in 1994 and established an adviser on Roma and Sinti issues in the OSCE in 1998 (OSCE 2008). Council of Europe awarded a coordinator job on Roma issues in 1994 and set up a group of experts on Roma, Gypsies and Travellers in 1995, later renamed MS- S - Rom (Committee of Experts on Roma and Travellers) and initiated the European Roma and Travellers Forum in 2004. At the beginning of the new millennium, Roma have come in the attention of the World Bank and the United Nations through a series of reports (Ringold 2000; Ringold et al. 2005; UNDP 2002; UNDP 2005; UNDP 2006; WB et al. 2002b; Revenga et al. 2002a) But IGOs were not the only institutions who assumed the Europeanization on Roma's minority status. Various NGOs, Open Society Institute, international and transnational NGOs (INGO) such as the European Roma Rights Center, International Minority Rights Group, the European Centre for Minority Issues or networks of these associations and Roma NGOs: - the European Information for Roma and the European Roma Grassroots Organizations that joined in advocacy networks and transnational activism - particularly EU Roma Policy Coalition - asking new coherent policies for Roma in the EU and was influential in developing new strategies to improve the situation of Roma during the period 2011-2020.

       This European institutions, development agencies and non-governmental have explicitly called for the inclusion of Romani actors in the policy devised for them. This active inclusion would empower the Romani minorities, develop their communities and improve their standard of living. I do not intend to say that the rising activism at national and transnational level brought substantial benefit for Roma communities. Their implication in policy outputs and the work with Roma communities have ambiguous results. On the one hand, local and national Romanian and Romani NGOs were financed by the IGOs and the INGOs which raised awareness and visibility of Roma's problems at local and national level. These projects not only raised awareness but educated a Romani elite giving them the skills and expertise to support their participation in the processes of decision-making or advocacy (Ram 2011). One example can be given here. During the first half of the '90, when the EU launched its enlargement policies and pressured for 'protection of minorities', the EU had no minority policy. Because of the constant pressure of Romani and pro-Roma groups, as well as other advocacy groups, the EU has gradually shaped it's anti-discrimination policy, including Race Equality Directive (EC 2000c) and the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (CoE 1995) On the other hand, Roma continue to be marginalized, discriminated against, politically underrepresented, with a higher probability of being unemployed, not having access to public services - education, health , housing - compared with the majority population.

       The active involvement of Roma in the programs devised for them has to do with the new approach to governance developed in the second half of the '90s that had an impact on minority policies at European and national level. In this context, minority governance refers to a set of tools and methods that facilitate the participation of minorities in society to prevent and / or reduce conflicts between minorities and the majority population, to institutionalize the protection

of minorities, so minorities themselves can become agents and representatives in decision-making processes that concern them directly (van Baar 2011a: 9) .

The rising international NGOs / local / national dealing with Romani affairs and the transformation of the governance agenda of international institutions (UNDP, World Bank, OECD or EU) are closely interrelated. The emergence of a development agenda focused on social, civic and human dimensions and the development of civil society as part of the governance process are closely intertwined. The increasing number of development programs focused more on the involvement of civil society are part of the new non-governmentalism approach (Lewis 2005). This new approach is based on the criticism to the development programs guided by national governments over several decades. These non-governmental ways to govern a population issues are an alternative to previous programs or schemes that have been implemented by the centralized state, as in socialism, or earlier neoliberal programs of structural adjustment. Governments involved in the development industry, international and European institutions have adopted this non-governmental governing agenda, often specified in the funding requirements (Lewis 2005).

The governance turn

The active inclusion of Romani actors in the programs devised for them, supported by European and international governance institutions has to do with the new approach to governance developed from the second half of the '90s that had an impact on minority policies at European level. In this context, minority governance refers to a set of tools and methods that facilitates the participation of minorities in society to prevent and / or reduce conflicts between minorities and the majority population, to institutionalize the protection of minorities, so the minorities themselves become agents and representatives in decision-making processes that concerns them directly (van Baar 2011a). Governance theories have emerged as a critical stance towards social science and political theories that places the nation state and its apparatus as the only authority in the governance structures and social relations. Although an analysis of the modern state - like that of Theda Skocpol, Peter Evans and Dieter Reuschemeyer (1985) – as the only container of political power with a push towards centralization, regulation and control seems tempting, political systems in the postmodern era cannot be understood simply in terms of statehood. Non-state authorities, expert systems, NGOs and quasi-governmental organizations, informal networks or formal self-governing communities or even transnational undermine or compete with the centralization of state power (Cotoi 2011; Rose & Miller 1992). Governance is conceptualized in this sense as a new pattern or government structure and as a process of coordination through self-government networks and partnerships that occur at supra-state or sub-state level (local and regional).

As a consequence of dispersal of state power, at the EU level we are witnessing the appearance of multi-level governance, where different entities from the European Union, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe and the Council of Europe, national governments, municipalities, advocacy networks and NGO networks have developed policies and instruments through action plans at European, national, regional and local (community) level. Multi-level governance approach seeks to answer two key questions, namely **how** and at **what level** can the most appropriate instruments be developed to foster minority participation, empower communities and improve their socio-economic situation, and prevent political and civil conflicts between minorities and the majority population (van Baar 2011a: 9).

This reconceptualization of minority governance starts from two general assumptions, one descriptive and the other prescriptive (normative). The normative assumption refers to the appearance of 'good governance', which implies the existence of bad governance used less often. Governance is considered good when the role of the state is minimized, reduces the size of the administrative and political apparatus, introduces a new type of public management - low cost and effective at the same time. Overall, good governance has changed the politics role in managing the economy and society in the sense of a reduced governance with the exercising of political power by creating programs and policies, rather than by delivering services (Rose 1999: 16). One of the institutions that ensures the reality that lies behind the concept of good governance is the World Bank that supports the dispersion of state power in a series of public service providers, NGOs and quasi-NGOs, auditors of public finances, coupled with the ideology human rights, rule of law, political pluralism and freedom of the press (WB 1997). Good governance encourages practices that involve dispersion or creating horizontally relationships between different actors and agencies towards democratization and sustainable forms of decision making. The concept of good governance has influenced the integration policies in the European Union and led to the numerous strategies and requirements of advocacy networks and actors involved in the elaboration / implementation of public policies, including minority policies. The White Paper on governance, developed by the European Commission, for example, links practices of good governance that enhance openness, participation, accountability, effectiveness and coherence for establishing more democratic governance (EC 2001: 10)

Global governance model in minority-related affairs

Since the beginning of the millennium, international governance organizations (UNDP, World Bank, European Union) have adopted a neoliberal trend to govern social and minority affairs through processes of decentralization, the 'outsourcing' of public services to private stakeholders, the support of 'public-private partnerships', and the mobilization of civil society agencies. This model was presented as a stimulus to make government and its structures more sustainable, democratic, efficient and also levers for minority empowerment, development and social inclusion (EC 2002; EC 2003; EC 2000a; EC 2000b; EC 2001; EC 2006; EU 2011; OSI 2011; Ringold et al. 2005; UNDP 2006; WB 2005). However, as I will try to show, this model of governance raises some issues. Studies focusing on neoliberal governance consider the issues that it wishes to address as external to the discourse about them. In other words, the emergence of discourse and studies of governance should be seen as a symptom of the changing patterns and processes of government and not as a direct result thereof. So what is the rationality of practices and discourses behind the growth of governance studies at European or concepts such as good governance? The practical questions that I am trying to answer is why did the Roma appear on the human development agenda of UNDP, the social inclusion agenda of EU or the minority rights and human security agenda of OSCE?

In the early 1990s, non-governmental organizations and civil society more widely were linked with new ideas, practices and concepts to improve democracy, reduce inter-ethnic conflicts, underdevelopment, poverty and socio-economic exclusion. Peace and prosperity could not be understood only in terms of economic or structural, but also through the quality of state institutions. This transformation was observed by former chief economist of the World Bank, Joseph Stiglitz as such (2003: 78; 85; 86; 88):

Development represents a transformation of society [...] has profound implications not only for what national governments and international agencies do, but also for the way in which they proceed-how they engage, for instance, in participation and partnership, particularly with market-related institutions and civil society [..] This vision needs to include a view of the transformation of institutions, the creation of new social capital and new regulatory or incentive mechanisms [..] Poor countries-are resource-constrained. While there are many pressing needs, it is imperative that any development strategy should set priorities. Not only must there be co-ordination of different agencies within and among levels of government: there must be co-ordination between the private sector and the public, and among various parts of the private sector [...] Key ingredients in a successful development strategy are ownership and participation. By involving these groups, the process of strategy formulation may be able to elicit the commitment and democratic involvement that is necessary for development to be socially acceptable and sustainable.

This human development approach in the development policies represents an important shift form the older paradigm on development, growth and inclusion. Thus, the pattern of development in Western Europe after the Second World War was that of a capitalist development and technology (with its equivalent in South-East industrial and technological development but under the direction of an authoritarian state). The reduction of poverty in this system was that of 'economic growth based on investment and the application of science and technology [Poverty reduction and economic growth] will be achieved through planning, state intervention and economic redistribution'(Duffield 2001: 23). Until 1980, in development programs, the unit of analysis was nation-states and national economies. At international level, the unit of analysis and comparison was also the nation-state and inter-state conflicts. But, due to the shifts in political economy and the pressures on nations-states sovereignty by the emergence of the international structures and regimes, that has gone hand in hand with what many analysts have called 'globalization' (Appadurai 1996), security and development agendas are being reconceptualized. Conflicts are no longer intra-state but inter-state, and affect ethnic, religious or migrants groups. While addressing security, new development programs embrace a people-centered approach, which prioritizes the development of individuals rather than states:

Under the banner of sustainable development, formal development practice embraced a human, people-centered focus that not only prioritized the development of people ahead of states; it also decoupled human development from any direct or mechanical connection with economic growth. The move towards sustainable development was a move away from an earlier dominance of state-led modernization strategies based on the primacy of economic growth and assumptions that the underdeveloped world would, after passing through various stages, eventually resemble the developed. Rather than economic growth per se, a broader approach to development emerged based on aggregate improvements in health, education, employment and social inclusion as an essential precursor for the realization of market opportunity (Duffield & Waddell 2006: 5)

UNDP has also integrated its human development approach with minority rights during the 1990s as a way to improve the access to social, economic, cultural and political rights: 'UNDP advocates the realization of human rights as

part of sustainable human development, an approach that places people at the center of all development activities. The central purpose is to create an enabling environment in which all human beings lead secure and creative lives. Sustainable human development is thus directed towards the promotion of human dignity-and the realization of all human rights, economic, social, cultural, civil and political' (UNDP 1998).

No doubt that this policy responses from the IGOs during the 1990 was due the increasing ethnic conflict in the Eastern Europe. But the problematization of their inclusion was no longer a matter only of state policies but rather it had to do with a weak and underdeveloped civil society and to insufficient development of human and social capital, which became explanatory variables in new approaches to poverty and underdevelopment. Mobilizing civil society has become an important pillar on IGOs agenda after the fall of the socialist regime, which had to be revived, supported, encouraged, and developed through training and capacity building programs. The permanent focus by governing institutions (EU, World Bank) on the mobilization of civil society and involvement of NGOs or advocacy groups is based on the rationale that the latter will not only be involved in developing and implementing development strategies but will enable civil society and increase democratization from bottom–up (Weiss 2000). As the European Commission has put it (EC 2000b: 2; 5; 6):

NGOs can make a contribution to fostering a more participatory democracy both within the European Union and beyond [..] The contribution of NGOs is particularly important in tackling social exclusion and discrimination, protecting the natural environment, and the provision of humanitarian and development aid. NGOs have been chosen as partners because of their specificity coupled with their expertise and technical capacity

Returning to global governance agendas, we have seen in the last 20 years a continuous expansion of non-governmental organization which pretends to represent Roma affairs. Some have referred to this event as 'Roma industry' (e.g. Ram 2011). In a research conducted at the end of the '90s, a report on Roma projects in Romania – itself financed by the EU's PHARE program and published by a Romanian NGO that works on Roma issues – found 1013 projects aimed at Roma communities implemented by 519 organizations from 1990 to 2000. NGOs (associations and foundations) implemented at least 79 per cent of these projects (other implementers being primarily government institutions). While no more than 20 projects per year were implemented from 1990 to 1992, there were approximately 300 projects in 2000 (Bădescu 2001: 36-37; Anăstăsoaie & Tarnovschi 2001: 181). It is useful to say that the first decade after the fall of socialism was characterized by a heterogeneous implication by the IGOs and the international non-governmental organizations and a lack of clear strategies by the Romanian government (Cace et al. 2005; Dediu 2007). Over time, the EU and Open Society Foundation have financed activities to improve the situation of Roma and to build the capacity and advocacy skills of Romani NGOs. The results of this development approach are still ambiguous. Some authors have already started to discuss the NGOisation of Romani movement and politics, which during the last 25 years has been fragmented due to different scopes, community needs, framing identities and sources of financing the movement (Kovats 2003; McGarry 2010; Rostas 2009; Stubbs 2007; Barany 1998; Barany 2002). Due to the conditions of financing the Roma related projects by the IGOs, the more 'successful' NGOs have turned into professionalized and bureaucratic ones, which limited the 'dynamics and flexibility of civil society' (Rostas 2009: 170) in finding the complex answers to the multifaceted problems of marginalized Romani groups.

Conclusion

The situation of Roma since the fall of socialism is a paradox. On the one hand, many organizations, international governing organizations (IGOs) such as the European Union (Council of Europe, European Commission, European Parliament), the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, the World Bank and the United Nations (UNDP, UNICEF, ILO), local and international/transnational NGOs, government agencies are involved in projects for Roma to improve their situation in Europe. Roma have become the target of social inclusion programs of the European Union (EU), the Decade of Roma Inclusion - a project of the Open Society Foundation and the World Bank -, Strategies for improving the situation of Roma developed by governments in Southeastern Europe. On the other hand, Roma continue to be marginalized, discriminated against, politically underrepresented, with a higher probability of being unemployed, not having access to public services - education, health , housing - compared with the majority population. What has this short essay tried to argue is that after 1989, the 'will to turn the tide' for Roma went hand in hand with a new approach to political representation and development agenda. If during Enlightenment, nation-states building and socialism, the Roma were seen as a non-European, alien group, a barrier to western civilization, which legitimated its coercive policies towards the ethnic group, after 1989 the identity of heterogeneous group, with different socio-economic conditions, cultural differences and different dialects have been Europeanized. Reconsidering Roma as a European minority has an important implication in the policies of the European institutions. Europeanization of minority representation has become a catalyst tool for empowering Roma inclusion, facilitating and ensuring access to social justice and public services (van Baar 2011a). If during the last three

hundred years we have witness large scales programs to improve the socio-economic situation of Roma, what is truly new after 1989 is this European effort of active social inclusion of Roma in which Roma themselves become partners in the programs tailored for them. IGOs, European institutions, local, national and international NGOs have asked the direct involvement of Roma in developing new policies that would serve them. The active inclusion would have empowered the Roma minority, improve their standard of living and contribute to the development of their communities

The active involvement of Roma in the programs devised for them has to do with the new approach to governance developed in the second half of the '90s that had an impact on minority policies at European and national level. In this context, minority governance refers to a set of tools and methods that facilitate the participation of minorities in society to prevent and / or reduce conflicts between minorities and the majority population, to institutionalize the protection of minorities, so minorities themselves can become agents and representatives in decision-making processes that concern them directly. This policy shifts was a result of the numerous attacks on Roma and inter-ethnic conflicts that Romania faced during the beginning of the '90s. Instruments and methods had to be devised so the number of conflicts would reduce. Therefore we have witnessed a number of policy documents and instruments, of which we could mention the Race Equality Directive and the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities, with a large input from Romani groups, activists and NGOs.

To put in practice its rationale of governing, the IGOs have launched large scale programs in Eastern Europe to transform institutions and practices of governance. Since the beginning of the millennium, IGOs have launched a new governance agenda of social and minority affairs through processes of decentralization, the 'outsourcing' of public services to private stakeholders, the support of 'public-private partnerships', and the mobilization of civil society agencies. This model was presented as a stimulus to make government and its structures more sustainable, democratic, efficient and also levers for minority empowerment, development and social inclusion. However, this model of governance raised some issues. Studies focusing on neoliberal governance consider the issues that it wishes to address as external to the discourse about them. In other words, the emergence of discourse and studies of governance should be seen as a symptom of the changing patterns and processes of government and not as a direct result.

Therefore it is important to analyze why did the Roma appear on the human development agenda of UNDP, the social inclusion agenda of EU or the minority rights and human security agenda of OSCE as they did? To answer these questions I have argued that after 1989, we are witnessing a different type of problematization regarding human security, human development and social inclusion. Due to the massive ethnic conflicts in the former Yugoslavia, the IGOs have started imagine the whole eastern bloc as an area of (in)security. As a consequence, the former agenda of intra-state security of OSCE has migrated towards and intra-state conflict agenda. The burst of ethnic conflicts was seen as a consequence of poverty and underdevelopment. The confluence between security and development has motivated some IGOs to devise human development and human security as a tool for conflict management. IGOs enable human and minority rights norms and conventions, such as the UN Declaration of Human Rights and the Geneva Conventions, to improve and redirect their development programs. In this line of reasoning, human security and human development are presented as "integrating human rights with sustainable development" (UNDP 1998: 181; van Baar 2011a).

This governance model had some ambiguous results. IGOs sustained financially and logistically the revival of a civil society that would take the Roma case as a site of intervention. The revival of a Romani civil society was an important variable to the pan-European effort to make them actors in the policies devised for them. Due to the different interests, needs and financing sources, the Romani movement has been very heterogeneous, leader-based, leading cu frustration from the Romani activist not being able to establish a common identity. Others have critiqued the functioning of these NGOs, who have transformed themselves in professionalized and bureaucratized NGOs, with a reduced flexibility to find complex answers to the multifaceted problems of marginalized Romani groups.

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The influence of Austrian voting right of 1907 on the first electoral law of the successor states (Poland, Romania [Bukovina], Czechoslovakia)

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Abstract

As a result of collapse of the Central Powers in 1918 in Central Europe have emerged new national states e.g. Poland, Czechoslowakia, Hungaria, SHS Kingdom some of states that have existed before the Great War have changed their boundaries e.g. Romania, Bulgaria. But what is most important newly created states have a need to create their constituencies, so they needed a electoral law. There is a question in what manner they have used the solutions that have been used before the war in the elections held to the respective Parliaments (mostly to the Austrian or Hungarian parliament) and in case of Poland to the Tzarist Duma or Prussian and German Parliament. In the paper author will try to compare Electoral Laws that were used in Poland Czechoslowakia, and Romania [Bukowina]. The first object will be connected with the question in what matter the Austrian electoral law have inspired the solutions used in respective countries after the Great War. The second object will be connected with showing similarities between electoral law used in so called opening elections held mainly in 1919 in Austria-Hungary successor states. The third and final question will be connected with development of the electoral rules in respective countries and with explaining the reasons for such changes and its influence on the party system in respective country: multiparty in Czechoslovakia, hybrid in Romania.

Keywords: Poland, Romania, Czechoslovakia, Electoral law, politics.

In the countries that emerged in 1918 after the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, also known as the successor states, all political principles had to be built from scratch. On the one hand, it was a unique opportunity to try new political solutions.

On the other hand, using commonly known rules might be considered useful in stabilizing the country, since the elections, one of the key elements of democracy, could be held according to widely accepted principles that were attributed to the former political system, which helped to raise the trust of the new country's citizens.

The article aims to trace the main regulations of Austrian electoral law of Imperial Council in 1907 and find their influence on first electoral law in the successor states (Romania [Bukovina], Czechoslovakia) and Poland.

The starting point of the research is the Austrian law governing the elections to Imperial Council in its final version of 1907, when in the effect of the so-called Beck's electoral reform, general and equal voting right was introduced in Austria.

The tradition of general elections in the Austrian Empire itself was formed in 1896 (due to Badeni reform), when to the previously existing four classes of voters, formed on the financial possibilities, a fifth class was added, with every citizen with voting right being able to make his choice.

Apart from the issue of generality, the reform in question introduced the idea of unequal voting and plural voting. It was possible due to granting voting right to the members of the fifth class, and also those who were allowed to vote in classes I-IV, which made it possible for them to vote twice (Starzyński, 1907, p. 75). It should be mentioned that in the end of the 19th century Austrian electoral law was not extraordinary. Plural voting existed in other countries, in Belgium on the country level and in Sweden - on the local level.1.

New electoral law, introduced in the Austrian Empire in 1907, meant serious changes in the basic rules of voting, since it replaced the former rule of political representation typical of class voting with the principle of citizen representation.

The additional aim of the new law was to reconcile different nations of the Austro-Hungarian Empire by granting mandates to particular nations living in precise electoral districts. It was clearly visible in the region of Moravia, where it was possible to set electoral districts in such a way that mandates would be given to particular peoples (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 289), thanks to the 1905 national cadastre.

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1 It should be mentioned that in the end of the 19th century Austrian electoral law was not extraordinary. Plural voting existed in other countries, in Belgium on the country level and in Sweden - on the local level.

It is worth mentioning that the idea of introducing similar changes in other parts of the Empire, Galicia included, were facing strong opposition of the local politicians, especially in regions inhabited by mixed nationalities. In other parts of Austria of the time, similar division was meant to be introduced in a more subtle way (Buszko, 1956, p. 30-31), but with a superior idea of a balance between Slavic and Germanic-Romanic element (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 290).

An element meant to regulate political life in Austria was introducing a partial reform of the House of Lords (Higher House of the Parliament). It involved setting a definite maximal number of its members appointed by the Emperor to 150-170, which disabled halting virtually every new statute drawn by the Lower House of the Parliament by appointing numerous members.

The outcome was dubious, since it also made it difficult to have a majority in voting a new project over. The second element of the reform was to allow hereditary peers of the House of Lords to run in the elections to the House of Representatives, on condition that their membership would be suspended while belonging to Imperial Council.

An important novum introduced by electoral law of 1907 was the possibility of direct vote for all the voters. Such opportunity had been possible earlier only in classes I-III, in lower classes it was only one of many options. It used to be a common situation in Europe, for instance in Romania, so Austria was not archaic in that sense.

A curious fact in Austria was that passive voting right was slightly broader than active. in this particular case there did not exist domicile status, which was obligatory in case of active voting right and set to last one year, the obligation of one year permanent residence in a certain electoral district was a result of a compromise. The Left wanted to remove this entry from electoral law as designed against workers who used to migrate in search of work, whereas Christian Democracy postulated obligatory residence of 3 to 5 years, which was to support the settled (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 293).

Another novum put forward by Beck's law was an introduction of single- member districts, with the possibility of existence of double-member districts in the areas ethnically non-homogenous, where the second mandate was meant for a person belonging to an ethnic minority group. It was practiced only in Galicia (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 434)1, where in the areas dominated by the Ukrainians, it was used to help Polish representatives in being granted a mandate (J. Buszko, 1956, p. 78).

This new law secured the interests of the ethnic minority groups, by granting the representative of such group the opportunity to enter Imperial Court on condition that he was supported by at least 25% of the voters of his electoral district. It was a novelty in Austrian solutions.

It should be mentioned that this way of choosing a minority MP was faced with considerable restrictions. One of them was the necessity to acquire at least 50% of votes by the representative of the majority, and in case of not gaining such number of votes by a candidate from a district in question, the voting procedure had to be repeated, no matter whether the threshold of 25% had been passed or not (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 299).

The voting was based on the principle of a single non-transferable vote (SNTV), used then in Brasil on provincial and municipal levels (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 300). The procedure of granting seats in the Parliament itself was obviously based on the plurality voting system, with the use of ballot which took place one week after the first voting. Only two candidates who acquired the majority of votes in the first voting ran in it. As previously mentioned, it took place almost everywhere in Austria, except 36 country districts. The rules in those districts were more complicated, and in extreme cases as many as 4 dates of voting were needed to choose two MPs, but this could only happen when the majority candidate was the only person who got votes, which was hardly possible.

Nevertheless, using the voting procedure in question with proper division of rights and high political awareness of the majority of voters, it was possible to choose two majority candidates in one electoral district. There was no solution to such behaviour of the majority, despite the existence of other aspects of voting, especially its sectreteness (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 443)2.

Due to the introduction of the minority MP, the institution of substitute MP was also introduced. He was appointed when the elected MP was not able to fulfil his duties. Every MP had his substitute MP appointed3. in case of majority voting, additional

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1 70 electoral districts were established there: 34 single-member town districts and 36 double-member country districts.
2 in Moravia there was such a possibility, but it involved signing the voting papers. When a particular MP was discharged from a local parliament in a district, his substitution MP was chosen only by those who voted for the MP in question. It involved an infringement of the idea of secret ballot and keeping voting papers during the whole tenure.
3 This voting method can be compared to the American way of voting for president as it was formed after 1804, when it was possible to point a particular common candidate for president, and different candidates for vice-presidents.

voting is much more common to the institution of substitution MP. It was not possible, however, if having in mind that minority groups were supposed to be represented as well, since it would violate the rule of general elections (only the minority group in a particular electoral district would vote) or the rule of secret ballot (voting cards would have to be signed or every vote should be recorded on the voting lists).

Substitute MPs were chosen in voting similar to voting for MPs, with the restriction that the choice would only be valid on condition that the MP whom the substitute was to represent, would be chosen as well. in case of runoff voting, a second voting for the substitute MPs was usually arranged as well. in case of death of a substitute MP during the tenure, whether he was a member of the House or not, his mandate was considered vacant.

An important new element introduced in 1907 was a strict definition of the date of mandate verification by the House itself, which had not had any regulations earlier. It sometimes happened that no statue at all was introduced because of that. Due to new regulations, it was meant to happen during the first year of the House tenure, which was a very liberal attitude anyway, since in the same period in other countries, for instance in Romania, the mandate verification was done even before the first meeting (Dubicki, 2013, p. 98).

Class system was eliminated, which, together with making it easier for a man to vote, strengthened the idea of general voting. The way to give a vote was much easier since the polling places were set locally, not on county levels. The only exception was again Galicia, where national authority allowed the areas having less than 1200 citizens to organize common voting. The only condition was that there should not be more than 5000 people voting together.

The regulations in question were probably introduced to lower the costs of voting. The group of offences because of which the citizens were deprived of the right to vote was enlarged. Some of them were common crimes, like for instance, drunkenness.

A characteristic feature of the new law was the introduction of compulsory voting on the country level, which meant that all the parts of Austria had the right to decide upon its potential introduction and decide on their own how to carry it out (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 230). The autonomy of the voting right was linked to the features of particular regions, especially in mountain areas where the citizens used to travel together with their herds to the fields and used to stay there for as long as six months, so it was scarcely possible for them to fulfill their voting duty. Until 1907 voting duty was introduced in: Lower Austria, Upper Austria, Moravia, Silesia, Salzburg and Vorarlberg. It was meant to be introduced in Tyrol and Bucovina as well, whereas in Bohemia this matter was not solved in 1907 (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 236). The fine for the absence at the voting was from 1 to 50 krones and it could not been changed for imprisonment. The only possible punishment was a fine.

In Galicia as well, in the elections to The Diet of the Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria, the rule of proportional counting of votes was tried to be introduced; in the heated debate before the introduction of general voting right in Galicia there appeared some ideas of common voting right by Stanisław Głąbiński and Józef Buzek.

 When speaking about contemporary voting right and its features compared to world regulations, Buzek's project is important because it was the first moment when the idea of proportionality and choosing a particular candidate, so using open lists during proportional voting, were introduced (Starzyński, 1907a, p. 219).

From the point of view of subsequent practice, the method suggested by Buzek had been important, since the author was one of the key authors of new electoral law of The Second Polish Republic (Buzek, 1922)1.

Electoral law valid in Romanian Bucovina in the period 1919-1926

After the end of World War I and the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the territory of Bukovina was located within Romanian borders. Due to this fact, it became necessary to organise a separate electoral law for Bukovina. It was in accordance with the rule, approved in the whole country, of holding elections on the basis of various electoral laws. The rule was unique, as far as Europe was concerned. Separate solutions were organized for particular parts of the country, which belonged to different states before WWI. Romanian Old Kingdom, Bessarabia, Transylvania and Bukovina were using different solutions, whose one shared feature was the electoral law of 16 November 1918. Its main idea was the introduction of general voting, and a proportional system of counting voices, however, these were very general guidelines, eventually introduced in the whole country not before 1926, with another electoral law coming into effect.

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1 His main ideas concerning electoral law between the wars were presented in the book: J. Buzek, Ordynacja wyborcza do Sejmu i Senatu, Warszawa-Lwów, 1922.

An electoral law for Bukovina territory was constructed on the basis of the nationwide law. Here, in accordance with the 26 August 1919 act, elections were supposed to be: general, equal, direct and secret. The rule of compulsoriness was not forgotten either. Here, plurality voting system was supposed to be used, and a senator and an MP were to be chosen in each election district. Three MPs were to be chosen only in Cernauti, according to the proportionality principle. Thus, it was a mixed voting system. in Bukovina, 26 MPs were to be elected in general election (23 in single-member districts and 3 in a multi-member district), together with 12 senators (Mamina, 2000, p. 61)1. Those who committed hostile acts against the state or the Romanian nation would also join the group of people deprived of voting rights. Those who did not accept being naturalised or who renounced Romanian citizenship, those who did not swear an oath to be loyal to Romania and people with no political rights, were also deprived of voting rights. When it comes to these people, a solution, inspired by the Austrian model, was making it impossible to vote for people who were under the surveillance of the police (Radu, 2005, p. 165). The Acquisition of some solutions that had been successful before, in the period of Austria-Hungary, could be seen here. The introduction of single-member districts (23) in the country was most undoubtedly caused by the will to maximise the amount of mandates for the Romanian MPs and senators.

The organisation of elections was supposed to be slightly different than in Romanian Old Kingdom; here one central election committee was to be created and perform all the necessary election procedures. The voting procedure itself was supposed to be slightly different here as well. Every electoral register should be printed on paper of a different colour. The unwanted lists were supposed to be left in a ballot box which was to be found in the voting booth, while the list chosen by the elector was to be placed in an envelope and handed in to the chairman of the election committee, who would place it in the proper ballot box. The voting certificate would be stamped and returned to the elector in case of subsequent runoff voting. It was important, because in Bukovina in case none of the candidates reached absolute majority of voices (50% + 1), another round had to be run, between the candidates with most voices. This was an idea taken from the Austrian electoral law. If it turned out that both candidates were awarded the same number of voices in the second round, assigning mandates would be performed using lottery-drawing. in case of Cernauți, the same as in Romanian Old Kingdom, the mandates belonging to municipalities in the election to the Lower House, were supposed to be split according to d'Hondt method (Radu, 2005, p. 165).

The abovementioned regulations were upheld in Bukovina until 1926, when a nationwide unified electoral law was introduced, in which none of the solutions adopted from the former Austrian law were used.

Czechoslovakia and its electoral law

In the newly established Czechoslovakian country, legislative authority was given to a two-chamber National Assembly, consisting of Chamber of Deputies and Senate. The right to candidate, in case of Chamber of Deputies, was given to every person who was at least 30 years old, and every 21-year-old, or older, person was entitled to suffrage. in case of Senate, these numbers were higher, respectively: 45 in case of the right to candidate, and 26 in case of suffrage (Starzyński, 2010, p. 165, 166).

Electoral law was described as consisting of 6 adjectives, which means that the "standard" equal, proportional, free, secret and general became accompanied by compulsory. Voting was compulsory under penalty of fine or jail. This idea was quite common back then and it was adopted into the Czechoslovakian electoral law from Belgium (Starzyński, 2010, p. 165)2. Every electoral register had to be supported by 100 electors. It was prohibited to candidate in several districts simultaneously, as well as to run for MP and senator at the same time. The latter restriction was practically applied when elections to both chambers took place at the same time. Should they take place at different times, an MP could run for senator, and vice versa. According to legislators, such possibility would occur relatively infrequently, as the Czechoslovakian voting system was characterized by extremely long tenures – Chamber of Deputies was supposed to be chosen every 6 years, Senate every 8 years. Thus, it is easy to count that, apart from the first election, which had not taken place until 1920 (Bohemia and Slovakia) and 1924 (Carpathian Ruthenia), the first mutual election would take place after 24 years, in 1944, theoretically. However, due to the shortening of both chambers' tenures, the elections were mutually held in: 1920 (Chamber of Deputies election on 18 April 1920; Senate election on 25 April 1920); 1925 (15 November); 1929 (27 October); 1935 (19 May).

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1 Bukovina was granted a certain number of seats in the Senate, being given after appointment.
2 Imprisonment was a new penalty for absence during voting in Czechoslovakia, since earlier the Austrian regulations had been using fine only.

Allocating seats after the election proceeded as follows: an electoral quotient was established, which later helped to allocate particular seats for an adequate party. in case one list was allocated more seats than candidates on electoral registers, the vacant seats would be transferred to the countrywide pot, divided by the central election commission 8 days after the election. in this second deal, the entire country became one election district. in that case, only people who run for mandate in general election could candidate. What is more, only the parties which obtained at least one seat before had the right stand for this deal. This procedure was justified by the fact that only a person who had been verified to a certain degree during the election could be chosen1. This time, the election committee worked out another electoral quotient, taking into consideration the remaining voices across the country, the ones which were not used when allocating seats. They were used to calculate a number of mandates to be allocated in round two. in case the number of MPs did not reach 300, yet another, third, round of allocating seats took place.

Czechoslovakian Senate consisted of 150 senators, it was appointed for 8 years, as it has been mentioned earlier, but no term of office lasted that long. The longest tenure was in the years 1929-1935, when the Chamber of Deputies managed to hold, in other cases the tenure was shortened. This fact may lead to two ideas.

First of all, the myth of endurance and stability of Czechoslovakian democracy has to be revised, since only one Parliament (or rather its half) during the interwar period managed to work during its entire term of office (Tomaszewski, 2006)2. Romania had higher rates, since there were two full terms of office completed (1922-1926, 1933-1937) (Dubicki 2013, p. 439).

Another matter to consider is the influence of the length of the tenure on the stability of the Parliament. It is clearly visible that the idea that was supposed to stabilize the rule, worked the opposite. in case of Czechoslovakia, it can be said that the fight to stabilize political situation with the use of "five" had measurable benefits that could trigger dissatisfaction of the citizens, especially in Slovakia.

It can be even concluded that constant presence of the same politicians in the circle made Czechoslovakia resemble a type of democracy in which the citizens were able to control only the highest authorities, which made it almost impossible to change them. in case of any social or ethnic tension, the electorate might get discouraged from being interested in politics, or even express their social discontent, which eventually led Czechoslovakia to disintegrate.

In case of the Higher House of Czechoslovakian Parliament there existed a possibility of office workers standing for elections. During the tenure they were on a leave from their office. It was forbidden to combine the MP mandate with the membership of local assembly, Constitutional Tribunal or Electoral Tribunal. It was also forbidden to be both an MP and a Senator.

It was possible to take away the mandate from a person who was excluded from a party because of "low reasons" or dishonest behaviour, which was meant to stabilise the rule of the authorities. Another way of losing a mandate was after being taken away civil rights because of a court judgement. S. Starzyński considered that solution a judicial protection of party loyalty (Starzyński, 2010).

Sessions of the Parliament were held twice a year: during spring time (in March) and fall time (in October). Those were obligatory Parliament meeting times, but the President could ask the Parliament to meet on a special session, on his will or when suggested by one of the Houses. in that case, the range of issues raised during the debate had to be given. There was also a rule ordering the Houses to meet not later than 4 months after the last session.

Both Houses used closed list voting, which was modelled on German law. To count the votes during the first voting round, Hare quota formula was used on the state level (Buzek, 1922)3. Using this method of counting votes resulted in only a part of the mandates being allocated during the first round of voting4.

During the next rounds, the lists could be suggested only after the elections, but the order according to which the candidates appeared on voting lists did not necessarily have to use their former result. in the next round, Hagenbach-Bischoff's quota

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1 in similar circumstances, there appeared an accusation of creating a possibility of allocating seats taking into account people who did not take part in the elections during a debate on a reform of electoral law in Romania in 2008.
2 Despite its polarisation, Czechoslovakian Parliament used to function in a proper way due to the creation of not formal and outside Parliamentary forum, called pětka (the five), which took care of keeping the authority majority for Jan Černy's cabinet. Since this solution worked well, later it was practiced as well. From 1926 the fraction gathered 8 most prominent politicians of the state.
3 Precise rules connected with distributing mandates in Czech see: J. Buzek, op. cit., s. 50.
4 in smaller electoral districts even half of the mandates were not fulfilled

(Starzyński 2010) was used. in the third round, mandates were distributed to particular political parties according to the result of the second voting round, until there was no free seat.

More serious changes were made in 1925, when next elections took place. This time electoral law was adjusted to new administrative division of the country (the division into 20 zhupas). The number of candidates on the voting lists was limited to the number of mandates to be distributed in a particular electoral district and the right to take part in the second round of mandate distribution was only given to those parties who received at least one mandate in general elections.

The procedure of the distribution of votes in the second round was changed as well. This time the number of unused votes was divided according to Hare quota from the first round. The rules of distributing votes in the third round were changed in a similar way as well, ethnic minorities and the parties whose members had already got mandates during the second round of voting being preferred.

Next amendments were introduced in 1927 and 1935. in 1927 military men in service were effused voting right according to the rules valid in the neighbouring countries' legislation. in 1935 the method of voting distribution in the second round was being manipulated again.

Only those parties who acquired at least 20 000 votes (or 35 000 when it comes to the Senate) in one electoral district, or 120 000 votes on the country level, were allowed to take part in the second round of elections. Generally, the electoral law in Slovakia during the I Republic involved the use of close lists, Hare quota and Hagenbach-Bishoff quota. There was no threshold, but using the two methods mentioned above, it was not necessary.

The system that resulted from it can be classified as multiparty in which different political parties were considered relevant and possessing strong coalition value. That can be said about almost all political parties except The Communist Party of Czechoslovakia and the party of the Sudeten Germans. Thus, according to Sartori, this can be called a multiparty polarised system. The classification is justified by the presence of strong opposition, not able to come to agreement (there was no possibility of the communists coming to terms with the Sudeten Germans).

The formation of multiparty polarized system meant the existence of many political parties, and the lack of threshold enabled many political parties, whose exact number is not possible to estimate due to many changes in the near-electoral period, to enter the Parliament.

An additional political matter was the fact that in the first period of the existence of the country, the main distinguishing factor was not ideology, but ethnic belonging, which made Czechoslovakia similar to The Kingdom SHS.

The President was entitled to dissolve the Parliament in general, or one House only, but he was not allowed to do so during the last 6 months of his presidential term of office.

What is important, even though the Constitution mentioned free mandate, it was rather imperative mandate that was present in Czechoslovakia. Parliamentary mandate was treated as belonging to a particular political party. To assure an MP's loyalty, the party usually threatened him not only to move him out of any of the parliamentary Houses, but also to make use of the promissory notes he had been made to sign before the elections. It was such common a practice that sometimes in the commentaries on Czechoslovakian political system there appeared voices that it cannot be considered to be a state with the existence of free mandate (Starzyński, 2010, p. 167).

It can be attributed to the fact that during the first elections in Czechoslovakia in 1919, the Parliament was chosen due to a deal: the political parties who in great majority had existed before the war, got the right to represent the state politically on the basis of the voting results from 1911. They received an appropriate number of mandates, but the exact personal decisions were left to political parties to make (Tomaszewski, 2005, p. 35).

The division into electoral districts was not equal. The number of citizens living permanently in a particular electoral district was taken into consideration. The electoral district of Prague was the biggest, with 45 MP mandates to be distributed and Liptovsky Mikulas- the smallest, with only 6 mandates. They were still very big electoral districts, with ethnic minority groups and small political fractions being favoured.

It was beneficial for the Czechs, especially in the Sudetes and in electoral districts in Cieszyn Silesia, where they were not a visible majority. The density of population being taken into consideration, most of the mandates were given to Czech, where 157 MPs, so the majority of the House, were chosen. in Moravia 63 MPs were chosen and in Slovakia 61.[1]

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1 It should be reminded that in Carpathian Ruthenia elections were not held until 1924, when 18 MPs were chosen.

The solutions introduced by so-called Moraczewski Electoral Law in Poland

In Poland, reborn in 1918, after 123 years, a need to conduct parliamentary elections was soon expressed, which triggered the appearance of the first electoral law very quickly, as early as in November 28, 1918, almost simultaneously with the document setting the date of elections for January 26, 1919. in Poland the situation differed from the one in Czechoslovakia, where first elections took place in 1920 and in Romania- in November 1919, since the elections immediately followed the proclamation of new electoral law.

Such rapid legislative process can be attributed to the postulate of the Head of State, Józef Piłsudski, to conduct the elections as soon as possible to legitimise the right to rule of the new authorities. According to Piłsudski's memoirs, it was drafted by Jędrzej Moraczewski's government in 10 days (Watt 2005, p. 21).

In theory, the elections were to be held according to the rule of the five adjectives. Belgian regulations, with a small modification enabling the creation of so-called electoral blocks (Buzek, 1922, p. 31) to make it possible to count together the voices given to forces belonging to them, were being looked up to. According to J. Buzek, such action had not been thought over, since it made it easier for smaller parties to get a mandate, which introduced even greater element of insecurity to elections and it broke the idea suggested by d'Hondt method, which is known to promote bigger political parties (Buzek, 1922, p. 36)1.

The right to candidate and the right to suffrage was limited with a relatively law age qualification – 21 years (Buzek, 1922, p. 22). What was new, was granting the voting right to women. When it comes to the voting formula - d'Hondt method was used in plural mandates electoral districts that differed from each other in terms of the number of seats to take. in the biggest district, the district of Warsaw, 16 mandates were ready to be taken, the smallest electoral districts (with only 3 seats) were in Cieszyn Silesia.

In general, there was a rule that was used later as well, linking the number of seats in a particular electoral district with the number of citizens living there – the proportion was estimated as 1: 50 000.

Overall, the estimated number of MPs was 513 but finally there were 442 deputies, but only 364 of them were elected, the rest (78) were appointed.

That electoral law was heavily criticised just from the beginning. Right-wing andagrarian fractions put forward their doubts claiming that it was an element of socialists' dictate, not including their demands. What is more, especially people's party demanded changes in electoral law leading to the introduction of single member districts, with which they had had experience before 1914 and they knew how to conduct electoral campaign (Cimek, 2005, p. 33). The new project was heavily criticised by people connected with the circles around Regency Council, who before November 1918 prepared new projects of electoral law of the Kingdom of Poland (which was founded on the basis of Act of 5th November) to the order of Regency Council itself. Prof. Józef Siemieński paid attention to serious differences in the size of electoral districts and in the number of mandates to be taken, since in small districts it was necessary to get around 30% of votes, whereas in bigger districts to become an MP, one had to acquire less than 10% of votes.

The technique used to conduct the elections involved a serious threat to the idea of proportionality: if there was only one voting list or many lists but with the number of candidates equaling the number of seats to be taken, the elections were not carried out. It leads to the conclusion that votes were distributed proportionally on the level of an electoral district, without the use of Czechoslovakian system of state list, since in that case a problem of dealing with districts in which elections were not held would occur. Thus, Polish electoral law seemed similar to the regulations used in Romanian Transylvania in 1919 and 1920.

According to some experts of that time, the proposed proportional system could be introduced only in a state with fully developed party system and established democracy, which could not have been said about Poland of that time, since almost all institutions connected with public life were only staring their activity on state level (Ilski, 2014). Because of that, the decision of Head of the State to introduce the electoral law in question may be a sign of heavily critised by him party politics.

When it comes to the voting method itself, it should be stressed that closed lists were used at that time, with the voter was only to underline the number of voting list he wanted to support. It involved getting to know the lists of candidates in advance. Distribution of numbers of voting lists was performed according to the order of declaring them to the election committee

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1 According to J. Buzek, list blocking was possible only in electoral districts not homogeneous ethnically, but it should be forbidden in ethnically homogeneous ones. Buzek claimed that in countries consistent ethnically, like Germany or Austria, the experiment of blocking the lists was allowed in "opening elections" only, whereas in the following elections it was out of the question.

(Dziennik Praw, 18/1918, art. 45). What is interesting is that the possibility to stand as a candidate for elections in many electoral districts, known before Great War, was still practiced. It demanded further declaration which electoral district one wanted to represent and the next person from the list replacing the first one.

Nowadays, the obligation to buy a voting card by a person who wanted to make use of their voting right can be considered controversial. The price of the voting card was 5 Polish fenigs or 10 hellers in Galicia. Electoral law established some precautions against the attempts to rig the elections. A voting card bought had to be put into an envelope that was to be stamped in a polling station (Dziennik Praw, 18/1918, art. 70). Voting cards without envelops were considered not valid. Privateness of the elections was also secured – every citizen could fill out the card at home.

Finally, the elections were conducted only some part of Poland, and in hostilities areas (in Galicia especially), MPs representing those regions in the lower House of Austrian Parliament in 1918, were appointed as additional MPs.

The most intriguing situation took place in Lwow, where two seats were vacant because of the death of two MPs. A decree of the Head of the State ordered to fill them upon elections which were to be conducted on the basis of old Austrian electoral law of 1907, not on new Polish one (Dziennik Praw, 18/1918, art. 47). It was the only example of the use of Austrian regulations in successor states to such an extent.

Summing up, the adoption of proportional electoral system by reborn Poland was a way of leaving the well-known plurality voting systems that had been known and used for most electoral acts in the annexed lands before World War I[1]. It was surely triggered by the eagerness to dissociate from the tradition of foreign states but it was also connected with the European trend to use proportional electoral law.

To sum up, Austrian electoral law was a breakthrough since it introduced the idea of equal and general voting. It also set democratic standards on the area where it used to be valid in the years 1907-1918.

Successor states, en bloc, decided not to keep it after 1918, which can be attributed to several factors. First of all, it may have been triggered by ambition to dissociate from the criticised Habsburg state. It can be ascribed to Poland, where people's party, during a debate over the first electoral law, demanded the introduction of rules taken from Austrian regulations, which was opposed by the socialists.

Secondly, the introduction of plurality voting system on regions not homogeneous ethnically would be politically dangerous since it transferred electoral competition from political to ethnic matters, which was not welcome in view of the need to consolidate democracy in new states.

A controversial thesis can be given that the 1907 regulations could not have been hold because of a completely different political situation in successor states. in 1907 it was all about relieving the social tension; after 1918, in newly created states especially, the consolidation of the country, with the use of proportional elections, was the most important. Proportional elections made fair distribution of seats, without the discrimination of particular ethnic minority groups, possible. It was of upmost importance to build a positive picture of a new political entity on international level.

It should be stressed that Beck's electoral reform set political minimum that could not be crossed by any country. It should also be reminded that some solutions that had been functioning since 1907 were later adopted by the successor states, especially in terms of order regulations, or so called incomaptibilitas. Austrian law can be called vital for further functioning of democracy in the successor states.

Austrian regulations of 1907 were valid the longest in Bucovina, where they were used for the last time during 1922 elections. It should be reminded that there was an incident of acting upon Austrian regulations during elections in 1919 in the Polish city of Lwow.

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[1] When it comes to Prussian Partition, majority and general regulations functioned in case of the Parliament for all of Germany. Till the end of existence of German Empire, Prussian Parliament was elected due to class electoral law.

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Tendencies of High-Skilled Migration coming from Romania. Favourable Legislation and Social Policies

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Abstract

The external migration of a significant part of Romania's high-skilled population is a social phenomenon which became increasingly frequent starting from the 1990s, right after the fall of the communist regime. The basis for this phenomenon consists of several causes: globalization, the strengthening of international economic relations, and later on, Romania's adhesion to the European Union. Research has shown that of all high-skilled population, the professionals who emigrate more frequently consist of engineers, teachers, medical staff, scientific researchers, economists and architects. Besides, the chosen destinations have been variable throughout time. The first phase in time took place in the 1990s, when a large part of the high-skilled population chose to emigrate for professional purposes in countries such as The United States of America, Canada, Germany or Israel. The second important phase occurred after year 2000, when the focus was placed on EU countries, especially after Romania's integration. Apart from temporary unqualified migration, the number of high-skilled migrants and those who leave the country to continue their studies also soared. The chosen countries generally include Great Britain, Germany, Belgium, France and Austria. Given these differences in the tendencies of high-skilled migration, this paper will offer an insight on how the phenomenon evolved, and the factors that caused these variations in space and time. Most likely, some of the countries that were preferred have been facilitating the integration of high-skilled immigrants in society, as opposed to unqualified ones, through a selective set of laws and social policies which are meant to favour this social category. Therefore, we will discover and analyze various examples and benefits of legislation and social policies which offered social protection to high-skilledimmigrants in various countries. This paper is made and published under the aegis of the Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy, as part of the programme co-funded by the European Union within the Operational Sectorial Programme for Human Resources Development, through the Project for Pluri and Interdisciplinarity in doctoral and post-doctoral programmes. Project code: POSDRU/159/1.5/S/141086

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1. Introduction and Methodology

The departure point for this paper is the overall image of the Romanian outgoing migration phenomenon and its phases. Following the main findings of the research, there have been significant differences across time, during the past 25 years, and therefore a more in-depth study of what lies beneath these variations in migration tendencies is necessary. After offering a general insight, we will point towards the specific case of high-skilled Romanian migrants. As I mentioned above, this social issue gradually increased in significance for the Romanian society at the beginning of the 1990s. We will look at the evolution of this phenomenon in our country throughout the years, as well as the purposes of emigration, and especially the countries of destination. The chosen destinations vary significantly, also according to the level of professional qualifications of the subjects.

As a case study, I chose the European Union, and five of its countries, with different types of immigration regulations and Romanian-originating migration patterns. My motivation lies within the high growth in number of EU member countries, which multiplied from 15 to 28 in less than 10 years, but also because there is a permanent struggle between the request for an homogeneous set of immigration policies and the desire to keep a locally-specific regulation. Although the employment restrictions for Romanian workers have just been removed since the beginning of this year, it is still to early to draw conclusions upon the results of this major change. However, the recent past is still actual and with visible consequences in the imprint of Romanian immigration in each country.

2. An Outline of Migration originating from Romania and the Involvement of the Romanian State

Regarding general migration tendencies, sociologist Dumitru Sandu[1] has identified three major time phases in Romania's recent history, until year 2006:

1990 – 1995 – 3% emigration rate; of the total number of departures, 5 countries were exceeding the 7% percentage: Israel, Turkey, Italy, Hungary and Germany.

1996 – 2001 – 7% emigration rate; to the countries of the first phase, migrants start choosing Canada, the United States of America and Spain.

2002 – 2006 – 28% emigration rate; this phase is marked by the free circulation within the Schengen area, causing a massive concentration of temporary work migration, the main destinations being Italy and Spain.

Migrants' level of education also differs amongst these three phases. Our area of interest being the high-skilled ones, also D. Sandu mentions that Romanian migrants with higher education who left the country were higher in number (17%) during the first time phase, lowering to 9% in the second phase and further to 7% in the third phase[2].

To these original phases, a 4th phase could be easily added, after year 2007, representing Romania's integration in the European Union. According to a study published by the Soros Foundation, entitled Al patrulea val: migratia creierelor pe ruta Romania-Occident (The Fourth Wave: the Brain-Drain on the Romania-West Route), this fourth phase of emigration is dominated by the migration of medical staff more than any other professional categories[3].

The fall of the communist regime has had a major influence on the way the Romanian state has been controlling outbound migration. Its role as a social actor in the process of the migration of the Romanian population has changed radically. If before 1989 there was a strict controlling procedure upon departure from Romania and during the period of residence abroad, after the Revolution Romanian citizens were free to travel for any purpose, restriction being eventually imposed by the countries of destination, and being variable from country to country. The role of the state of destination took over the most consistent part of the situation, especially before 2007.

As restricting and blocking migration was no longer an issue, the role of the Romanian state evolved, or should have evolved towards meeting the needs of and offering social protection to Romanian migrants or aspiring migrants, also limiting possible negative occurrences on foreign territory. in a study entitled Politici si institutii in migratia internationala. Migratie pentru munca din Romania 1990-2006 (Policies and Institutions in International Migration: Migration for Work from Romania 1990-2006), authors Monica Serban and Melinda Stoica mention four different types of regulations designed by the Romanian state[4]:

a) general regulations concerning the departure from the country;

b) general regulations concerning receiving Romanian citizens upon return on Romanian territory;

c) general regulations for the social protection of Romanian citizens living abroad;

d) specific regulations, appeared as a reaction to the recruitment policies of other states.

Taking into consideration the most common migration purpose, namely labour, the same study identified and defined various migration itineraries, according to the presence or absence of mediation between a potential migrant in search for work and the foreign employer, as well as the nature of such mediation. As we are interested only in legal migration, the itineraries in our area of concern are of three types[5]:

Privately mediated migration – special human resources companies act as a link between the Romanian citizen in search for work abroad, and the foreign employers, seeking to balance work offers and requests. This mediation method appeared in the early 1990s, with the main destination being Israel. The disadvantage of this type of private mediation was the limited capacity of the mediating company to interfere in case of conflicts or abuse in the country of destination, which, in the case of state mediation, these issues would have been handled differently.

State mediated migration – minimal until 2002, when the National Office of Workforce Recruitment and Placement (ONRPFMS) entered the workforce mediation market.

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1   Sandu, D. (2010), p. 87
2   Sandu, D. (2010), p. 93
3   Ulrich et al. (2011), p.14
4   Serban and Stoica, 2007, p. 5
5   Serban & Stoica, 2007. p. 10

Non-mediated legal migration – apparently the most common migration itinerary used amongst high-skilled migrants, a method which involves the aspiring migrant getting directly in contact with the employers of the desired country of destination.

 Therefore, considering non-mediated migration as the main choice of the high-skilled group, we draw the conclusion that these targeted countries of destination already had a very specific and transparent set of policies as far as highly qualified workforce was concerned. However, given the fact that some countries were preferable compared to others, an analysis of the reasons behind these preferences is required.

3. Countries of Destination, the European Union and Immigration Policies

Taking a look at the global picture, it is obvious that each country has a specific pattern as far as inbound migration is concerned. Some states are more prepared to deal with immigrants than others, just as well as some of them are more selective regarding the quality of immigrants they are willing to accept. Each state has the duty to protect itself from illegal immigration, which might become the basis for criminality or might become detrimental to the native population, especially in those countries which already have their fair share of economic and social problems, such as unemployment. This discourse applies especially to the non-EU context, which, for Romanians and their countries of choice, include EU countries before 2007 and in some cases before 2014, as well as North American countries to this day. The solution lies in establishing a set of immigration policies which ensure a careful selection of immigrants allowed to settle in those specific countries, with evident focus on the highly qualified ones, who can bring a significant contribution in the economic and social life of the country of destination. in the study entitled "Policy Primer: Selecting the Best and Brightest", by Lucie Cerna, published in The Migration Observatory at the University of Oxford in 2011, the author refers to the human capital approach, which defines the strategies of some developed countries to accept immigrants not based on employment shortages and firm job offers, but with the aim "to increase the skills and knowledge based on a country's workforce to promote innovation, productivity growth, and ultimately economic growth and national competitiveness".[1]

Despite its core values, the European Union has taken into consideration the asset of human capital only in some cases. EU membership, and immigration in this context, should mean free circulation on the labour market. in the discussion paper High-Skilled Immigration Policy in Europe, written in 2010 by Martin Kahanec and Klaus Zimmermann, and published by The Institute for the Study of Labor (IZA), the authors recognize the development of the ability to manage the flow of migration as an enormous challenge for EU countries, especially those who do not have enough immigration history on their territory.[2] A high amount of attention is drawn to the lack of a consistent and uniformed EU immigration strategy, given the fact that policies still vary from country to country, and policies aimed at high-skilled migrants have only been recently implemented. Besides, administrative barriers are still an issue when it comes to migrating from one country to another – the problem shows when it comes to transferring social security benefits, such as pension and health insurance, different taxation systems, or cross-national mortgage policies.

On the other hand, as far as Romanian workers were concerned, not all older member states have adhered to this principle from the beginning of Romania's EU membership. in fact, only on the 31st of December 2013 all work restrictions which were applied to Romanian citizens on the EU territory were abolished. The last 9 countries who were still placing restrictions were: Belgium, Germany, Ireland, France, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria and the United Kingdom. Spain, which had abolished restrictions a longer while before, had reintroduced them in August 2011, for a period of a just over one year, due to high unemployment issues that Spain was facing. By confronting this list with the general information regarding high-skilled immigration coming from Romania, we can notice that some of these "not fully open" countries, are also some of the preferred destinations for high-skilled Romanian workers, such as the United Kingdom and Germany. This leads us to believe that it is precisely the existence of these restrictions, combined with high-skilled immigration facilitating policies, that have ensured keeping the inflow of immigrants to a higher standard. On the other hand, countries which have been less restrictive, such as Italy or Spain, but which, at the same time, have received a very high number of Romanian immigrants, have also been mostly targeted by under-qualified workforce and also fell prey to Romanian-originating criminality.

This is why I have attempted to give a parallel outline of five EU countries frequently chosen by Romanians, with an insight of their immigration policies aimed at high-skilled immigrants, if these were present. The policy outline of each country (apart from Italy) is present in the aforementioned document published by IZA.

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1   Cerna, 2011, p. 2.
2   Kahanec and Zimmermann, 2010, p.5

Germany

On the 1st of January 2009, Germany enforced its legal regulation aimed at high-skilled migrants, consisting of free mobility and labour market access for immigrants in possession of a university degree, and also for their families. Work permits must generally be issued by Germany's Federal Employment Agency upon the existence of a firm job offer, however, in the case of high-skilled migrants, the consent of the State in order to work in Germany. Most high-skilled immigrants living in Germany include scientists, teachers, researchers, but also specialists and managers with relevant work experience. Self-employment work permits are given "if the proposed business is expected to have a positive impact on Germany's economy, meet specific local needs and have at least secured financing or is expected to generate at least 250.000 Euros of investment and create a minimum of 5 jobs."[1] Moreover, all applicants should acquire knowledge of German language and culture.

France

The French state is issuing two types of work permit: temporary and permanent. However, the selection process for the assignment of the full work permit (with no time limit), is based on criteria which are favourable to high-skilled immigrants. They must be in possession of a university degree, work in a managerial position or equivalent high-level professional role, being also required to earn at least 3.835 Euros per month, which equals the salary of a French citizen in an analogue position. in the case of self-employed foreigners, applicants must make proof of a firm intention and realistic capacity to generate income in the country. Although France has been less affected by criminality caused by clandestine Romanian immigrants, their radical actions has somehow inflicted caution into those emigrating to France in search for a less-than-honest life.

Italy

Although targeted by a very high number of Romanian immigrants, most likely for linguistic and cultural reasons, Italy does not have immigration policies designated for high-skilled immigrants, the Italian state focusing mainly on the work fields in which it had a shortage of Italian employers, and most Romanian workers entered the sectors of constructions, agriculture and domestic work. in order to acquire a residence permit in Italy, one must make proof of a location contract (property buying or renting), a proof of the purpose of stay, in the form of a work contract, a business start-up document, or school/university admission document. Also a bank statement as a proof of having enough funds to support oneself is preferred. However, flaws in the legal system caused immigrants who did not fulfill these criteria to find alternative ways to remain on the Italian territory, although in a clandestine manner.

The United Kingdom

Before 2008, the United Kingdom had the rule of issuing work permits based on applications made on behalf of the foreign worker by the employer, stating that there are no suitable British citizens able to carry out the specific job. in 2008, the UK implemented a points-based method based on five categories of workers, the first category referring to high-skilled immigrants, entrepreneurs, investors and graduate students, with or without an already-made job offer. Applicants must score a minimum of 75 points. The number of points are distributed amongst various criteria. for example, the higher the level of study (Bachelor Degree, Masters, PhD), the higher the number of points. Also, the younger the applicant, the higher the score, as applicants under the age of 28 are given additional points. Prior work experience, qualifications obtained in the UK, proven proficiency in the English language (owning an internationally-recognized language certificate, university studies taught in English, or origination from an English-speaking country), as well as a proven capacity to support oneself financially also count on the points' scale.

Spain

Spain, just like Italy, does not have a specific policy for high-skilled immigrants. Work permits are of two types. Type A is aimed at workers who represent a company from their home country, but work in a host company on the Spanish territory for a limited amount of time, has a duration of maximum 9 months, and workers must prove 6-12 months of experience with the company which delegates them to Spain. Type B work permit is for foreigners who are directly employed by a Spanish-based company, has the duration of maximum 12 months, and, although application is made by the employer, renewal requests can also be made by the immigrant employee. in addition, each year the Spanish National Employment Institute issues a centralized list for the entire country, meant to inform in which occupations and areas of the country immigrants are particularly needed. Although not exclusively, this policy is aimed also at high-skilled immigrants and entrepreneurs.

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[1] Kahanec and Zimmermann, 2010, p.14

4. Conclusion: what Lies ahead for Romanian Immigrants in the EU?

As we can see, the EU has not been having a set of policies and legal regulations applicable in each country, and each country functions by its own system, which may or may not be similar to the others. for Romanian immigrants, these regulations are no longer applicable since the beginning of this year. However, during over 20 years of partial or total restriction, each EU country has created its own pattern and reputation as far as foreign immigration is concerned. Therefore, if a certain country has been attracting a specific type of immigration, things are not very likely to change, especially now, when the freedom of mobility and work has increased dramatically. It is also argued that all EU countries should take on board the responsibility and be legally and administratively prepared for any type of migration, not just the high-skilled one. in theory, we can even say that the status of EU citizen is somehow becoming a concrete fact instead of an unrealistic dream, although there are still many issues that should be worked on. Moreover, we could even state that "immigration" is no longer an appropriate term in the context of EU borders. It is still early to notice any concrete trends in migration, or whether or not migration patterns and destinations have changed, or will change for Romanians.

Far from being exhaustive, and in the light of recent changes in EU regulations, this paper is mainly intended to raise various questions to keep in mind for future research, policy making, and integration-related programmes:

Will the targeted countries remain the same within the EU, according to the reputation they created for themselves in terms of the already-existing communities and categories of Romanians living and working there?

Will Romania suffer even more because of the brain-drain phenomenon? If so, to what extent and in which professional areas?

Would countries to which the access has been restricted so far, such as the UK, become the new destination of Romanians living until now in Italy or Spain?

Will the absence of actual immigration policies applicable to Romanians give birth to other less-official methods of keeping immigrants at bay, from employment bias to creating extreme nationalist movements? If so, what could be done to prevent that?

Last but not least, how could the public opinion be influenced towards seeing immigration as something inevitable, but definitely advantageous for economic and demographic development, but also cultural enrichment?

The following one or two years are bound to be a significant period of time to watch social changes unfold, and provide answers to the questions above.

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Service Quality and Consumer Perception on Retail Banking Facilities and Employees' Courtesy in Malaysia and New Zealand

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Abstract

Service quality and consumer perception are the issues being focused solicitously by the business community today. With the expansion of the banking sector and extensive market formation, scopes of different acuity and satisfaction level for consumers seem to impose a mingle game of their perception on service quality especially in retail banking. However, this study is focused on the service quality and consumer perception on retail banking facilities and employees' courtesy in Malaysia and New Zealand. for this purpose, a total of 293 respondents participated in this study. Factor analysis was performed to identify the influencing dimensions of service quality, hence revealing two such factors: banking facilities and employees' courtesy. in order to test the hypotheses vis-à-vis the effect of these two attributes of service quality, structural equation modeling was then employed. The study discovers that while banking facilities exert a significant positive influence on consumer perception, employees' courtesy does not. The findings of the present study are expected to hold significant implications for the managers in the retail banking sector in enhancing the service quality and customer perception. The findings also expectantly reveal the most obvious implication considering banking service providers to further improve their services quality with greater efficiency and as a way to better compete in the current marketplace. However, few limitations and suggestions for possible future studies are put forward in this regard.

Keywords: Service Quality, Consumer Perception, Retail Banking, Banking Facilities, Employees' Courtesy

Introduction

The consensus of customer perception and service quality in banking system has increased worldwide nowadays. When competition strengthens as well as banks and financial institutions start to offer almost similar products and services, it is the service quality that can influence the performance of a bank and determines its competitiveness and success. Fundamentally, quality has been defined as the fitness and features or services which meet customer needs and thereby provide customer satisfaction (Juran and Godfrey, 1999). According to Garvin (1984), the meaning and understanding of quality varies depending on the variety of dimensions and perspectives. He proposed that quality can be viewed from the transcendental approach, product-based, value-based, user-based or manufacturing-based approach. On the other hand, Kotler (1991) clearly explained about service quality by focusing on insubstantial benefit provided by the services provider to customer, which can be tangible product or service as an independent form. However, service quality has been progressively recognized as a significant and essential feature in the success of any business or commerce (Parasuraman et al., 1988) and therefore, the banking sector in this case is not exception. Usually, the retail banks execute transactions directly with consumers, rather than corporations or other banks. Thus, it can be noted that customers can perceive differences in the quality of service (Chaoprasert and Elsey, 2004; Ghasemi et al., 2012). in fact, given the significance of retail banking industry in Malaysia and New Zealand, it is important to distinctively identify as how service quality is perceived by customers. Moreover, it is critical to determine which elements of service quality are more important to different customers. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to evaluate customer perception about retail banking services offered by the retail banks. The outcome of the study will show the present status of service quality in banking industry in Malaysia and New Zealand.

Literature Review

An attempt is made is to assess the degree of customer perception on service quality in retail banking in Malaysia and New Zealand. The academic published works are devoted to establishing the causal link between service quality and customer's positive perception (Levesque and McDougall, 1996; Ghasemi et al., 2012). Specifically in Malaysia, the cultural difference of consumers influences its applicability because of the various ethnic diversities in the country. However, Karatape et al. (2005) suggested that service quality measures developed in one culture may capture service quality sentiments in another culture. Besides, the awareness of Malaysian customers and their concern towards banking services is perceptible and the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction deem significant. in contrary, New Zealand has a sophisticated banking industry with many retail banks operating together in its financial market.

Banking Facilities

Since service quality is widely used to assess the performance of banking services (Cowling and Newman, 1995), facilities are also considered as the measurement of service quality. Thus, retail banks require concentrating and focusing on service quality (Chaoprasert and Elsey, 2004). However, banking facilities involves few components such as banks' retail branch facilities, maintenance, service type, helping tendency to the customers, convenience and facility construction (Brown et al., 1993; Ghasemi et al., 2012). in fact, there are strong linkages between banking facilities and overall customer satisfaction (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993). Essentially, banking facilities and positive perception are interrelated to each other and there is a strong causal relationship for customer satisfaction. Additionally, there has been considerable debate as to the basic dimensions of service quality (Brown et al., 1993; Cronin and Taylor, 1992), the measurement of these dimensions (Parasuraman et al., 1993; Smith, 1995; Brown and Bitner, 2007), and the components of customer satisfaction (Hausknecht, 1990). At the same token, customers' positive perception and satisfaction are also related to the service offering. Considering with these circumstances, the core component comes to the picture is banking facility whereby Ueno (2010) stated that superfluous banking facility provides bigger satisfaction to the customers.

Employee Courtesy

Employee courtesy is considered the core for customer relation and the performance is seen significantly key components for the success. These are therefore very essential and valuable elements in the financial institutions especially in banking sector. Concerning these activities and issues, Hart et al., (1990) stated that, the major reason why customers change the service providers is unsatisfactory courtesy and their performance on problem resolution. When customers face a problem, they may respond by switching to a new service provider, attempting to remedy the problem by complaining or may show the loyalty by staying with the same service provider anticipating that things will get better (Hirschman, 1970). Thus, customer complaint handling can have an influence on customer satisfaction and retention (Fornell and Wernerfelt, 1987; Ueno, 2010). However, to do that complaint handling, courtesy of retail banks' employees is very important, in fact, the customer service unit plays an important role on performance measured by the bank customers especially from the front desk. in fact, performance evaluations are an important part of the employee review process especially in the banking (Hart et al., 1990; Ghasemi et al., 2012). Employees should expect to be evaluated on their job performance, not their personality or job title. Thus, performing service right the first time by showing the sincere interest in solving customers' problem bring instant goodwill of the bank, which may impact a positive perception to the customers. However, neat-appearing with prompt service gradually earn the sophisticated consumer perception on retail banking service quality as well.

Perception on Retail Banking Service

Banking service is solidly associated with customers where customers' positive perception, which refers satisfaction, has been an increasing focus of research (Holliday, 1996). This is mainly because of the fact that banking sector is increasingly experiencing a growing level of competition. Few studies have investigated the bank selection criteria or the reasons on the basis of which customers choose to bank with specific banks (Khazeh and Decker, 1992; Levesque and McDougall, 1996; Ghasemi et al., 2012; Ueno, 2010). The main criteria were found like perceiving convenient services, availability of branches, internet banking facilities, online bill payment and so on. However, the consequence of this increased competition is that many financial institutions are now focusing on increasing customer satisfaction and customer retention through improved quality of their services. While customer satisfaction is the goal of the service provider, various measures are used due to the banking industry studies. However, customer satisfaction can and should be viewed as an attitude (Shahin

and Samea, 2010; Yi, 1990). for example, in retail banking there is an ongoing relationship between the service provider and the customer. Here, customer satisfaction is based on an evaluation of multiple interactions. for this investigation, satisfaction is considered as a composite of overall customer attitudes towards the service provider that incorporates a number of measures. Therefore, retail banks should put more coherent efforts to improve their long-term competitive position and be truly responsive on customers' wants and facilities which bring the positive consumer perception as well as customer satisfaction. However, the current research seeks to examine the customer perception on service quality in banking industry as a whole. in fact, this research has some specific objectives as well:

- To measure the service quality in retail banking industry for Malaysia and New Zealand.
- To determine the overall perception level for the customers of both countries.
- To identify the factors that influence consumer perception in terms of service quality in retail banking industry.

Conceptual Framework

Based on the previous academic literatures; this research concentrates on conceptual framework of consumer perception on service quality. This framework emphasizes on couple of independent variables derives from service quality which are underlying with the level of overall satisfaction in retail banking. However, the detailed framework is given below:
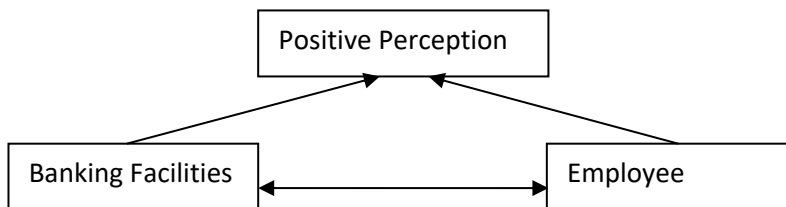
Figure 1: Service Quality and Perception Level in Retail Banking

To test our variables we construct the following hypotheses-

H1: Banking facilities are significantly related with perception on retail banking service.

H2: Employee courtesy has significant relationship with positive perception on retail banking service.

H3: Banking facilities and employee courtesy have positive correlation between them.

Method

This research has employed a quantitative research method. Since this is a primary data research, the data is obtained through questionnaire survey. Respondents were the bank customers of both countries New Zealand and Malaysia, approved from this research committee obtained from both countries. However, this research is fully based on a questionnaire survey to critically examine the banking service quality with an in-depth observation from the customer perspective. The structured questionnaire contains some open-ended questions and some close-ended questions as well. The questions were categorized and structured under the independent variables chosen and discussed in the literate review. On the other hand, by using 'Survey Monkey' webmaster tool, the overseas responds were also recorded to the system for New Zealand respondents. for this electronic interview, the website requires login for authentic user. However, the sampling frame for conducting the principal component analysis comprised 293 bank customers which were taken from different races comprising both male and female. Moreover, a 5-point Likert scale was used ranging from 'very dissatisfied' to 'very satisfied' was used.

Results

Descriptive Analysis of Demographic Profile

Descriptive statistics includes frequencies of the respondents from both country Malaysia and New Zealand. in our findings we use frequency, and we separated our variables into categorical variables and continuous variable for descriptive analysis. The categorical variables are gender, age, ethnicity, marital status academic qualification, employment, etc. From the Table 1, we can see the total respondents of 293 (100 percentage) from both countries of Malaysia and New Zealand consisting 178 (61.09 percentage) and 115 (38.91 percentage) respondents respectively. However, this Table 1 gives a clear picture about the demographic profile of the respondents.

Reliability Coefficient

Reliability coefficient tested by using Cronbach's alpha (α) analysis of 18 items on bank service quality. in accordance with the Cronbach alpha test, the total scale of reliability for this study varies from .90 to .98, indicating an overall higher reliability factors. The Cronbach alpha of this study is 0.927, which is substantial in every perspective, as the highest reliability value that can be achieved is 1.0.

Factor Analysis

The results obtained from 293 respondents have been thoroughly analyzed and the outputs of the results have been clearly explained in this section. Applying SPSS, the principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out to explore the underlying factors associated with 18 items of service quality. The constructs validity was tested applying Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy analyzing the strength of association among variables. Result for the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the KMO reveal that both were highly significant and eventually concluded that this variable was suitable for the factor analysis (Table 3).

However, all the factors extracted from the analysis along with their eigenvalues, the percent of variance attributable to each factor, and the cumulative variance of the factor. From this table it indicates that the first factor accounts for 37.408% of the variance and the second cumulative variance is 31.789% after rotation. It is obvious that, Factor 1 to 2 is significant because the factors that have latent roots or eigenvalues greater than 1 are considered as significant, and all factors that have eigenvalues less than 1 are considered insignificant and are ignored. All two components account for 69.197% of the total variance.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Factor analysis assumes that the covariance between a set of observed variables can be explained by a smaller number of underlying latent factors. Typically in our study a transformation method such as Varimax rotation was used to improve the interpretation result. in contrast the path diagram will be utilized that will represents a clear hypothesis about the factor structure. Models of this kind are called restricted or Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models.

Banking Facilities

From the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), we have retained 10 measuring items for Banking Facilities. We could retain all these items after conducting Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The default model fit indices of Banking Facilities were adequate. The examination of the modification indices revealed that the measurement errors were between e2 and e5, e7 and e8, e8 and e9, e9 and e10, as well as e7 and e9. The logical possibility for the correlation was allowed; therefore, these measurement errors were allowed to be related (Figure 2). in fact, the relative chi-square is also called the normed chi-square. This value equals the chi-square index divided by the degrees of freedom. This index might be less sensitive to sample size. The criterion for acceptance varies across researchers, ranging from less than 5 (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). However, after adding this parameter, the measurement model fit indices of price showed an adequate fit: $\chi^2/d.f.$ = 2.84 (χ^2=85.192, d.f=30); CFI=0.978 and RMSEA= 0.079.

Chi Square= 85.192
P= .000
df= 30
Normed Chi Square= 2.840
CFI= .978
RMSEA= .079
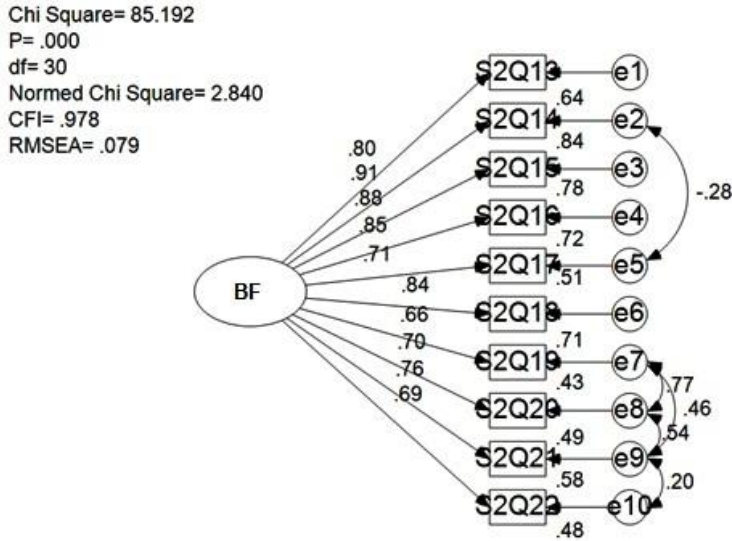
Figure 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Banking Facilities

Employee Courtesy

As like Banking Facilities, from the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), we have retained 8 measuring items for Employee Courtesy. However, it was retained after conducting Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) as usual. The default model fit indices of Employee Courtesy was very satisfactory. The examination of the modification indices revealed that the measurement error was only between e2 and e3 and that measurement error was allowed to be related (Figure 3). After adding this parameter, the measurement model fit indices of price showed an adequate fit: χ^2/d.f. = 2.91 (χ^2=55.362, d.f=19); CFI=0.980 and RMSEA= 0.081.

Chi Square= 55.362
P= .000
df= 19
Normed Chi Square= 2.914
CFI= .980
RMSEA= .081
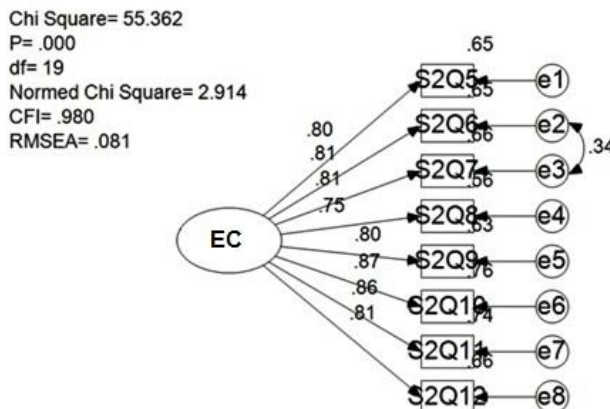
Figure 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Employee Courtesy

Perception on Retail Banking Service

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed to test the hypothesized model using AMOS 16. SEM is known as latent variable analysis or causal modeling as it provides parameter estimates of the direct and indirect links between

observed variables. in Figure 4, boxes represent manifest or measured variables, whereas circles indicate latent or unobserved variables. As shown in Figure 4, the model's exogenous variables (Banking Facilities, Employee Courtesy) were measured by X variable. There are ten indicators used for the construct of Banking Facilities; eight indicators used for the construct of Employee Courtesy. Similarly, the model's endogenous variables were measured by Y (Satisfaction of Retail Banking) variable. Eight indicators measured the construct of customer perception on service quality in retail banking.
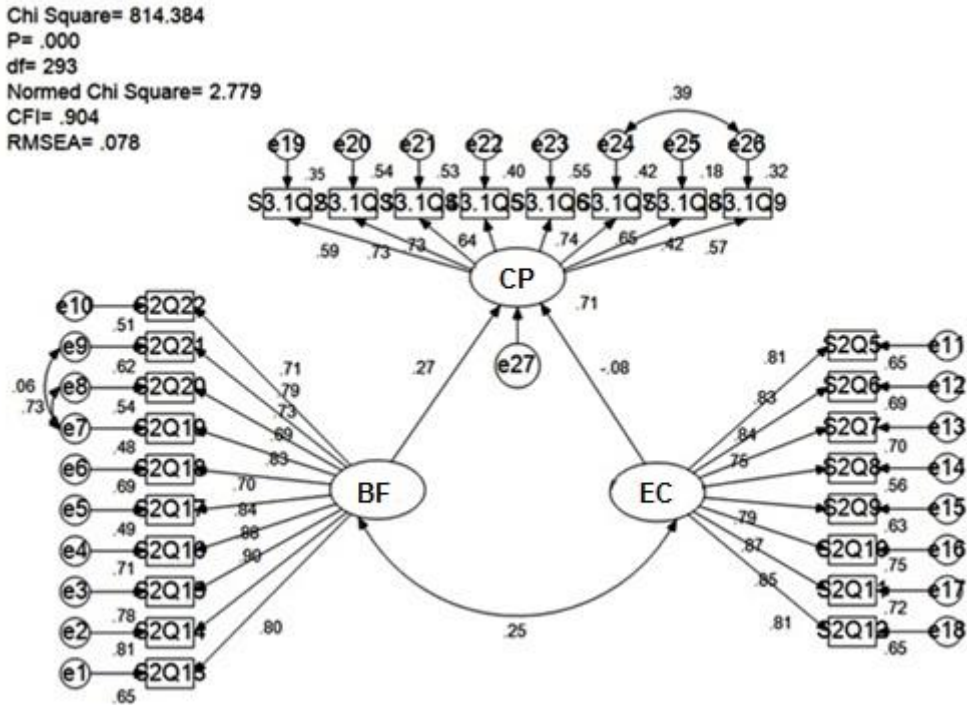
Figure 4: Structural Full Model of Consumer Perceptions on Service Quality in New Zealand and Malaysian Retail Banking

Statistical Significance of Parameter Estimates

The test statistic here is the critical ratio (C.R), which represents the parameter estimate divided by its standard error, as such, it operates as a z-statistic in testing that the estimate is statistically different from zero. Nonsignificant parameters, with the exception of error variances, can be considered unimportant to the model; in the interest of scientific parsimony, given an adequate sample size, they should be deleted from the model. On the other hand, it is important to note that nonsignificant parameters can be indicative of a sample size that is too small (Byrne, 2001).

Hypotheses Testing

The structural equation model was examined to test the relationship among constructs. Goodness-of-fit indicates for this model was: $\chi^2/d.f. = 2.78$ ($\chi^2=814.384$, d.f=293); CFI=0.904 and RMSEA= 0.078. Figure 4 depicts the full model. Of these two paths hypothesized in the model, one path was significant at $p < 0.05$ (H1). That means, banking facilities directly affects on consumer perception and satisfaction in retail banking. It is logical that customer satisfaction and positive perception of consumers are very much dependent on the banking facilities. More facilities and benefits are achieved; the satisfaction will grow on that specific bank. Our results also revealed that the second hypothesis of employee courtesy was not significant since at $p > 0.05$ (H2). Here the p-value is 0.212. in fact, from the Figure 4, we can see the relationship is -0.08 (minus 0.08), which indicates the minimal negative effect. Actually this negative relation is nearly neutral. However, it

can be said that there is no effect of employee courtesy on customer satisfaction of retail banking customers and consumers. It is perhaps because of the customers are not really concerned on employees' performance as far as they can get the proper facilities from their retail banks. Another reason can be the customers do not bother on behaviour and performance rather than service features. At the same way by observing to the Figure 4, we can conclude that Banking facilities and Employee Courtesy have positive correlation between them since the value is 0.25, which means the hypothesis three (H3) is also accepted like hypothesis one (H1). The Overall picture is captured in Table 5 bellow.

In addition, the customer satisfaction model fits the data very well (adjusted R^2 = 0.71). With one exception, all the explanatory variables were significant which suggests that, in retail banking, customer satisfaction is driven by a number of factors, including but not limited to, service quality dimensions.

Discussion

Service quality nowadays is taking a major part it academic research. The primary objective of this study was to identify the service quality in retail banking in both countries in Malaysia and New Zealand. in that sense, this is a combined research which shows the overall consumer perceptions on their banking activities. The analysis of the 18 items comprising various aspects of service quality and service features suggest that in retail banking. Features such as banking facilities and employee courtesy contributed to customer satisfaction and positive perception. The importance of these findings is that positive attitudes towards a retail bank are driven by service quality components, such as the employee-customer relationship, as well as other features and benefits of the service. The results also show that a service problem which is not resolved has a substantial impact on the customer's attitude towards the service provider. in this particular research, the overall results are primarily beneficial to academics and practitioners in Malaysia and New Zealand by offering an insight into the customer perception on service quality in banking industry all together. Therefore, the findings of this study will assist the banking industries or financial services company in what they can produce their services and how they want to promote their services as well. The findings will also assist banking industries and financial institutions' managers to provide their service more efficiently, making changes to crucial attributes that elicit the individual's perception about service quality in banking industries. for the researcher, this study contributes to existing body of knowledge by providing an investigation of customer perception on service quality in banking industry in Malaysia and New Zealand as well. Additionally, the findings of the study will be able to hold significant implications for the managers in the retail banking sectors in enhancing the service quality and customer satisfaction. The findings also reveals the most obvious implication considering banking service providers to further improve their services quality with greater efficiency and as a way to better compete in the current marketplace. With this, the major contribution of this study is identifying the features and dimensions of service quality in retail banking in both Malaysia and New Zealand context.

However, in this research, there are few limitations have been identified. The major constraint was perhaps limited variety of retail banks covered under this study. Besides, the knowledge of all respondents is not same in terms of banking industry; they may not be aware what is exactly happening behind the scene of the retail banks that they consume the service. On the other hand, the results from this study have come out only from Malaysia and New Zealand retail banking circumstances; therefore, this does not represent the overall banking perception as a whole. Obviously, the result may vary in terms of changing the locations. However, for the further study, the approach should incorporate constructs or items beyond service quality to capture the domain of factors that drive customers' positive perception. Also, the study provided insights and implications for managers in retail banks who want to improve customer satisfaction and consumers' perception on banking service.

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Tables

Table 1. Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Description	Malaysia Respondents (in percentage)	New Zealand Respondents (in percentage)	Total Respondents (in percentage)
Gender			
Male	36.86	24.23	61.09
Female	23.89	15.02	38.91
Total	60.75	39.25	100.00
Ethnicity			
Malay	36.86	0.00	36.86
Chinese	4.10	0.00	4.10
Indian	4.44	0.34	4.78
Others	15.36	38.91	54.27
Total	60.75	39.25	100.00
Marital Status			
Single	31.74	17.75	49.49
Married	28.33	19.11	47.44
Others	0.68	2.39	3.07
Total	60.75	39.25	100.00
Age			
20 or Bellow	0.34	4.44	4.78
21-25	18.09	9.90	27.99
26-30	18.77	8.53	27.30
31-35	10.92	5.80	16.72

36-40	5.46	3.07	8.53
41-45	3.75	3.07	6.83
46-50	1.71	2.39	4.10
50 and Above	1.71	2.05	3.75
Total	60.75	39.25	100.00
Academic qualification			
High school/diploma	1.02	3.07	4.10
College/university	52.56	35.15	87.71
Other	7.17	1.02	8.19
Total	60.75	39.25	100.00
Employment			
Public	7.17	8.87	16.04
Private	25.60	11.60	37.20
Self	3.75	1.02	4.78
Student	20.82	8.87	29.69
Student and part timer	1.37	6.48	7.85
Pensioner	0.34	0.68	1.02
Housewife	0.34	0.34	0.68
Other	1.37	1.37	2.73
Total	60.75	39.25	100.00

Table 2. Reliability Analysis for all Variables

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.927	.929	18

Table 3. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.930
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5400.388
	df	231
	Sig.	.000

Table 4. Standard Estimation of the Main Model

		Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Positive Perception of Retail Banking Service	←→ Banking Facilities	.234	.062	3.797	.000
Positive Perception of Retail Banking Service	←→ Employee Courtesy	-.092	.074	-1.249	212

Table 5. Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Hypothesis Statement	Decision
H1 ⟷	Banking facilities are significantly related with positive perception on retail banking service.	Accepted
H2 ⟷	Employee courtesy has significant relationship with positive perception on retail banking service.	Rejected
H3 ⟷	Banking facilities and Employee courtesy have positive correlation between them.	Accepted

Inter lingual influences of Turkish, Serbian and English dialect in spoken Gjakovar's language

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Abstract

In this paper we have tried to clarify the problems that are faced "gege dialect's" speakers in Gjakova who have presented more or less difficulties in acquiring the standard. Standard language is part of the people language, but increased to the norm according the scientific criteria. From this observation it comes obliviously understandable that standard variation and dialectal variant are inseparable and, as such, they represent a macro linguistic unity. As part of this macro linguistic unity and by sociolinguistic terms view, members of linguistic community speakers, through changes in phonemic and sub phonemic in toggle sounds, at the same time reflect on the regional and social affiliation background of the speaker. Gjakova is the city where fossils have remained as slang interlingual influences of Turkish language, Serbian language and after the war in Kosovo is very widespread of English slang. The methods we have used in the treatment of our case have been supported on the work and the survey, observation and interpretation. We tried to bring a clearer picture of speaking variation reports, in our case of Albanian speaking language, always when we deal with the extension of standard language in Gjakova town. The method of research and interpretation is the most predominant method in this survey, while an important place in the treatment of this topic is given to methods of surveying / questionnaire about the extent of the standard language in Gjakova town. We have done a comparison of standard Albanian language examination and other languages situations as well, which have a longer tradition of standard language, furthermore countries that have similar development situations with the Albanian standard language.

Keywords: Gege dialect's, Gjakova, Standard language, interlingual of turkish language, serbian language and english slang.

Introduction

The target study of this paper is today's Albanian language against involvement of unnecessary usage of foreign vocabulary items. This is not a new concern, but it is old as language itself and today has taken huge unnecessary dimensions without valuable reasons. Regarding this topic we have studied what was written until now, we have observed both two countries newspaper, designation of both Tirana's and Prishtina's public environments, all we have heard everyday in the radio, TV and daily conversations, if the number of unnecessary borrowed words (neologism) was added or reduced. This paper will treat the issues such as: What is current situation of Albanian language in our two countries; Why are so many foreign words included in our language; Which are the ways that induce this inclusion; What can we do to reduce this phenomenon.

Material and methods

In the last years it has been noticed a deformity of our language due to the large invasion of unnecessary foreign words and syntax and morphological construction unsuitable for Albanian language. We can certainty say that what we speak and hear is not Albanian language, but it is a beautiful language that once existed, mixed with range of words and elements of foreign languages. We speak with certainty about this mix, since a lot of people express their concern that they do not understand vocabulary items they do listen in the radio or TV, or they read in the newspapers and magazines.

Beside information tools such as radio, TV, newspapers and magazines, unnecessary foreign words have been included also in designation of public environments. It is sufficient to take a look the Tirana's streets, when only in one side of the street called ''Abdyl Frasheri'' from 54 environments, 36 of them are labeled using foreign language, 12 (twelve) of them are labeled in foreign and native language and only 6 (six) out of 54 (fifty-four) are labeled in native or Albanian language. The same problem stands for Prishtina too where the designation public environments in foreign language prevail. What is noticed is the designation of public environment where people receive the medical drugs by doctors. In Tirana and everywhere in Albania these places are called ''farmaci'', while in Prishtina and in Kosova generally are called ''barnatore'', while in Tirana was found only one place where the name "barnatore" was used accompanied with two other names ''farmaci'' written in Albanian and ''pharmacy'' written in English language.

Everywhere, in all places in Kosova and Albania, continuously you can hear the use of foreign words, respectfully the use of English language words, vainglorious that they are the only one that "speaks this kind of language". This phenomenon deals with their inferiority for English language knowledge, so they include foreign words inappropriately in Albanian language, or simply this is a consequence of globalization that is affecting all languages worldwide except English-speakers!

We know that the Albanians for centuries have tried to eliminate foreign expressions from already known historically rulers, with special dedication in the interest of purity of Albanian language from cross-linguistic influence. It grew more and more vigorously during Albanian National Renaissance and it can be surely said that is always current and continues to be even today, because native language deserves constant attention.

The use or substitution of new word in target language can affect in three ways[1]:

1. The meaning of new word could be confusing with the meaning that existed earlier in the certain language.
2. The word that existed earlier in the certain language can disappear.
3. New and old word can survive but each with special meaning.

Another problem is orthography of foreign words, since we find them written as are written in the language where these words came from, but phonetically are not appropriate, for example floppy, boss, advocacy, web, window, mouse, etcetera.

In case of non inflectional proper nouns as foreign language impact which is known regarding to Albanian language grammatical structure that it does not occur as a result of foreign language impact. For example, words: ''Watson'', ''Jeopardy'', ''Galaxy'' (''Koha ditore'' January 16th '11, pg.20), ''Jimmy Cartes'', or title (in the same place), ''Miqtë e kujtojnë me humor Holbrooken'', following other politicians names ''Hilary Clinton'', or ''Blair ngulmonte për ndërhyrje tokësore në Kosovë'', ''…Ambasadori I SHBA-së në Prishtinë Christofer Dell'', ''Intervistë me Pieter Feith'', etc.

In Albanian language there are also cases of foreign words borrowing, even though those words exist in Albanian language with the same meaning, e.g. " U caktua bordi këshillues", " Ishte një njeri mjaft i ndjeshëm dhe mjaft sensibël", " Ishte një tentativë për orvajtje...", " U implementua dhe u zbatua plani tre mujor", " Prioritet me përparësi kishin minoritetet në Kosovë...", etc.

There are also borrowed foreign words which posses' suffix –**ment,** that are introduced into grammatical aspect, for example. ''Apartament'', ''Departament'', " Statement= steitmenti'', etc.

Borrowed foreign words with prefix **post**-, which in Albanian can be used the word pas-, e.g. "U mbajt fjala post-mortum për ...", " Studimet postuniversitare...". We have prefix- *super*, e.g. " Superman", " Superfamilje", etc.

Borrowed words that deals with *bi*, e.g. " Bilateral", "Biseksual", " Bipartiak", etc.

There are also borrowed words from compounds, and there are three types:

1. Compounds elements can be borrowed as for example: "Spiderman", " Autostop",   " Autostradë", etc.
2. Compounds elements taken from foreign language that can be substitute in Albanian language, e.g. No problem" (S'ka problem), "OK" (mirë), etc.
3. Elements can be transferred to the recipient language, while others substituted.

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[1] Uanrah Juriel "Interferenca leksikore", Ndikime Ndërgjuhësore përgatitur nga Vesel Nuhiu, Rilindja, Prishtinë, 1990, fq.74-79.

There are morph-syntactic errors or mistakes, using prefix-*për*: për momentin, which is taken from English pattern *for the moment*, while we have ours expressions as : hë për hë, tani pë tani , etc. are. Another English expression is used on Economic field, e.g. *Dola për shoping* (Dola për të blerë), *A do ta paguash me **para kesh**? (A do të paguash me **para në dorë**). Than we have English adverb **full**, that is usually used by young people: *Ishte kafiqi full* (Ishte lokali i mbushur plot). In this sentence we notice word ''**kafiqi**'' borrowed word from Serbian in Kosova, whereas in Albania people use word ''***Lokali** ishte full*''.

Always, we consider the establishment of linguistic culture, social and historical. We should be aware that due to modern technology development, a lot of foreign words are included in our daily vocabulary talk, since so far we have not made any discovery so we could named it in Albanian language.

Thinking how could our language look like in the future, considering the current rhythm of unnecessary borrowings of foreign words and if we do not give our full efforts to protect it, then we should be prepared for the worse, which is losing it.

Then questions arise: why must we feel uncertain in what we understand from the readings and what we listen in Albanian language? Being Albanian and living in our country, why should we learn several foreign languages to achieve an accurate communication with our fellow-nations?

However, about enrichment and purity of standard Albanian language or spoken language in Kosova and Albania, we must consider the scientific carefulness. It means, that in cases when it is possible to avoid the usage of foreign borrowed words that do not have special or important function, we should follow this criteria. And vice versa, if there is no appropriate Albanian word we notice better attitude for foreign language words. Below we will present several methods how to prevent this phenomenon.

We may use media as a tool to bring information of how should we speak and write our native language accurately, purely, clearly and beautifully.   This can be accomplished by transmitting a radio or television show for daily and essential language issues in order to preserve the language as best we can and to adapt it with nowadays requirements in a proper way without deforming it.

Also, the respective papers can dedicate a special article considering this issue once a week, where linguists can write about the best ways of Albanian language usage, provide orthographic rules and specify the borrowed foreign words that we speak and hear and their substitutions.

There can be organized trainings for the teachers who teach Albanian language in high schools, pre-university education, since they are the first and main persons who provide accurate knowledge in Albanian language as school subject.

A special attention should be given to the translators and the books they translate. The translator should not have only the best knowledge on the foreign language, the language that the book is written and needs to be translated, but he/she should have the best knowledge of Albanian language, enriched lexicon, knowledge on morphologic and syntactic construction, on phraseology and best knowledge on orthographic rules.

To different private subjects, before they receive a license to start an activity, should be strongly require the use of pure Albanian language for naming of their activity.

It is important and necessary establishment of state institution who will protect the language and take penalty measurements to those who do not use the language according the certain rules.

Today we live in a free world where each has the right to express their opinion, but no one has the right to deform the language, a wealth that belongs to all, only because that person has a public position whose words are to be listen by a great number of people and uses them (the foreign words) only because he assumes they are trendy.

It is true that Albanian language needs to be enriched with new words, but these words should not be taken misguidedly as one wishes, but should be very careful and see if these words are really enriching our vocabulary. More than ever, today the society is absorbed by the globalization therefore we need to give our best and work to protect and enrich our language and prevent its assimilation. So we need to take foreign words to fill the gaps present in our native language by always adapting conform the language structure and avoid reception of foreign words which already exist in Albanian language.

It is very important to work together since we all have the same purpose, to retain and protect standard Albanian language from unnecessary foreign words, syntactic and morphologic construction inappropriate for our language.

We should all use inexhaustible sources of words found demotic language and through a stone in our ancient and beautiful castle of Albanian language, by enriching it and adapting it conform today's requirements.

Results

Based on this study we confirm that there is a huge dimension of unnecessary borrowings of foreign words in both our countries, Kosova and Albania, and the ways these words enter in our vocabulary are through media, incorrect translations, the will of Albanian speakers to include foreign words in their daily communication with each other, often without knowing accurate meaning of the used word. This desire for foreign language unfortunately is reflecting in all fields, such as: vocabulary (lexicon), morphology, syntax.

As we may notice, these formation belong more or less to informal language incorporated to formal language, which we have heard and read in our media which unfortunately are deforming the foundation of Albanian language, as the writer Amosz Osz, states " *gjuha e kontaminuar e ka fuqinë shumë herë më të madhe se bomba bërthamore, sepse helmon disa breza*".

Discussion

It is true that Albanian language needs to use new words, but these words should not selected as one desires, but we need to be more careful and pay full attention to estimate if these words enrich or damage our language.   It is true that Albanian language needs to be enriched with new words, but these words should not be taken misguidedly as someone may wish, but we should be very careful and see if these words are really enriching or damaging our vocabulary. More than ever, today the society is absorbed by the globalization therefore we need to give our best and work to protect and enrich our language and prevent its assimilation. So we need to take foreign words to fill the gaps present in our native language by always adapting conform the language structure and avoid reception of foreign words which already exist in Albanian language.

It is very important to work together since we all have the same purpose, to retain and protect standard Albanian language from unnecessary foreign words, syntactic and morphologic construction inappropriate for our language.

We should all use inexhaustible sources of words found demotic language and through a stone in our ancient and beautiful castle of Albanian language, by enriching it and adapting it conform today's requirements.

Conclusion

Based on what we have studied we can conclude that it is very important to work together for the same purpose, to retain and protect standard Albanian language from unnecessary foreign words, syntactic and morphologic construction inappropriate for our language.

We should all use inexhaustible sources of words found demotic language and through a stone in our ancient and beautiful castle of Albanian language, by enriching it and adapting it conform today's requirements.

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Young graduates are looking for jobs! Between education and the labor market

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Abstract

The social inclusion on the labor market of a young graduate marks a decisive step in the process of transition to adulthood. Theoretically, completing a higher education level should increase the employment chances of a young person who has just entered within the labor market. in this regard, the paper aims to describe the situation of the young graduates in Romania, concerning: the extent to which education increases the chances of accessing the labor market, what statistics tell us about the situation of the youth in Romania and where do we stand at the European level, and also how the labor market inequalities are reproduced. From a broader view, this paper points out also the main challenges that youth face on the labor market, such as: the un\employment and the precarious jobs, the spreading of the underemployment and the lack of jobs, the educational patterns and labor market changes, these are some topics that will be discussed. [1]

Keywords*: young graduates, higher education, unemployment, labor market, underemployment.*

Introduction: looking for the right job?

Within an ideal society, the transition from adolescence to adulthood is considered a normal and predictitibil route of life, which is carried on with the transition from school towards labor market. The outcome of the educational system can be measured by the capacity of a young graduate to develop himself professionally, meaning finding a job. However, the success of the educational process involves finding the right job, which gives the young the opportunity to achieve a desirable level of welfare for society. in this way, it becomes both a promoter of social change but also one of the reproduction of society. The operationalization of the concept "right job" refers to occupying a job according to the professional training (qualification, specialization), educational attainment (the last form of education and training) and professional experience (work experience). But in the context of increasing level education, being young graduate on the labor market nowadays, is not easy because of the slow economic recovery in 2012 and 2013 that caused a crisis of jobs.This reality has increased the competitiveness of labor, newly educated youth being forced to share fewer available jobs, but the same jobs for the employees with more experience than them. Thus we are facing a growing demand of jobs under the conditions of a more accentuated decrease labor supply. But discouraging youth on the labor market occurs from the insecurity and precarious jobs, too. Youth opportunities are limited: they are less selective, forced to accept jobs with low wages, under their level of training or give up looking for the right job. Therefore underemployment and unemployment are both key elements that characterize the labor market evolution and quality among the young people. The extension of the jobs crisis trend is globally reflected, the ILO report "Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013" considers the current generation of youth "a generation at risk" which is forced„ to be less selective about the type of job they are prepared to accept, a tendency that was already evident before the crisis. Increasing numbers of youth are now turning to available part-time jobs or find themselves stuck in temporary employment." (ILO, 2013, p. 1). Another barrier that influence youth employability refers to the ability of higher education to provide appropriate skills. Structural changes in the labor market are a result of the mutual determination between occupational structure (supply and demand of labor, unemployment and underemployment, etc.) and the capacity of education to create opportunities for graduates on the labor market in terms of specialization and determining employability according to the qualification obtained. On the modern labor market, the option for higher education has become increasingly common and according to Beck is also a personal and an economic survival strategy because "the employment contexts are increasingly differentiated and with increased competition for jobs (Furlong & Cartmel, 2007). Segregation of the professional trajectories of young people in the light of transition from college to work

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started to individualize and differentiate increasingly more, making it more difficult to analyze the trends in the field of youth employment.

Summarizing it can be accepted the following hypothesis: the level of education determines the chances of accessing the labor market but it doesn't determine directly finding the right job, according to the level of education attained.

Massification of higher education or mismatched skills?

The success of a young higher education graduate on the labor market is a broad discussed topic both by policies and research studies aimed to describe the evolution of higher education and the labor market employability of graduates (Teichler, 2008). Both issues are complex and interrelated processes, their dynamics being very hard to identify. After more than 10 years, the Ministry of Youth and Sport launched the "National Strategy for Youth Policy 2014-2020". This defines the areas of intervention and establishes the target groups of youth policy. To enable a comparison at an European level, youth population is divided into age groups between 14-35 years (14/15-19, 20-24, 25-29 and 30-34/35). for the field of "work and entrepreneurship", the strategy provides the following types of intervention: "unemployed and long term unemployed young people, youth caught up in forms of self-employment subsistence, youth who are neither employed nor enrolled in education or training forms (NEETs), youth involuntarily employed in temporary or part-time employment forms, youth workers with low wages and very low-income, young people engaged in informal employment forms, overqualified or underqualified youth."(MTS, 2013, p.9). The evaluation of the national higher education system has been the subject of some studies undertaken by stakeholders concerned about the amplitude of the phenomenon. in terms of institutional assessment, a functional analysis on higher education about "improving education and training is essential not only to fulfill the two goals of the EU2020 directly related to education (increasing the enrollment in higher education and reducing early school leavers)" but also for quality assurance. (World Bank, 2011). Here are analyzed the changes produced by Bologna system and the impact of tertiary education. Regarding the relationship between work and education, between 2005-2010 it was conducted a pilot study at national level: "Monitoring labor market insertion of graduates from public and private institutions of higher education: Graduates and Labor Market (APM)" (UEFISCDI, 2010, p.4). This is the first national project, which aimed the connection between studies and graduated young professional activity in order to increase institutional capacity for monitoring them. Also, it followed university graduates careers in order to a better match between study supply and employers requirements. The increasing "inflation of diplomas" represents one of the effects produced by "massification of higher education". However, the World Bank report, notes that "the analysis of registrations and the number of graduates is in fact the analysis of the number of certificates issued, not of the abilities and skills produced by this sector" (World Bank, 2011, p 28). However, achieving a qualification requires a formal recognition of the professional skills in a specific area. in other words qualification involves acquiring a specialization and its certification by diplomas. A study focused on the evolution of Romanian university qualifications makes an interesting analysis on the variation between the evolution of the number of students and types of specialization. The extension of the higher education system took place in Romania after 2000 and by the end of 2008 the number of students almost doubled. Private education and introduction of distance learning forms have influenced this growth and have led to an interdependent changes between occupational structure and educational system. (Sora, 2011). From the individual perspective (graduates) in terms of quality of training acquired during the years of professional training, a special focus is placed on the area of specialization, career choice motivation, specific skills, expectations, opportunities (Voicu, Tufiş, & Voicu, 2010). The survey also says which are the most popular specializations on the labor market and makes an interesting analysis on the programs of study, topic which lead to three types of employment: according to the graduated specialization (sciences, engineering and veterinary medicine) in related fields (social and human sciences, economics) and in different areas. Thus specialization is an important criteria for the professional career and can determine a young graduate employability on the labor market. The importance of specialization as a measure of higher education quality is the ability of the followed study area in order to provide useful skills in the labor market.

Young graduate on the labor market: being unemployed or being underemployed?

Acquiring new social roles such as adulthood can be a difficult transition step, first of all because of the problems raised by youth age and because of their limited experience in the labor market: their social adaptation need by experimenting those new social roles along with the constantly desire of social learning and changing. Secondly because of the unpredictability and competitiveness on the labor market. To create an efficient human resource, the society invests in the human and social capital of youth in order to create them opportunities for accessing the labor market. It also ensures a 'grace' period through the time needed with their professional education and training. However the effort of the society may be inoperable

in uncontrolled economic conditions and unpredictable labor market context. Thus special mechanisms are required to enhance institutional capacity on the labor market insertion of young people by creating new jobs. As a result of the technological progress, labor market dynamics develops a fast pace that puts pressure on the continuous training of the workforce but also increases the complexity of the work. Social change affects the occupational structure of the labor content and the professions specificity, which may cause serious changes to macro level. Thus occupational structure changes of the labor market are just a passing trend or it reflects the real market need? Why is there a higher demand than supply of jobs in certain activity fields? On one hand it relates to structural changes in the labor market and on the other with labor supply and demand processes which are similar to those of the market for goods and services. Labor market as a subsidiary economic market is running under the economical market. Hence the free market processes should be enriched with structural mechanisms to facilitate the transition of young people from school to work. It requires coordinated action between state, employers and education system, in order to increase investment in youth's social capital and to prevent the development of youth vulnerable categories. in this way those who are not admitted at universities won't experience marginalization by being permanently discouraged. (Petersen, A. C. & Mortimer, 1994). An interesting study about the situation in Romania, which analyzes the ratio of monthly averages of unemployed graduates and the available jobs, shows that during the economic crisis "job offer was extremely low compared to the request from the graduates. The job offer for graduates decreased significantly (by 47.6% during the crisis) as well as the number of economic participants (32.9%). Total demand of jobs increased by 8.7% while the request from the graduates was higher in 2010 with 2089 units compared to 2008. If the evolutionary trends of supply and demand of jobs for graduates were opposed in 2009 it is observable that the stock of graduates that remained without jobs was very high. "(Mocanu, 2012).

According to European and national policies, one of the major objectives is combating unemployment and increasing labor market insertion among young people, concomitantly with achieving the assumed European target, regarding the educational level of population. Actually, the social inclusion of graduates on the labor market requires a complex and a special social protection policies, the lack of data, directly from the source, being replaced by secondary analysis of data from the Household Labor Force Survey of the National Institute of Statistics, data from Eurostat and other national surveys.

However, in Romania, even if the educational level of the population increased, the share of occupancy decreased while increasing the unemployment rate[1]. This trend is also reflected among young population. The employment rate in Romania shows that young people aged between 30-34 years are the closest to the European level and they can be considered the age group that raises the fewest social problems in the labor market (the fourth quarter of 2013-76%), while all the other age groups of youth, have been placed below the EU-28 values: in the same analyzed period young people within 15-19 years recorded the lowest employment rate - 7.5% and they are considered to be the most vulnerable category and also they have an increased risk of becoming NEETs (Lunsing, 2007). About 1 out of 3 young Romanians, aged between 20 and 24 years occupies a job. The employment rate for those aged between 25-29 years old, in 2013 decreased (2000/75% 2007/70 % 2012/68% and the fourth quarter of 2013/66%) but comparing with the previous two age groups, things are a little better. Youth unemployment is a phenomenon that provides reasons of concerns for the age group of 15-24 years (fourth quarter of 2013-33%). Even if the unemployment rate decreases for the next category, underemployment represents a current problem for those aged between 20-24 and also for 25-29 years (22.5 % and 12%), with high education (ISCED 5-6). From this perspective, higher education graduates represent a vulnerable group (Preoteasa, 2013). in this context, the main challenges that young people face in the labor market are: the unemployment and the precarious jobs, the spreading of the underemployment and the lack of jobs, the educational patterns and labor market changes. A feature of this category is the one that takes into account the specificity of occupations as well as the specialization. Young employees with higher education often occupy jobs under their educational level being in disagreement with their professional education and training. The phenomenon of underemployment in terms of qualification and quality of employment is found among vulnerable groups who present an increased social risk or who are in vulnerable situations on the labor market. (Zamfir, Stănescu, & Briciu, 2010). Two categories are taken into account:

Recent graduates (high school or college).

Discriminated persons such as:

- Ethnic minorities

- Roma population

- People with disabilities

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1 National Institute of Statistics (INS), Household Labor Force Survey (AMIGO) - employment rate by age and gender: www.insse.ro

- Immigrants

- Women

- People who have been institutionalized, etc.

The underemployment refers to an inadequate employment situation which involves an employee and it is characterized by 3 specific circumstances: 1. Over qualification or overeducation 2. Involuntary part-time work 3. Overstaffing or labor hoarding. (Bolino & Feldman, 2000). "Overqualification or overeducation" refers to the specificity of qualifications that characterizes both training and experience level. These concepts describe the workforce with tertiary training (higher education, higher skills) and / or with a high level work experience engaged for some reasons in jobs that do not require such training or experience level. The quality of employment and the qualification of human resources call into question a better correlation of the skills provided by higher education on the labor market. The ILO report regarding to trends of youth employment in 2013 shows that "results suggest that two of the macro-level factors cause a sizeable part of skills mismatch development over time. A higher share of tertiary graduates increases the incidence of overeducation and decreases the incidence of undereducation. It appears that an increase in the number of tertiary graduates creates stronger competition and therefore increases the chances of overeducation." (ILO, 2013, p. 34). Thus, the mismatch between graduated specializations and market fields creates a stock of inadequate skills. Within the context of jobs crisis, generated by a too large request comparing with the available labor supply, it have been identified a number of risks at which the youth graduates are exposed on the labor market:

Individual risks:

- Precarious employment

- Skills alteration

- "Out-of-date" qualifications

- Low living standards

- Low wage

- Extending the period of financial dependency on parents

Social risks

- Long term underemployment / unemployment

- Inflation of graduates / field of study / specialization

- Jobs crisis.

- Affecting economic system (dysfunctional economy)

- Increasing dependency rate

- Demographic changes: the declining birth rate, nuptiality, number of marriages etc.

- Degradation of the population health

- Changes in family patterns

- Changes in youth's consumption behavior

- Poverty

- Social exclusion and marginalization

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Prospective Science Teachers' Self-Assessments about the Use of Slowmation Approach in Teaching

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Abstract

In the concept of this study, science teacher candidates prepared some animations regarding biology topics by using slow-motion technique. Following this process of animation making, how teacher candidates see extend of contribution of the process on education is examined. This study is carried out with 49 teacher candidates, who were taking general biology course in the spring semester of 2013-2014 academic years. The data of the research is collected by 8-item five point Likert-type slow-motion survey forms and semi-structured interview questions, developed by the researchers. As a result of the study, the teacher candidates reported that the slow-motion technique is an informative technique, which is instructive, useful, developing their creativity, enjoyable and stimulating to the course. As a result of the interviews made with teacher candidates, it is revealed that they are quite willing to use this technique in their professional lives as a teaching approach, which contribute to their learning skills, thus they want to implement this technique to their students as well.

Keywords: slow-motion, teacher candidate, teaching technique, self-assessment

Introduction

Using technology that is readily accessible can sometimes be a catalyst for such engagement, especially if the tools help pre-service teachers to represent their knowledge in innovative ways (Kim & Reeves, 2007; Lee, Linn, Varma, & Liu, 2010). With the rapid advancement in personal digital technologies, it is becoming easier for students such as pre-service teachers to design media products such as animations and videos, which may be a way to support their conceptual understanding of science concepts that are typical in the primary school curriculum (Hoban & Nielsen, 2012). in several studies involving animations made by experts to assist students in learning science concepts have produced mixed results. Some studies have shown that watching animations to explain science concepts has improved the knowledge of high school and college students (Marbach-Ad, Rotbain, & Stavy, 2008; Williamson & Abraham, 1995). But in some studies, contrarily, it has been found that there has been little improvement in learning when students watch animations explaining science concepts (Sanger & Greenbowe, 2000; Yang, Andre, Greenbowe, & Tibell, 2003). According to Chan and Black (2005), animations could provide a motivation for engaging with content if learners become the designers and creators rather than consumers of information as in expert generated animations. Although this possibility of motivation for engaging with the content, designing and creating students' own animations have been limited because, this process requires time and sophisticated software and the process is too complex (Hoban & Nielsen, 2012).

Slowmations

Slow Motion Animation (abbreviated to "Slowmation") is a new teaching approach that has been developed over the last decade in science education classes at the University of Wollongong. This approach simplifies the complex process of making animations to enable learners to create their own comprehensive animations about science concepts (Hoban, 2005, 2007, 2009; Hoban & Ferry, 2006). Slowmation technic is similar to clay animation and in this approach, students make research, storyboard, design models, capture digital still images of small manual movements of the models. After these, they use a computer software to play the images in a sequence to simulate movement.

Making a movie using a traditional stop-motion animation technique is feasible, because the creator who manually moves the objects while taking each digital still photograph, thus eliminates the need for complex mechanisms to provide movement. Having pre-service teachers take digital still photos one by one, instead of a continuous 25–30 frames per

second as in video, also allows them to check, manipulate, think about, discuss and reconfigure the models with each movement and photograph (Hoban & Nielsen, 2011).

Pre-service teachers can learn the process at the beginning of a course period and can prepare their models made out of daily routine materials such as plasticine, paper, and existing plastic models. If the materials are ready and available, in the course period, they can continue and take digital photos as the models are moved manually. The creation process integrates features of clay animation, object animation and digital storytelling and involves the pre-service teachers in designing and a sequence of representations (Hoban and Nielsen, 2010); (a) research notes, (b) storyboard, (c) models, (d) digital photographs and (e) narrated animation.

In summary, slowmation greatly simplifies the process of creating a stop-motion animation by enabling pre-service teachers to (i) make or use existing 2-D or 3-D models that may lie flat on a table or the floor; (ii) play the animation slowly at 2 frames per second requiring 10 times fewer photos than required in normal animation and (iii) use widely available technology such as a digital still camera, a tripod and free movie-making computer software (Hoban & Nielsen, 2012). McKnight, Hoban and Nielsen (2011), have explained that a slowmation displays the following features:

• Purpose - the goal of a slowmation is for pre-service teachers to make use of 1-2 minute animated mini-movie to tell a story, and through the creation process, learn about the story's meaning. The design of the slowmation can include a range of technological enhancements such as narration, music, other photos, diagrams, models, labels, questions, static images, repetitions and characters.

• Timing - slowmations are usually played slowly at 2 frames/second, not the usual animation speed of 20-24 frames/second, and thus need ten times fewer photos than in clay or computer animation, hence the name "Slow Animation" or "Slowmation";

• Orientation - models are made in 3D and/or 2D and usually manipulated in the horizontal plane (on the floor or on a table) and photographed by a digital still camera mounted on a tripod looking down or across at the model. This makes the models easier to make, move and photograph;

• Materials - because models do not have to stand up, many different materials can be used such as soft play dough, plasticine, 2D pictures, drawings, written text, existing 3D models, felt, cardboard cut-outs and natural materials such as leaves, rocks or fruit; and,

• Technology – pre-service teachers use their own digital still cameras (with photo quality set on low resolution so as to avoid overloading the editing software) or cameras in mobile phones and free movie-making software available on their computers (e.g. iMovie or SAM Animation on a Mac or Windows Movie Maker on a PC)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to put forward the self-assessments of prospective science teachers about slowmation approach when it is used in science teaching (or learning).

Method

Participants

The sample included 49 prospective science teacher in Turkey between the ages of 20-27 of which %79,6 were women (n = 39), and 20,4% were men (n = 10). The mean age was 21,55.

Materials

In this study, a semi-structured interview form was developed and used to investigate pre-service teachers wievs about using slowmations in teaching science. They have already prepared animations related to some biology topics before interviews. The purpose and content of the interview was to put forward their point of view.

Animation Evaluation Form: Pre-service teachers were asked an evaluation to use slowmation preparation approach in teaching science by animation evaluaton form developed by researchers. The form contained 8 items required five ratings.

Results

The main aim of this study was to evaluate the wievs of pre-service science teachers about slowmation approach as a teaching method. According to results derived from animation evaluation form, 72% of pre-service teachers think that this approach helpful in understanding the content. 77% of them think that slowmation preparation process was enjoyable and 89% of them think that this process was encouraging. 75% of pre-service tachers found this process as informative and 83,4% of them found as helpful in learning.79,2% of pre-service teachers think that this process was instructive and 87,4% of them stated that slowmation preparation process increases the creativity. Nearly all of the participants think that the courses with slowmations will be better than the courses with traditional methods.

In the interviews, participants were asked advantages and disadvantages of using slowmations in teaching science. The responses were summarised in the table below (Table 1). According to results summarized in table 1, participants chiefly emphasized that slowmations provided better and amused learning as advantages. Furthermore, they stated that the approaches facilitated learning and increased creativity. According them, slowmation preparation process provides permanent learning, increases cooperation awareness and technological ability. Furthermore they stated that slowmation increases self-confidence and attendance to lesson.

When disadvantages were asked to the participants, they stated that slowmation requires more time and the process is troublesome. Considering slowmation as waste of time and requiring technological ability are other disadvantages according to pre-service science teachers. Participants stated that slowmation preparation process may be distractive. Some of participants stated that there is not any disadvantages of slowmation preparation process or approaches in teaching science.

Discussion

According to results, participants considers slowmation approach helpful in understanding science, enjoyable, encouraging, informative, helpful in learning, instructive. According them the process increases creativity. They stated that slowmations provide better and amused or enjoable learning experience and facilitate learning. Furthermore, participants state that the slowmation increase creativity, cooperation, technological ability, self-confidence, attendance to lesson of/for learners. They are advantages of slowmation approach as a teaching learning strategy.

Accorting the pre-service teachers there are also disadvantages of use slowmations. Disadvantages of using slowmation in teaching science are requiring more time, being troublesome, considering as waste of time, tequiring technological ability and other technological requirements such as computers, camera, software.

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Tables

Table 1. Advantages and disadvantages of slowmation approaches in teaching science

Advantages	f	Disadvantages	f
Provides better learning	42	Requiring more time	22
Provides amused learning	33	The process is troublesome	19
Facilitates learning	29	Considered as waste of time	16
Increases creativity	15	Requires technological ability	11
Provides permanent learning	12	Causes conflict within the group	7
Increases cooperation	10	Distraction	5
Increases technological ability	9	Technological requirements	4
Increases self-confidence	6	Being not easy	2
Increase attendance to lesson	4	Occurs misconception	2
Motivates to learning	3	There is no any disadvantage	6
Improves observation skill	3		
Provides contact between science and daily life	3		
Students learn to make a research	2		
Improves motor skills	2		
Provides visuality	2		

FUNCTIONAL LITERACY AND TEXT CREATION

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Abstract

The results of research about functional literacy (i.e. ability to read, understand and create text and understand its further use), and especially those results that 15-year-olds show in Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), as well as the importance of this competence for life and work in a modern society, indicate the need for analysis of all the segments that affect its development and improvement. Project How to help students to successfully create oral and written, artistic and non-artistic texts addresses this area in particular. The culture of oral and written expression, as productive language skills, is very interesting to research, and especially to improve. Inseparable from the receptive skills of listening and reading, they are their explicit product. A significant number of theorists and methodologists dealt with this area, but their activity was usually focused on what the teacher needed to do for the students to write well (focused on the process, method, or the result: students' written work). What is unquestionably lacking, but is in the spirit of the changes that we have introduced in our educational system, is dealing with the student as a creator of the text. The observations of methodologists of language and literature teaching prove that this factor in teacher-student-written work conjunction was least dealt with. They point out that the main characteristic of the current literature on the written expression is exaggerated orientation towards written works and neglecting of their authors (creators). The aim of the project was to investigate and recommend the best ways in which to build a functional literacy in the area of successful creation of oral and written text, i.e. to propose a more efficient teaching in the field of oral and written expression. This paper analyzes the opportunities for the development of these areas, providing current educational programs for Mother tongue language and literature in Montenegro, and presents the methodical approach The Creator`s path designed as a means of support for all students when creation of text is in question.

Key words: functional literacy, text creation, oral and written expression, efficient teaching.

Introduction

In modern society, literacy is a basic requirement for life, work and progress. Literacy makes us safer, able to be active citizens and critically observe the reality. Only functionally literate individual can be critical when accepting different types of texts he meets daily in a variety of media, and protect himself from negative media messages. Functionally illiterate person is easily manipulated, and, unfortunately, literacy can be seen as a tool of power and oppression that legitimizes opinion, the rights and laws of the dominant group, i.e. as a means to create an opinion. Numerous declarations on Human Rights emphasize that literacy is a basic human right, implicit in the right to education; that it does not end in itself and as such, in a broader sense includes the knowledge and skills we all need in this world of rapid change (Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948, The Declaration of Persepolis, 1975, Hamburg Declaration, 1997).

In history, understanding of literacy has significantly changed, as well as the role of literacy in the lives of individuals. in the beginning, literacy was defined as mastering the skills of reading and writing letters and words, i.e. skills of decoding. Later it was defined as a person's ability to read with understanding and write a short, simple text on everyday life (UNESCO, 1951). in sixties and seventies a literate person is someone who has acquired the basic knowledge and skills that allow him to fully participate in all activities, which for efficient functioning in group and in society require literacy and achievements in reading, writing and arithmetics allow him to use these skills in order to engage in self development and development of community.

In modern circumstances, literacy is understood as a set of knowledge, skills and strategies which individuals build in life through interaction with their peers and the wider community. Cognitively based theories of reading literacy emphasize the interactive nature of reading and the constructive nature of understanding in printed media (Binkley & Lynnakyla 1997; Bruner, 1990, Dole, Duffy, Roehler & Pearson, 1991) and to an even greater extent in the electronic media (Fastrez 2001, Legros & Crinone, 2002, Leu 2007; Reinking, 1994). The reader generates meaning as a response to text using prior knowledge and level of text and situations that are often socially and culturally conditioned.

The PISA project developed the following definition of reading literacy: understanding, using, and reflecting on written texts, in order to achieve one's goals, to develop one's knowledge and potential, and to participate in society. (Kirsh et al, 2002; OECD, 2010). This definition of literacy makes it obvious that the reading is not viewed as a unitary skill; rather, it is part of the process, approaches and skills that vary depending on the reader, text type, as well as on the aim or a situation in which the reading happens (Campbell et al, 2001).

Cognitive understandings that emphasize the interactive nature of the reading process and constructivist, creative nature of the process of understanding, are the concept of Reading Literacy on which the PISA project is based. The meaning of the text is constructed in reader-text interaction, and what the reader brings in that interaction are the cognitive and metacognitive strategies of text processing. Also important are the previous knowledge and experience gained in reading situations (eg, use of textual and situational incentives). Text contains certain linguistic and structural elements, and refers to a particular topic, while the context conditions the aim of reading and, through this aim, the processes of reading that are appropriate both for the aim and the text.

Professional literature (domestic and foreign) states several types of functional literacy, depending on the perspective taken, i.e. what is taken as a basis of classification: literacy of school youngsters and adult literacy, reading literacy, lexical literacy, media literacy, computer literacy, science, research, IT literacy and so on.

Literacy in the modern society is a process; the preservation and development of literacy lasts through a lifetime - social changes always bring new and different demands for literacy. The level and quality of one's literacy are affected by innate and acquired abilities, different skills s/he owns, environment, way of acquiring and developing these skills through the educational system, the level of economic, technological and cultural development of society and the like.

It is known that, after the children acquire basic literacy, the first condition of preserving and improving their own literacy is to continually read - develop and improve reading skills. Development of reading skills is not a task for only the initial teaching of reading, but a skill that requires special effort and investment by both teachers and students throughout the schooling. Reading becomes demanding, with subject that is constantly expanding and becoming more diverse and more complex - as students get older: reading of various literary and artistic texts, reading non-artistic texts for different purposes, informative reading in different situations, reading for personal pleasure, interpretative and expressive reading, learning by reading - reading as a lifestyle, as one of the most complex forms of human social behavior (Grossman, 2010). and of course, after reading – comes the writing, as a productive skill, as a need and as creativity.

Researchers in this field around the world are dealing with the process of reading: starting with the recognition of characters and their organization into words, word sequences into sentences, the problems that occur in these phases, ending with the different ways of studying and interpreting the text. Modern societies around the world, at least nominally, are showing interest in improving the literacy, i.e. care for the poor results in national and international tests literacy. Alarmingly, the interest in reading is declining, the majority of school age children are more interested in other kinds of fun – moreover, they asses reading, and especially home reading, as an additional burden, etc. in most European countries there are national bodies to coordinate and support activities that promote reading, developing specific strategies to improve these skills (EACEA P9 Eurydice, 2011). The downfall of functional literacy in a country is for a concern. That is why this area calls for educational reforms, and changes in curricula that define the instruction process in schools.

Research on literacy in the region and in Montenegro − National and international surveys of students' reading literacy in the region and in Montenegro indicate that intensive work needs to be done on the development of these skills, changing many of the steps and approaches in the process of teaching and learning.

The first study (Educational achievements of eighth-grade students from five elementary schools in Montenegro, 2001) measuring the reading speed and reading comprehension, noted that the eighth-grade students showed unsatisfactory level of general and basic literacy. This means that students were leaving the elementary school not having the sufficient knowledge and skills to enable them to be productively involved in various areas of secondary education, to understand different everyday situations and be literate in acting in such situations (Havelka et al., 2001).

Another study: Republic testing of educational achievements of third-grade primary school students in the Mother tongue and Mathematics (2006) (Durković, N. et al., 2006) in which the understanding of the text was checked, rather than the technique of reading itself, showed that the students of this age were the poorest in reading.

In 2006 Montenegro joined 56 other countries in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Results of PISA 2006 in Montenegro indicate that more than half of tested 15-year-olds (56.3%) were not trained in critical reading and understanding texts (artistic and non-artistic), and that they have difficulties to apply given information in new situations. PISA 2009 results were hardly better, showing that 49.5% of our students is below level 2 (minimal level of functional

literacy, i.e. the lower limit of functional literacy in the domain of reading literacy), but this in turn means that about 50% of our 15-year-olds are functionally illiterate (National Report, 2008; Jacimovic, 2009). in 2012 testing we were 53rd among 65 countries. in the final sum this means that we advanced one place in reading as compared to 2009. With regard to the actual number of points (422), the difference compared to the average score of the OECD countries (496) is still high. in 2012 the percentage of functionally illiterate students (below level 2) is still significantly higher than in the OECD countries.

Analyses of some segments of the Montenegrin education system show that there is a ground for improvement of functional, and with it - reading literacy. This ground is, amongst other, provided by teaching-and-goal-oriented curricula for Mother tongue and literature, which within the objectives and contents allow enough space to work on the artistic and non-artistic texts, i.e. to develop reading strategies for both text types, as well as an understanding of the two uses of language (artistic and non-artistic). They allow also a balanced development of 4 language components: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Functional literacy involves the creation of diverse texts, as an important field of teaching oral and written expression. Students should be trained to write meaningful, comprehensive and purposeful text, nevermind artistic or non-artistic. Therefore, the ways to introduce students into this skill and the ways to develop it further through education were considered. The application of teaching method The Creator`s path in 13 primary schools showed that all students can create a solid text - if the teacher leads them skillfully.

Why The Creator`s path?

Creating texts of various kinds has been a regular part of the Mother tongue and literature curricula, and it is realized within language teaching and literature teaching. Namely, the students create artistic and non-artistic texts modeled on the texts they read and in accordance with their capacities. The intention of creating this teaching method is to try to transfuse previous theoretical assumptions and practical experiences into a concrete method so that, when it comes to text creation, teachers can provide adequate and continuous support to their students from the first grade to the end of elementary school. The objective of this effort is not to create writers, but to enable each individual to develop, within his capacities, writing ability during elementary school, so that these knowledge and skills would help him be a competent citizen, both within his profession, and in regular life situations.

The idea presented here is not entirely new. But the way of its application in teaching students to create text is new. These issues are mainly dealt with the theory of literacy, which is, taken in a narrower sense, interested only in specific issues related to those forms of written expression in which all the compositional elements of written text are represented. Preparational forms for text production (dictation, transcription, lexical exercises, retelling), which also have their own importance and its theoretical development, are much more treated in the current methods of written expression teaching, and that is why they are felt closer and more familiar. Teaching methods, as a discipline, is much closer to the teaching practice, and therefore it monitors all stages of the development of pupils' literacy. Limited only to the compositional forms of written expression, theory of literacy is mainly engaged in: the selection and validity of the topics for writing, collecting and selecting material for the topic, its development (composing), forms of expression, shaping paragraphs and sentences, the adequacy of words and phrases, the general appearance of the written paper and the like.

By presenting theoretical assumptions and illustrating theory with examples from practice, Dimitrijevic, in his book Theory of Literacy Basics (1969), specified the path that teachers could lead students in creating a quality text. in the chapter on composition and style of written paper, in his book Theory of Literature with the Theory of Literacy (2001), Zivkovic through the basic assumptions of the theory of literacy shapes a similar way in creating a good text. Stevanovic, too, in his book Theory and Practice in Teaching Oral and Written Expression (1988), dealing more with practice and specific teaching instructions, provides guidelines for successful learning and teaching in this field. This approach is actualized in the last two decades to support the introduction of process-oriented approach to teaching, and can be found in many textbooks of American, English and, in general, Western European production.[1] The goal here was to analyze it through the practical application in classroom, and to amend it, perhaps correct it and than show how useful and beneficial it is primarily for

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[1] Dimitrijević, R. (1969): Osnovi teorije pismenosti, prerađeno i dopunjeno izdanje, „Vuk Karadžić", Beograd; Živković, Stevanović, M. (1988): Teorija i praksa u nastavi usmenog i pismenog izražavanja, „Dječje novine", Gornji Milanovac; Burke Walsh, K. (1996): Creating child-centered classrooms, 6-7 Year Olds, Step By Step: A Program for Children and Families. Children's Resources International, Inc., Washington, DC.; Open Society Inst., New York, NY; Burke Walsh, K. (1997): Creating child-centerd classrooms, 8-10 Year Olds, A Program for Children and Families Children's Resources International, Inc., Washington, DC; Open Society Inst., New York, NY; Živković, D. (2001): Teorija književnosti sa teorijom pismenosti, Draganić, Beograd; Booth, D. & Swartz, L. (2004): Literacy Techniques, Ontario, Canada: Pembroke Publishers Limited.

students. Then, insisting on the process, not the time, check out when and how its implementation can be organized and planned (number of hours, which forms of teaching, for how long, etc). and finally, make it a part of the everyday life of both, the teachers and the students.

Types of texts that students create and the forms of expression – According to the basic requirements of the theme, its focus and the attitude towards it, the body of the text can be elaborated in various shapes. That is why there are different types and forms of student composition, and methodologists state the following: narrative (of events - indirectly and directly - experience), descriptions, reporting, informative, business papers, debates, excerps, presentations... Which form of composition the teacher will choose, depends on the age of the students and is usually prescribed in the curriculum for a particular grade.

Principles of composing/textuality – It is very important that text creation is taught by teachers who know and understand the principles of composition, i.e. the principles of textuality. These principles should not be specified, nor explained to students. The teacher should strive to make students recognize the principles and understand them in the texts of others, exemplary texts, and to spontaneously apply them in the texts they create. in the theory of literacy the following principles of composition/textuality are formulated: the principle of text unity, the principle of details selection, the principle of harmony and coherence, the proportion principle, the principle of expressiveness or emfaza and the principle of diversity.

The principle of text unity refers to the unity of purpose (adherence to the main idea in writing the text, which is achieved by limiting the topic with the title and setting point of view), the unity of thought (all the details and ideas in the text should be firmly and unambiguously associated with the main thought/idea), unity of presentation (ideas or details that the student brings in the text should be strongly related to the topic) and the unity of tone and feeling, i.e. style adequacy (the unity of content and form).

The principle of ideas/details selection involves the accurate determination of the goal, theme framing and its precise formulation, as well as keeping track of the time that is available to work on a specific topic. The choice of details depends on the writer (in this case student), the purpose of the text and the expectations of the audience for which it is writen.

The principle of harmony and coherence means arranging selected details in a logical and natural order - the correlation should exist not only between the threme and details but also between the details. Ideas are classified into groups according to their mutual similarity, or connection, and so they form paragraphs. The paragraphs are interconnected in a natural logical sequence as are the sentences. When the text is read, it should be clear why a particular paragraph preceds the one that is being read, why a thought in this paragraph is preceded by another and so on. There are mainly four types of associations or relationships between ideas, information and facts, e.g. images: time ratio, the space ratio, the ratio of analogies/similarities and cause-and-effect ratio.

The principle of proportion is also the natural law of expressing a certain matter. According to this principle, every detail in a written text should be given as much space as it needs in order of importance to the whole, to the point of view, to the current situation and the circumstances. The principle of proportion applies to the text as a whole, but also its parts: paragraph and sentence. in any case, the writer should give the main idea in the text the most of space, as well as to the main idea in a paragraph.

The principle of expressiveness or emfaza dictates the most important details to receive the most important place in the text, paragraph or sentence. It is known that such places are the beginning and end of the text. Since the introduction is very important, meticulously addressing the topic, thinking about its quintessence and objective to be achieved by correctly and clearly structured point of view, provides good introductions, e.g. emphatic, expressive and strong beginnings.

The principle of diversity provides a reader's attention, refreshes it, and makes it constantly awake and receptive to new impressions and knowledges that are presented in the written composition. Monotony can be caused by uniformity of paragraphs and sentences, use of same words and the scarcity of ideas, thoughts and expressions.

The individualization of the writing process on which this procedure is based was quite a difficult step for teachers accustomed to the collective approach to the activities of the school. Monitoring of teaching and interviews with teachers relating to the use of this teaching method, clearly show that guidelines for the text are still imposed to students, so that the procedure itself is no more the authentic way of the creator. If we agree on a common theme, that's fine, but most teachers are still giving the choice of voting common title for the entire class. Instead, it should be a great opportunity for students to select depending on their own desires and interests. When the agreed theme is for example: Autumn morning, isn't the aim for students to individually choose a point of view and also write about things with which they certainly have a personal, direct or indirect experience? Isn't it a restricting for some of them if it is voted a joint title to be: Autumn morning in my street, when some of them would just like to write about their experience with autumn morning in the garden, in a meadow,

in the woods, in the park...? This was clearly seen when using the brainstorming technique they listed the possible headlines about the given theme.

What also continues is the practice of developing a common work plan, which is not the aim of this activity. Development of a common plan is a way of exercise on how to make a plan, but the goal of this approach is that students do it themselves, in accordance with their capacities, while the teacher is there to just to help. However, since this is a fairly major change in the approach to teaching writing, such reactions are understandable.

Participants in the project, along with the professional team, answered the question Why Creator`s path with following statements: learning, practicing the text creation; process through which students are led by a teacher – he teaches them; process which results show that everyone can write a text under certain circumstances (with appropriate support, respecting the individual needs...); process that motivates and builds confidence; a process that allows students to gain a certain routine and be faster when they need to: a) write the text for one hour (written exercise, a written assignment), b) write the text in the limited time for the exam: external-internal examination, external testing, external graduation exam...

Teaching Method The Creator`s path or how to create text

Creative act consists of the following stages: (1) Choose a theme and set the title, (2) Collect and select materials for the text, (3) Make a text plan, (4) Write the first draft (5) Consult friends and teachers/educators, (6) Improve your text - write another version, (7) Check your spelling, correct errors, (8) Carefully rewrite or retype the text, (9) If you want - publish your article / book and present it to readers.

Choose a theme and set the title - Topics for texts can be taken from experience, i.e. related to what the student saw and learned through observation, direct way. It should, however, be careful when choosing such topics as it may turn out that, in fact, they relate to something that is acquired by a long life experience and not at all easy for students. Typical example of such a theme, regardless of whether it relates to the character from what is read: Age is wisdom.

Topics can be drawn from what the student learns, reads or has read – indirectly learned (from reading materials, from other subjects, from newspapers, from literary journals and magazines for young people). Also, they may come out of the student's imagination. Such themes present a creative independent work of students (often require special skills: live productive imagination, the ability of a strong imagination and innovative skills in combining the details, in conjunction with the form of text, and in particular in the style and language).

Theme that answers its purpose (students speak or write about it) must be specific, which means clear, precise and strictly limited in its formulation.

Ambiguous themes should be avoided because they confuse students. These are, for example: Our school, Life in the city, Rain, Vanjka (Anton Pavlovich Chekhov)… How specific can a student be when writing about so generaly and abstractly set topics? What's specific information, specific request in these topics? What kind of a response we expect? What kind of stylistic forming of ideas and feelings, what kind of clarity?

Difficulties will immediately disappear if the topic is narrowed, limited to something completely certain and known, reduced to the material that the student is familiar with, that is in his experience. The theme Summer holidays, for example, is much more specific if the title specifies what should be discussed within this period, i.e. if the title is formulated as: My holidays in the mountains. However, if we take into account that not all students were in the mountains that summer, we create space for a specific title by leaving the possibility for students to complete the formulation ... at sea, ... in the country... Any theme that is concretized through the title receives a student`s personal touch.

As already stated, concrete formulation of a theme/topic is a headline / title. There may be several titles for a theme. Preferably, the possible titles are suggested by students on the basis of discussions about the topic. The title should immediately give the impression of clarity and precision. in fact, the title is the name for what will be written, and should be accurate label of the subject and its concise content, the image of a problem on which the composition is being written. in general, the topic title emerges as soon as a writer is interested in a problem, but its definite formulation is obtained when the material is collected, selected, studied and chosen. The title should be short, convenient and attractive.

Theme should be analyzed; attitudes determined towards the questions that it raises and a personal statement (point of view) formed. Each theme includes three elements: (1) subject (matter): its scope is conditioned by our knowledge, experience, feelings, interests, our whole being and our inner life; (2) point of view/focus of the theme (the opinion that limits the subject, or our viewpoint of the subject); (3) the dominant form of expression (in which the subject shall be presented).

The point of view involves the attitude towards the issue set in the subject, a way of looking at that issue, so that the reflections and conclusions about the issue set in that way will vary. Point of view (focus of the theme or standpoint) further specifies the subject, guides the work in only one direction, and does not allow roaming and failures in answering the theme. Themes, for which students create texts, or rather learn to create them, should always be formulated so that from the theme title one can clearly identify the subject matter and its point of view / focus of the theme.

Dominant form of expression in the text depends on the theme nature (its internal organic substance), on the matter limited by the point of view, plan adopted by the writer (his concept of developing the theme) and the audience for which it is written.

Theme: The look of forest one summer morning Subject: A friendly gesture

Subject: Forest Subject: Gesture

Viewpoint: A summer morning Viewpoint: Friendly, Friendship, and Companionship

Form of expression: description Form of expression: story/narrative

It is understood that the teacher, relating to the goal of teaching which he set by chosing the theme and formulating it, will often suggest to students the dominant form of expression appropriate to the theme. Form of expression is sometimes explicitly indicated by a certain formula, as: describe, tell a story about, paint a ... write a letter ... design a conversation, etc.).

Analysis of the theme is an essential work to be carried out together with students at the stage of exercise, and over a longer period of working with them, even over several years, until we're confident that students are equiped with skill to perform the required analysis alone.

No theme tcan be written well about, unless student: is well prepared for the act of writing, thought about the subject on which to write, examined all possibilities and suggestions provided about the subject, documented and collected materials, is determined towards materials available in conjunction with the primary objective he set by opting for one or another theme title. Such preparation requires a certain time period, so if a student is surprised by the subject success can't be expected.

Real writers write about topics they choose – free topic choice always gives the best results. The same stands for students. Students, especially younger school-age children, show the best when writing on topics related to direct experience. Issues that "writers" can think about when choosing topics are: What about I keep thinking? What I know a lot about? What I like to do? What is important to me? Who or what I really care about? Which moment was important in my life? What's to worry about? What makes me happy? What makes me angry?

How to make a list of topics and their titles? The teacher, in accordance with the objectives of the program, makes a list of topics and presents it to students (the list can be placed on the wall, and the students can broaden it with new themes and topics that they themselves have formulated and are of an interest to them). Another option is for students to create their own list of topics and keep it in their writing folder. From that list, during the year, they can choose themes and create titles. They can come up with the title of their text through the method that we have already mentioned - brainstorming. Specifically, students are offered a broader topic related to their immediate and shared experience, and then they are asked to write down as many titles related to that topic. After that, the students choose one of the suggested titles for their text.

Collect and select materials for the text. – Collecting materials for the text is the second phase of work and comes after the theme analysis. Materials can be collected indirectly (by finding, discovering material with other people's data, based on others' narratives, based on the book, scientific and artistic works, etc.). and directly (direct observation and observation of the elements required by the senses, through imagination, evoking memories and creating new units based on them). When selecting materials it should be kept in mind to select only the necessary and important details, the ones that are clearly identified by a point of view as a theme limitation. Cumulation of material, so-called documentation is a fundamental activity in the creation of the text: it provides material for the text.

Theme for which we collect material directly (observation)

Theme: Sea at sunset

Subject: Sea

Viewpoint: Sunset

Form of expression: description

 Theme for which we collect material indirectly (reading a book):

Theme: Harry Potter meets Hagrid

Subject: Harry Potter

Viewpoint: encounter with Hagrid

Form of expression: retelling.

Students will learn to select details properly: if they know the aim; if given an unambiguous theme; if they know the time they have available to work on a particular subject / title of the topic; if they know why the text is written, i.e. a situation in which such text needs to be manifested; if they know the audience for which the text is written and its expectations.

Collecting materials, selection of details and their reduction is determined by two principles of textuality: the principle of harmony and coherence and the principle of proportion. These two principles lead to the formation of the correct plan that creates conditions for student to write a meaningful text. Students should be used to analyzing the texts to recognize the application of this principle and to seek arguments to justify such an order in the text, but also to seek and perceive faults in the order of ideas in their own writings. To comply with the previously described principle of proportion, one should practice planning the composition and demarcation of ideas by their relative value and importance, and think about the time, place and space they should be given.

Make a text plan. – The resistance of students to this stage is known, and they often make the plan after they`ve done the writing only to suit the forms. Students refuse to make a plan because it demands a particularly difficult mental effort, with a focus and a self discipline, which they at the time of their studies usually do not have, and that should be developed by good teaching.

Here are two important arguments for making a text plan: making a plan is a basic requirement for the development of good literacy; it stimulates the thinking process, properly setting up and developing ideas and identifying their mutual arrangement and subordination, i.e. their relationship. in fact, teaching to plan means: learning logical thinking, getting students used to detect the core of a question, to define their attitudes towards that core, immediately organize the material according to the value and importance related to arrangement and subordination, and to clearly indicate the stages of development of the main idea and those side-by ideas through which the core of the question is exhausted.

Teaching students the planning of oral and written texts teaches them to think about problems, to collect material in response to them and seek, and find, the best way to arrange that material as a response to a question.

Working on that, the student improves many skills. for example, the ability of careful observation and noticing the details in the immediate environment: the students should be used to monitor, investigate and perceive life, its phenomena, nature and the man in it, and to self-observe and self-examine. It also improves the ability of observation and marking of indirect character.

Teachers often choose the easier way and skip or ignore this phase of work on the text creation. When assessing the text it is easier to correct only the formal errors than its conception and development of each individual task. It is much easier to stop on spelling or punctuation errors in the text, and explain and correct them, but to correct students in such complex issues as the overall structure of the text and its logical connectivity.

The consequences of the lack of a plan or a lack of work on text planning are usually: incomplete texts, giving come-first impressions on the title without giving substance and the bad layout of the collected material, causing digressions and a bad style in general.

Practicing in the preparation of the plan begins with exercise of developing a plan of other people's text in the earliest school days. During such exercises the students in other people's texts observe sequence of ideas, their mutual arrangements and subordination, identify the main idea and its development through minor details, observe three basic stages in the development of the main idea: the introduction, development and conclusion and, finally, uncover the core of the issues within the topic . This exercise is carried out within the overall teaching of language and literature.

Text planning can begin only when all the preceding operations that make it meaningful are properly performed, i.e. when: topic is precisely formulated and its analysis carried out, the title is set, the material determined by a point of view, the material collected and organized in accordance with the principles of composition.

During this method procedure it is possible to create a general and a detailed plan. The general plan may be common for all students, while a detailed plan each student creates for his text. It is the student's individual approach: it manifests student`s attitude toward material found and his grasp of issues, his view. Common plan students can make for retelling.

Write the first draft - Students write first drafts in accordance with the preparation. Preferably, the first version is written in class.

Consult friends and teachers/educators – "Writers" should meet with the teacher or peers to discuss the first draft of their texts. Consultations are useful part of the text creation process as "writers" realize that they are writing for an audience. The aim of the consultation is to help the student respond to his writing and to be able to detect and recognize mistakes and correct them. The teacher, through conversation, points to gaps and faults in the composition and content of the story (superfluous characters, random events, descriptions, and dialogues), moving away from the point of view, the introduction of insignificant detail or less important data, poor separation of paragraphs, regular or irregular arrangement of details/data depending on the form of expression, etc. Note that the "writer" should not be criticized, but given specific guidelines for correction and further work on text.

During the consultations, "the writer" should be given the opportunity to read the work in front of a small number of listeners, to hear his own text and the reactions of the group. During the consultation with the teacher student should be the one who speaks the most. Students should be explained that this is an important step in the making of the text, since on the basis of suggestions, questions and complaints they have received, they can make a story more substantial and interesting to readers. They should be given enough time to think about it, to acknowledge the suggestions they recognized as meaningful and useful, and then to write.

This kind of cooperation helps students to easily accept criticism, because they feel secure in an environment that accepts them and that helps them with their questions and comments. "Writers" are not obliged to accept all the suggestions, but they need to record and consider them, and then decide how to use the advice they've been given. Such discussions help students visualize not only from the perspective of a writer, but also from the perspective of critical and constructive-minded reader and listener that provides support to other writers.

In addition to the opportunity to improve literacy, this kind of work, which includes learning and creation within group, contributes to rising to a higher level of the interconnectedness of language components: reading - listening - writing.

Improve your text - write another version – Students, in accordance with the suggestions received, correct their texts. Changes may relate to the content relevance with respect to the subject matter and point of view, the characters and their roles in the story, the events and their order, etc; the adjustment of style to narration form, improving the description, the introduction of new details, etc. Teacher checks whether the corrections are done correctly and together with student decides whether the corrected text is acceptable or not.

The student can decide to produce another version, to make a better text, but making the next version can also be suggested by teacher. The final version of the text „steps in" to the next stage, i.e. the one that is estimated to be the correct final text relating to content, style and composition ...

Check your spelling, correct errors. – Each segment of the text does not require revision, particularly in the first cycle (first, second and third grade), where the goal is to encourage students to write freely without constant burden of spelling rules, punctuation and sentence structure. At this stage, the spelling corrections are done and the full text is formatted. Since the best way to learn is through mistakes, you should not straightaway correct the student`s mistakes, but help him to detect and correct them himself.

"Authors" should be allowed first to improve their own text and should be instructed to use a Dictionary or Spelling Grammar Guide or some other guide that will help them to correct mistakes. Younger students will not be able to finish this part of the work completely by themselves, so they must be helped by the teacher in producing the final version they want to publish.

Carefully rewrite or retype the text –Text that is ready for publication should be technically polished (same font, font size, paragraph, indented start of a new paragraph, highlighted units in the task), without spelling errors, and correct in language and content.

If you want - publish your article/book and present it to readers. - "Author/writer" needs to decide himself about how his book will look like. Younger students can be helped by teacher in preparation of the book. It is preferred to print the text from a computer. The cover page should have a title and the full name of the "author." "Writer" should be allowed to present his text to different types of audience. The fact that the work will be listened or read by others is an important motive both for writing and text processing.

The presentation of the book/article can be organized: in the class, during a literary day in activities, within the activities of school library, school summits, etc.

Assessing students' creations in this method approach is formative. The teacher monitors the work of each student and provides suggestions and guidance, assessing what was previously done. It also requires students to self assess their works and argue their opinions. The assessment includes a small group of peers. But, that's a whole area that needs special attention.

Implementation of methodological approach The Creator's path confirmed two important observations that teachers emphasized immediately after the first application:

This approach encourages all students (all students write)

It develops their independence in this field (parents do not participate in making the composition).

Conclusions

Conclusions on the implementation of method approach The Creator's path in the period November 2011 - August 2013:

Students understand and recognize that text creation is a process; that this process enables them to learn and improve their writing skills because it results in a quality task.

Working together on electing the theme and its detailed analysis, in which the theme point of view / focus issues and subject are specified, is the initial step that greatly motivates students and encourages for further work on their texts; when selecting and formulating the titles students need help, so that they can be clear about what to write and with that point of view, and particularly is so for primary school children; not necessary to insist on the very notions of subject and point of view, but on understanding them.

Data collection and their organization into titles that make up the plan of the task, with prior removal of everything that is not directly related to the theme or main idea of the text, encourages students and makes them safer in future work on text creation. While working on the text plan students improve many skills: careful observation and identification of details in the immediate environment, observation and identification of indirect character details, thinking ...; Also, it is practicing the important intellectual operations: hierarchical, chronological or causal arrangement of concepts and details; the majority of students accept making the text plan as an important and useful part of the text creation process.

Older students, especially the ninth grade, initially, in most schools, refused to develop a text plan because "so far we have not worked that way, and we know how and what about to write "; their works, however, showed that the majority of them needed some form of text plan, that after such an organization of materials the texts are much better and that it's a very important step in the process of text creation; when the introduction of the teaching process starts at a later age, application of the certain stages should vary; quality analysis of tasks will show whether a step in text creation was truly redundant or not, which also differs from student to student.

Consultation about the text contributes to the improvement of all its segments (composition, content, style and language, spelling...); so far, the consultation took place more frontally, but the Project insists on student-teacher and student-student consultations, as well as consultations within small groups of peers.

Development of an improved version of the text is an important step, but not easily accepted by younger students. However, from the third grade they recognize that this step provides an opportunity for success and most of them are glad to use it.

Students of all ages write more gladly and have a lot more confidence when this activity is in question.

The proposed method approach is necessary to apply with the first steps in learning and teaching to create the text.

The process was realized in the regular classes, then in additional and supplementary teaching, and within leisure activities; some segments were included in the part of class with similar aim; part of the activities the students were doing at home, but due to the fact that parents were aware of this process as a way of teaching the skill of writing and helping the students and that students understood that they themselves could improve their texts, teachers pointed out that it was obvious that the texts were without "parents touch".

The circumstances of the school (e.g. written exercises and written assignments), national testing and life situations demand the texts to be produced in a short period of time, for example – in an hour. It was concluded, therefore, that the students through this process learn and practice to create text, that process itself motivates and builds confidence and

allows students to gain a certain routine and be faster when they need to write the text in one hour (written exercises, written assignment) or within the limited time available for the exam: external-internal assessment, external assessment, external graduation exam ... So, by applying the proposed method, the student is also trained to create a quality text in a time-limited circumstances.

It is essential that the annual schedule of objectives and contents has at least one process planned in each semester.

Although the method itself is based on an individualized approach to teaching for culture of oral and written expression development, teachers haven't as yet fully recognized and implemented it; this needs to be improved.

The process of applying the proposed method with the students of the first cycle resulted in the improvement of oral and written expression; significant improvement is observed in verbal expression compared to previous generations: the willingness to speak out in front of class, richer vocabulary, a better sentence, the correlated expression of story content etc.

Colleagues of other professions recognized this process of text creation as an useful technique for writing articles within their subjects, so that they applied a similar procedure in their classes.

The conclusions resulting from the application of this teaching method show that it provides the enhancement of the knowledge and skills necessary to create texts of various types, thereby contributing to the development of functional literacy among students.

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EVALUATION OF EXECUTIVE SELECTION FROM PERSPECTVE OF THE CORPORATE REPUTATION: A RESEARCH ON FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS' EXECUTIVES in TURKEY

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Abstract

In this study, it's examined reasons for executive selection based on data is obtain in Turkish Financial Sector context. Executive selection as an organizational behavior is extensively studied from perspective of contingency theory, resource dependency theory, institutional theory and agency theory. According to the theory of contingency, executive selection decisions depends on the characteristics of executives or performance of executives. On the other hand agency theory perspective sees executives aspects of agency cost. in terms of resource dependency theory, those organizational behaviors are explained by organizations need to manage dependencies. According to resource dependence theory, organizations that are dependent on environmental actors in order to gain power and control provide executive selection. As an intangible asset and strategic tool Corporate Reputation is defined by Fombrun (1996: 70) as " a perceptual representation of a company's past actions and future reprospects that describes the firm's overall appeal to all of its key constituents when compared with other leading rivals". So Corporate Reputation effects its relationship with all stakeholders and it is essential for its survival (Rose, 2004). Leadership and vision is one of the compotent of Corporate Reputation and an important dimension of Reputation measurement. in the Fortune, Management Today, Financial Times, Rayner (2001), Reputation Quotient and Reputex Social Responsibility Ratings (Bebbington, Larrinaga& Moneva 2008), Management quality and leadership is one of the elements that is focused on evaluation and measurement of the construct. Similarly, in different reputation raking surveys such as Reputation Quotient, Fortune, Capital and Good reputatin index, quality of management is a basic criteria for Corporate Reputation. As leadership and vision can make the organization gain more reputation in the eyes of the stakeholders, a crisis created by the leader can also yield to the loss of the Reputation (Okur ve Akpınar, 2012). Leaders and top management are the most visible people and they represent their companies in all areas. Therefore for the companies want to build a good reputation, protect and development it successfully, leaders and top management is essential. They are expected to hire managers and leaders who contrubute company's Corporate Reputation. Moreover, they are expected to establish selecting criterias that appropate to this aims for management or leader positions. The paper draws on both quantitative and qualititative analyses. Firstly it reveals the demographic profile of executives. Secondly, it applies a discourses analysis of interviews of 82 managers gathered from company magazines or other published materials. According to the results of the study, it is observed that selecting process of candidates for executives of firms heavily takes into account the prestige of the school they graduated and worked in the past. Further, gender is also considered as a matter corporate reputation in this selection process; %92 of executive positions are occupied by men.

Keywords: Corporate Reputation, Executive Selection, Financial Sector.

INTRODUCTION

Executive Selective

Executive turnover decision state that leaving an executive and instead of his or her recruiting another one. Studies in the literature describing the changes in senior management, comes mainly from the position of manager or management team focuses on the characteristics and the relationship between these characteristics and firm performance are questioned. in this context, mainly senior executives visible characteristics, psychological and behavioral profile, success and career history, the business framework and to adapt to the culture of the organization, is focused on strategic vision.

Silzer (2002) describe executives as includes general managers, corporate officers, and heads of major organizational functions and business units. "High potentials" are those accepted to have the potential to become executives. Drucker(1985) mentioned, was quite critical of organizations' success at executive selection: "their batting average is no

better than. At most one-third of such decisions turn out right; one third are minimally effective; and one-third are outright failures. in no other area ofmanagement would we put up with such miserable performance". Sorcher (1985) writing about the same time reached a similar result (Hollenbeck, 2009).

According to the theory of contingency, executive selection decisions depends on the characteristics of executives or performance of executives. On the other hand agency theory perspective sees executives aspects of agency cost. in terms of resource dependency theory, those organizational behaviors are explained by organizations need to manage dependencies (Pfeffer and Salancik, 2003). Resource dependence theory claim that, organizations that are dependent on environmental actors in order to gain power and control provide via executive selection.

In other respects social capital theory sees managers as a key element of social capital. According to theoreticians, social capital plays a major role in the selection of managers. Besides, managers assigned to a position who brings network and connectivity from past to the position.Network researches which done on executives highlights that social capital constitue social network theory's heart' (Brass & Krackhardt, 1999: 180).

Institutional approaches suggest a different focus for studies of leadership power in organizations—that interests, power, and politics in organizations are shaped by institutional logics prevailing in wider environments (Fligstein 1990; Friedland and Alford 1991; Powell 1991; Davis and Greve 1997; Meyer et al. 1997). According to this view, while power and politics are present in all organizations, the sources of power, its meaning, and its consequences are contingent on higher-order institutional logics. Institutional logics define the rules of the game by which executive power is gained, maintained, and lost in organizations (Jackall 1988). Moreover, institutional logics are historically variant and are shaped by economic and social structural changes (Fligstein 1985, 1987; Fligstein and Brantley 1992; Barley and Kunda 1992). However, the effects of institutional logics on the determination of power in organizations is not emphasized in most empirical analyses of intraorganizational power or, in particular, in recent studies of succession. While a general theme of both classic and contemporary studies on leadership succession is that organizational politics shape executive change, the idea that the political determinants of succession are themselves conditioned by historical context and institutional logics has been relatively unexplored, with the exception of Fligstein (1982).

Corporate Reputation

In the dictionary Reputation is defined "The beliefs or opinions that are generally held about someone or something; A widespread belief that someone or something has a particular characteristic (Compact Oxford English Dictionary, 2009). "impression of public esttem or high regard judged by others' (Merriam Websters's Cllegiative Dictionary 1996, p. IOOI). Prior work suggests an organization is held public esteem or high regard when it is viewed as both visible and credible (e.g., established, Professional, and a stable player in the marketplace) (Weiss, 1999).

According to Fombrun (1996:57) 'Corporate Reputations are held by people inside and outsizde a company' (Carmeli, 2005). Deloitte Spain's (2004) defines Corporate Reputation as "the Corporate Reputation of an enterprise is the prestige maintained through tine which, based on a set of shared values and strategies and though the eminence achieved with each stakeholder, assures the sustainability and differentiation of the company via the management of its intellectual capital (intagibles).

Corporate Reputation is becaming importante day by day. The international journal 'Corporate Reputation Review (CRR)' is a good example of that. Cravens (2003) explains that by the following words, 'The importance of Reputation in the new economy arguing that ' good reputations create wealth'. Today intagible assets are very important to achieve compatetive advantage and survive and Teece et all. (1997) pointed out that Organizational Reputation as an intagible resource represents an overall assesment of the firm's current asset, position and expected future performance.

Corporate reputation affects the way in which various stakeholders behave towards an organization, influencing, for example, employee retention, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (Chun, 2005). Reputation is said to add value and increase cash flow and profits; first result in increased sales; more credible advertisements; improve percieved product quality and produce higher customer loyalty; and attract high quality job applicants thereby enhancing the competitive ability of the firm as well as attracting investors (Caruana, 2005).

Beside having good employee or customer relations and finantial situation, acompany with a good general image is also percieved as having good management. Corporate reputation is a collectively carried out set of beliefs built in a cumulative fashion over time by stakeholders based on the assumption that their interest will be satisfied (Gabbioneta et al., 2007; Gioia at al., 2000) and it will be effective on potantial employees (Stuart, 2002).

Deephause (2000) emphised that corporate reputation is developed through time with a socially complex process in which the firm and its stakeholders-internal and external are involved. Similarly, De Quevedo (2001) identified two main dimensions of corporate reputation; 'business stakeholders' like workers, managers,shareholders, customers, suppliers and external stakeholders means generally all sociaty.

Fornburn and van Riel (2004) describe as six dimensions of corporate reputation; 1-Emotional Appeal (eg, good feeling about the company), 2-Products and Sevices (eg, offers products that are a good quality, valueand innovative), 3-Vision and Leadership (eg, has great leadreship, well managed), 4-Financial Performance (eg, profitabilty, outperforms competitors), 5-Workplace enviroment (eg, rewards its employees, traits employees fairly), 6-Social Responsibility (support good causes, is enviromentally responsible) (Friedman, 2009).

Reputation of the leader, management or the owner affects the reputation of an organization. By the expression of Murray and White (2004) management is 'at the heart of creating,enhancing and retaining a good reputation'. Many studies have highlighted the importance of the leader's reputation in determining the reputation of an organization's reputation (Klein, 1999; Gumpp and Gaines-Ross, 2002).Management makes the decisions regarding strategy and products or services and creates the company culture in which chiose that affect corporate reputation are mae. Since upper management is the most visible group of employees, the level of trust inspired by upper managament is also an important measure. This trust will also be reflected in the degree to which communication and coordination exists across functional areas and the level of infomration exchange between managers and subordinates (Cravens, 2003).

Leadership is one the most criteria in corporate reputation researches. There is a tight relation between corporate leader and corporate reputation management. Literatelly, the tools that are used to measure corporate reputation like Rep Track Scorecard (RI) and Reputation Quotient (RQ) include leadership and management dimensions. in addition to that, Fortune Magazines well known studies to measure corporate reputation is called America's Most Admired Companies (AMAC) and Global Most Admired Companies (GMAC) include management quality and leadership traits as esscencial indicators of corporate reputation.

Kitchen and Laurance's (2003) study consist of more than 1000 managers in 8 counry is shows that, employees and CEO are the most important groups that influence corporate reputation. Corporate leaders need to play an prioner and active role in corporate management. because the leaders internalized the corporate reputation management in the organizations and they represents the organizations by their behavior and personality outside the organizations, they are put in a vital position in corporate reputation management.There is a close relationship between leaders' reputation and corporate reputation (Okur,2012).

Leadership and vision can build up reputation in the sight of stakeholders, they can loss of reputation that generate a crises. Besides corporate leader is the most visible and known person in the eye of stakeholders, he or she should balance between his or her individual reputation and corporate reputation (Davies and Chun, 2009).

Reputation of leaders have impact on corporate reputation. A study is made in different countries show that clearly. This impact is found % 44 in North America, %43 in Europe, %52 in Asia Pasiffic Region and %55 in Latin American. Generally this ratio is found as %47 (21. St. Cencury CEO and Corporate Reputation.

Leaders have esscencial responsibilities in organizations like, specifiying internal strategies, making external strategies, articulating meaningful mission and vision for their corporation and employees, contolling and montoring applications, motivating and rewarding people. On the other hand they are responsible to give messages to social stakeholders without conflicting with corporate reputation to be a legitimate organization. Leaders and their vision can build a good corporate reputation but sometimes a cris or a mistake is made by them can cause the organization to loose its reputation.

Shortly, if organizations want to have a good reputation they must have a successfull management and leaders. Reputation management and the other efforts to gain and maintain corporate reputation firstly top management and leaders shoud internalize them and act in this way. Then they should build a corporate culture that supports corporate reputation and make all stakeholders to percive their success.

Method

Participants

 The sample included 81 managers from financial sector except banks in Turkey between the ages of 33-64 of which %15,7 were women and %84,3 were men. The mean age was 42,8.

Materials

Personal Information Form: This form was consisted of questions about age, university that he or she graduated education level, number of years spent in the present position, present company that he or she works, past company that he or she worked, number of years spent outside.

Discource Analysis: This anaylsis applied executives' statement who work at financial sector that 14 different published newspapers and business magazines.

Results

The main aim of this study was to evaluate the selected executives desicion aspect of corporate reputation. for this purpose, firstly, most preferred executives graduated univesity were investigated. Secondly,gender of executives and past experiment of them were examined . Finally, media visibility of executives were ınvestigated.All of these dimension dıscource analysis were evaluated.

Findings of Demographic

Following the searches inside 83 executives women proportion is %15,7 and men %84,3.In this study exeuctives graduated university was examined and universities diveded to two part. One of those part are central universities such as Middle East Technical Univesity, Bosphorus University, Istanbul University. Other part are environs universities which are does not place the biggest five cites. %94,5 of executives were graduate central university specially as Middle East Technical Univesity and Bosphorus University.The mentioned those three university, instead of report of Reputation Works of Turkey in 2013, the most respected universities of Turkey.%64,8 of executives posses master degree. Reputation Works of Turkey is conducted by Turkish Commerce University. Age of executives that come their executive position is %45,4 is in 35-40 age range, %38,2 is in 41-45 age range, %12,3 is in 46-51 age range and %8,1 is in 51 and more age range. Avarage of executives age is 42,8.

Findings of Experiment

Following the searches about experiment of executives indicate that %88,6 of executives are coming Turkey's the most known and respected company such Deniz Bank, Halk Bank, Ziraat Bank and et cetera. Reputation Works of Turkey has revealed that thoso companies which are the most influental firms in Turkey.

Discussion

Reputation and Managers or Leaders

Creating reputation is a long and difficult process but at the same time breaking down reputation is very easy and momentary. Altough the actions of all employees are reflected in corporate reputation, upper management and the manager in particular can have a significant individual effect on corporate reputation. The personal reputation of the manager shoul be evaluated. Consider how central the reputation of key manager such as Jack Welch, Rupert Murdoch,Bill Gates and Michael Eisner are to their respective companies (GE, News Corporation, Microsoft and Disney) (Cravens,2003).

Top management team who are respponsible for selection of executives. Previous studies indicate that those members take care of firms reputation when they select executives Top management groups directs actions such as releases, press, conferences, and advertising, referred to here generally as reputation maangement activities, in part to influence stakeholders'perceptions of the firm's reputation. Because top management serves as the guardians and promoter of a firm's image (Gatewood et al., 1993), examining how the Top management group may impact reputation management efforts can be particularly important to understanding why reputation management activities differ across companies (Carter, 2006). Board members attach priority such as to executives because who are represent their reputation in front of stakeholders.

This research clearly indicate that top managers teams tend to select from their manager candidate between Turkey's the best reputable universities. We divided to four man topic those discourses in the context of discource analysis. One of them is education of managers. Instead of education part, top management teams' member thought that managers who is graduated from prestigious universities will make a contribute to the firm's reputations. in our study we found that managers' %94,5 , has got the best universities diploms in Turkey in this sector. By the favour of this selection board members think that managers who are the most visible part of companies generate reputation wtih their individual prestigious. Besides, in

a survey of more than 600 executives and other top-tier managers, 54 percent believed that at least half of a company's corporate reputation could be attributed to the public image of its executives. Further, 64 percent (versus only 43 percent in 1999) concluded that the ability to maintain and anhance a company's profile must be given substantial weight when choosing a successor (Corporate Board, 2001).

Formbrun (2004) define corporate reputation in his stduy and one of them is Leadership and vision. in this study observed that all executives assigned from Turkey's most reputable firms. Those reputable firms are determined by Reputation Works of Turkey in 2013. Our research found out that %98,8 of executives who selected by firms coming from banks which are inside most reputable firms in Turkey. This relation imply one of corporate reputations' tools is past experiment where they worked.

A research conducted by Institution Reputation Management, leader is one of the most importante topic that effects the corporatee reputation by the rate of % 37.5 and in Turkey, reputation state that 50.0% rate with confidence, 41.7% with a rate of dignity, 16.7% of the institution by different stakeholders in the eyes of perception, 8.3% with the ratio values, 6.9% with quality. According to these results, the largest proportion expressed trust and reputation have seen. Therefore, the leaders who are credible or reliable and keeps their promises can build a good reputation in the eyes of stakeholders. They will crate a trust and their communication and relations with staheholders will improve based on this trust so the quality, deepness and of relations will be effected positively.

Main question of corporate reputation literature is how the corporation is percived by the stakeholders (Wry ve Deephouse, 2007). The answer of this questions is related with and depended on corporation's managers and leaders activities and characteristics. A leader or a manager can effectively manage this perception or change it if it is necceserray. Their messages to the society or public will be influencial according to their personal reputation.

While there are many recent examples of organisations whose leadership and business practice behaviours have destroyed their reputations, such as Enron, Arthur Andersen, Tyco and WorldCom, the positive case for reputation is that it has fostered continued expansion of old stagers like Johnson & Johnson and Philips, and innovators such as Cisco Systems, who top recent rankings of the most respected organisations in the US and Europe.

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Consumption and Participation to Culture among the European Youth

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Abstract

Culture defines a society's identity and pegs its history with benchmarks, codes, norms and models, attitudes about life and knowledge products full of symbols. A number of researches into cultural anthropology have highlighted the distinct role culture plays in the process of building and maintaining the balance both at social and individual levels. Part of one's identity, culture is also embedded into one's quality of life. in the same time, the culture playing "a substantial role in adolescent development. Development scientists have shown increasing interest in how culture and religion are involved in the processes through which adolescents adapt to environments."[1]. This paper is made and published under the aegis of the Research Institute for Quality of Life, Romanian Academy as a part of programme co-funded by the European Union within the Operational Sectorial Programme for Human Resources Development through the project for Pluri and interdisciplinary in doctoral and post-doctoral programmes Project Code: POSDRU/159/1.5/S/141086

Keywords: Culture, identity, anthropology, quality of life, adolescent,

Introduction

Few big social researches commissioned by the European Commission have been conducted across the EU countries to study the cultural consumption and participation to culture amongst youth (aged 15 to 24). The special Eurobarometer 399 on 'Cultural Access and Participation' with data colllected in April-May 2013 offers valuable information on the topic showcasing different levels of engagement with culture by age groups. The study measured youth access and participation to a set of cultural activities such as following TV and radio cultural shows, going to historical monuments, going to the cinema, concert, theatre. The research also identifies the main barriers to accessing culture for youth, the level of using the internet for cultural purposes and participation to cultural exchange programs.

This survey was conducted by TNS Opinion and Social network in 27 European Countries and Croatia, using eurobarometer interviews surveys, as methodology, and 26,563 respondents were interviewed at their place, face to face in their mother tongue. The Eurobarometer 399 on 'Cultural Access and Participation' came as a continuation of initiatives taken after the Agenda for Culture (2007) which had as objectives that "the cultural sector and EU institution to jointly promote:

-cultural diversity and intercultural dialogue

- culture as a catalyst for creativity for growth and jobs

- culture as a vital element in the Union's international relations"[2]

in the same time this research was made to see the changes that took place in domain of participation to culture in comparison with the findings of the Special Eurobarometer 278 on 'European Cultural Values' for which data had been collected in February-March 2007.

The Special Eurobarometer 278 from 2007 was realized also by TNS Opinion and Social Network , the number of respondents being 26755 from 27 EU countries. The methodology was also eurobarometer, the authority which carried it out was the Directorate General for Communication (Unit for Public Opinion and Media Monitoring).

One of the main findings of the Special Eurobarometer 278 "European Cultural Values" European Youth (age 15-24) was that the associated the term of "culture" more with Arts (performance arts and visual arts) 34% than with traditions,

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1 Trommsdorff G., Chen X.(2012) – "Values, Religion and Culture in Adolescent Development", Cambridge University Press

2 European Comission (co-ordinated) -Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" (2013)p.2 source: http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

languages, customs and social or cultural communities – 28%, also than literature, poetry, playwriting, authors – 20% from the total of youth.1

As a general view over the differences between data obtained at the end of these two researches, it is noticed a decrease in the participation to culture of European citizens on most of dimensions and indicators as: watching or listened to a cultural program on TV or on the radio at least once (72% in 2013 compared to 78% in 2007, reading a book at least once (68% in 2013 compared to 71% in 2007), visiting a historical monument or site at least once (52% in 2013 compared to 54% in 2007),visiting a museum or a gallery at least once (37% in 2013 compared to 41% in 2007), being to a concert at least once (35% in 2013 compared to 37% in 2007), visiting a public library at least once (31% in 2013 compared to 35% in 2007), being to the theatre at least once (28% in 2013 compared to 32% in 2007). The same values were obtained regarding seeing a ballet, a dance performer or an opera at least once (18%) and about being to the cinema at least once, the rate of participation in 2013 were more than in 2007 (52% in 2013 than 51% in 2007). The report notes that "this decline might be partly an effect of the financial and economic crises."2

in this general context, the consumption and participation to culture among the youth in Europe (age 15-24), take a specific form.

At the question: "How many times in the last 12 months have you watched or listen to a cultural programme on TV or on the radio? " (Table 1) 27% from age 15-24 respondents, didn't watch or listen cultural programme but 35% watched or listened cultural programme more that 5 times, the fewer from the all category of ages, 72% watched or listened TV or radio cultural programmeat least once in last year, on the second in the hierarchy of the other categories of ages, with 1% lower that 40-45 ages category.

In the report from 2013 is mentioned that similar pattern was revealed in the context of reading books. in 2007, the rate of this category of youth (15-24 age) who read books last year, was of of 82% which was the highest rate of all the other categories of ages.

At the question "How many times in the last 12 months have you been to the cinema?", the European youth were the most of all categories of age that had been more that 5 times – 30% compared to age 25-39 respondents (17%), to age 40-54 respondents (11%) and age 55+ respondents (only 6%) – Table 2. in 2013 the rate of youth (15-24 ages) that had been to the cinema at least once is 80% , with 2 % lower than in 2007 (82%).

Participation of European citizens to a concert, according to the research, is very low. in the same time, the youth had been to a concert more often than the other category of ages 6% of them had been to a concert for more than 5 times, 49% hadn't been at all in the last 12 months, 33% of them had been to a concert for more than 3-5 times in last 12 months. - Table 3. Compared to 2007, the percent of this category of youth that had gone to a concert at least once in last year, is almost similar, lower by only 1% (52% in 2007 versus 51% in 2013).

At the question "How many times in the last 12 months have you been to the theatre?" 32% of youth (15-24 ages) had been to the theatre at least once, compared to 27% of the 25-39 aged and the 40-54 aged respondents (30%) or the 55+ aged (25%).– Table 4 .There is a slight decrease of 3pct points of the youth going to the theatre in the last year from 35% in 2007 to 32% in 2013.

As a partial conclusion it can be noticed that, from all cultural activities, done at least once in last 12 months, European youth (15-24 ages) prefer the most to go tp the cinema (80%), then watching or listening a TV or radio cultural programs (72%), on the third place, going to a concert (51%) and on the last place going to a theatre (32%).

in the same time the participating of European youth (15-24 ages) to cultural activities in 2013 was lower that in 2007, but the percent of differences wasn't so big.

Another dimension measured by the research was "barriers to accessing culture".

The main reason the European youth did not participate more often in cultural activities is lack of interest, particularly for ballet/ dance performer/ opera (60%) or theatre (46%). for youth, price is more of a barrier to access theatre (18%) while

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1 Special Eurobarometer 278 "European Cultural Values" – TNS Opinion & Social – survey requested by Directorate General Education and Culture, coordinated by Directorate General Communication (2007) p.8 source:
http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_278_en.pdf
2 Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" European Comission (co-ordiated) (2013) p.5 source:
http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

the main reasons for not visiting historical monuments are – to a similar extent – lack of interest and lack of time (35%).- Table 5,6,7.

Another goal of the survey was to measure the access to and participation in non-national cultural activities:

In this context, the percent of European youth (15-24 age) who in last 12 months had read "at least" one book by an author from another European country was the biggest of all the ages categories, 38%, compared to 33% (ages 24-39), to 32% (ages 40-54), 26% (ages 55+).1

It happened the same with the answer of question:" How many times in the last 12 months have you watched or listened to a cultural programme on TV or on radio from another European country", the percent of European youth, 31%, was the biggest of all the other categories of ages.

The data obtained after addressing question:" How many times in the last 12 months have you visited a historical monument or site (palaces, castles, churches, gardens, etc) in another EU country are very close one to the other regarding all the categories of ages 22% (ages 15-24), 21% (ages 25-39), 21% (ages 40-54), and less for the category of 55+ages – only 16%.2

As we can notice, the rate of European youth who had read a book written by a foreign author are the highest from all the others(38%), being followed by watching or listening TV or radio programme from another EU country (31%), and by visiting a monument or site in another EU country.

Regarding the Involvement in artistic activities for the 15-24 ages respondents, 45% of them said spontaneous that are not involved in none artistic activities, 23% said that are involved in dancing and 18% said that they made a film or done some photography. 16% had sung, also 16% played to a musical instrument, 15% had done creative computing such as designing, websites or blogs, etc, 11% had written a poem, an essay, a novel, 6% had acted on the stage or in a film. The same, they are the most involved in artistic activities than all the other categories of age, participation decreasing in the same time with increasing of age.3

In 2007 the artistic activity which had the highest rate of European youth participation(age 15-24) was photography/film (31%) followed by dance (29%) and decorating, handicrafts,gardening (29%), writing something (21%), singing (21%), playing a musical instrument (17%), acting (9%).4

Also in this case we can notice that the rate of youth involvement in artistic activities, in 2013 is lower than in 2007 for each type of activity considered.

Another dimension researched in the survey was using the internet for cultural purposes.

The answers the question:" How often do you use the Internet for cultural purpose like, for instance, searching for cultural information, buying cultural products, or reading articles related to culture?" revealed that European youth (age 15-24) use the internet in percent of 44% at least once a week, the biggest percent of all the others categories of ages. 53% of European youth (15-24 age) use internet for listening to radio or music and 50% for downloading music, compared to the other categories of ages that use internet the most for reading the newspaper or articles online.5

As a conclusion the European youth (age 15-24) participate more than the other categories of ages in many and various cultural activities.

All the survey data were and for sure will be very important in creating and implementation of cultural policies at European level and also in each of the member countries, taking into consideration the importance of culture and creativity, well underlined as a quotation in the Introduction of Special Eurobarometer 278 (2007):

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1 Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" European Comission (co-ordiated) (2013) p.44 source: http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

2 Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" European Comission (co-ordiated)(2013) p.46

3 Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" European Comission (co-ordiated) (2013) p.53 source: http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

4 Special Eurobarometer 278 "European Cultural Values" – TNS Opinion & Social – survey requested by Directorate General Education and Culture, coordinated by Directorate General Communication (2007) p.23 source: http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_278_en.pdf

5 Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" European Comission (co-ordiated) (2013)p.60 source: http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

"Culture and creativity are important drivers for personal development, social cohesion and economic growth. Today's strategy promoting intercultural understanding confirms culture's place at the heart of our policies."1

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Trommsdorff G., Chen X.– "Values, Religion and Culture in Adolescent Development", (2012) Cambridge University Press

Tables

Tabel 1: "How many times in the last 12 months have you watched or listen to a cultural programme? "

Source: European Comission (co-ordinated) -Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" p.13
http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

	Not in the last 12 months	1-2 times	3-5 times	More than 5 times	Don't know	Total "at least once"
Age						
15-24	27%	21%	16%	35%	1%	72%
25-39	28%	19%	13%	39%	1%	71%
40-54	26%	15%	16%	42%	1%	73%
55+	28%	13%	14%	44%	1%	71%

Table 2: "How many times in the last 12 months have you been to the cinema?"

	Not in the last 12 months	1-2 times	3-5 times	More than 5 times	Don't know	Total "at least once"
Age						
15-24	20%	24%	26%	30%	-	80%
25-39	33%	30%	20%	17%	-	67%
40-54	46%	26%	17%	11%	-	54%
55+	72%	14%	7%	6%	1%	27%

Source: European Comission (co-ordinated) -Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" p.16
http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

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1 Special Eurobarometer 278 "European Cultural Values" – TNS Opinion & Social – survey requested by Directorate General Education and Culture, coordinated by Directorate General Communication (2007) p.3 source: http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_278_en.pdf quotation from http://ec.europa.eu/culture/eac/communication/comm_en.html

Tabel 3 : "How many times in the last 12 months have you been to the concert?"

	Not in the last 12 months	1-2 times	3-5 times	More than 5 times	Don't know	Total "at least once"
Age						
15-24	49%	33%	12%	6%	-	51%
25-39	60%	28%	8%	4%	-	40%
40-54	65%	25%	6%	4%	-	35%
55+	75%	16%	5%	3%	1%	24%

Source: European Comission (co-ordinated) -Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" p.18
http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

Table 4: "How many times in the last 12 months have you been to the theatre?"

	Not in the last 12 months	1-2 times	3-5 times	More than 5 times	Don't know	Total "at least once"
Age						
15-24	68%	24%	5%	3%	-	32%
25-39	72%	20%	5%	2%	1%	27%
40-54	70%	21%	6%	3%	-	30%
55+	74%	17%	5%	3%	1%	25%

Source: European Comission (co-ordinated) -Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" p.19
http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

Table 5:

Question:"And for each of the following activities, please, tell me why you haven't done it more often in the last 12 months?" the responses of youth had:

Seen a ballet, a dance performance or an opera

	Lack of interest	Lack of time	Too expansive	Limited choice or poor quality of this activity in the place where you live	Lack of information
Age					
15-24	60%	15%	11%	8%	3%
25-39	48%	24%	14%	9%	2%
40-54	47%	22%	15%	10%	2%
55+	47%	12%	16%	12%	2%

Source: European Comission (co-ordinated) -Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" p.32
http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

Table 6

Been to the theatre

Age	Lack of interest	Lack of time	Too expansive	Limited choice or poor quality of this activity in the place where you live	Lack of of information
15-24	46%	19%	18%	8%	4%
25-39	34%	29%	21%	10%	3%
40-54	32%	27%	21%	12%	3%
55+	36%	15%	20%	14%	2%

Source: European Comission (co-ordinated) -Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" p.34 http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

Table 7

Visited a historical monument or site (palaces, castles, churches, gardens, etc

Age	Lack of interest	Lack of time	Too expansive	Limited choice or poor quality of this activity in the place where you live	Lack of of information
15-24	35%	35%	9%	7%	3%
25-39	45%	25%	9%	9%	3%
40-54	45%	22%	10%	8%	2%
55+	25%	31%	11%	9%	3%

Source: European Comission (co-ordinated) -Special Eurobarometer 399 "Cultural Access and Participation" p.36 http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_399_en.pdf

PUBLIC ENTERPRISES PRIVATIZATION,THE COSTS AND BENEFITS (ALBANIA CASE)

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Abstract

Privatization is the process that transfers the ownership of an enterprise ,service agency or public asset to the private sector,from which ,essentisal positive.effects in the capital markets, financial assets and working groups, are expected. It affects the interests of different groups of the population and includes 80% of all the economic activities including the fields of energy, oil and gas, telecommunications, forests and waterways, roads and railways, ports and airports, rail and inland waterway. Over the past ten years a large amount of privatizations has been accomplished in Albania, indeed, many companies, institutions, societies, mines, which previously had been owned by the state, have now become private property.But does it affect the national economy in a positive or a negative way? Had the privatizations in our country been done in the right extent? in the process of economy's transformation, the emphasis is found in the structural reform, where one of the pillars that support these reforms is the process of privatization. This article will provide a detailed and an accurate situation of the development of this process in Albania, based on the assumption that "the privatization affects positively the state economy", what went right and what did not work properly, how can we take action in order to achieve an improvement? What are the costs and the benefits of the process of privatization in terms of macroeconomic, microeconomic and social aspects in Albania?

Keywords: privatizion,public enterprises, economy's transformation,public sector,costs,benefits,structural reform.

Introduction

In the process of economy's tranforming the emphasis is to structural reforms where one of the supporting pillars these reforms is process of privatization. Privatization is a political basis process that changes the role of the state in the economy but also society as a whole and this process in Albania is associated with social consequences such as high unemployment and moderate wages, and dismissal from work for older employees and unqualified, retraining etc..

Hypothesis

The hypothesis of this study is:

Privatization, how does it affects in a country's economy, the costs and benefits associated with. "

Argument

Privatization has not been the same in all countries, each country has its specifics in this field, every country has its laws and regulations to implement the privatization that may be different from one country to another but this is reflected in the joint results that must be, increased efficiency and productivity of enterprises through privatization, increased public investment from the revenues derived from privatization etj.Privatization is a process that is closely related to the economy and has great influence on it.

Tabela1 Framework for assessing the reform of public enterprises
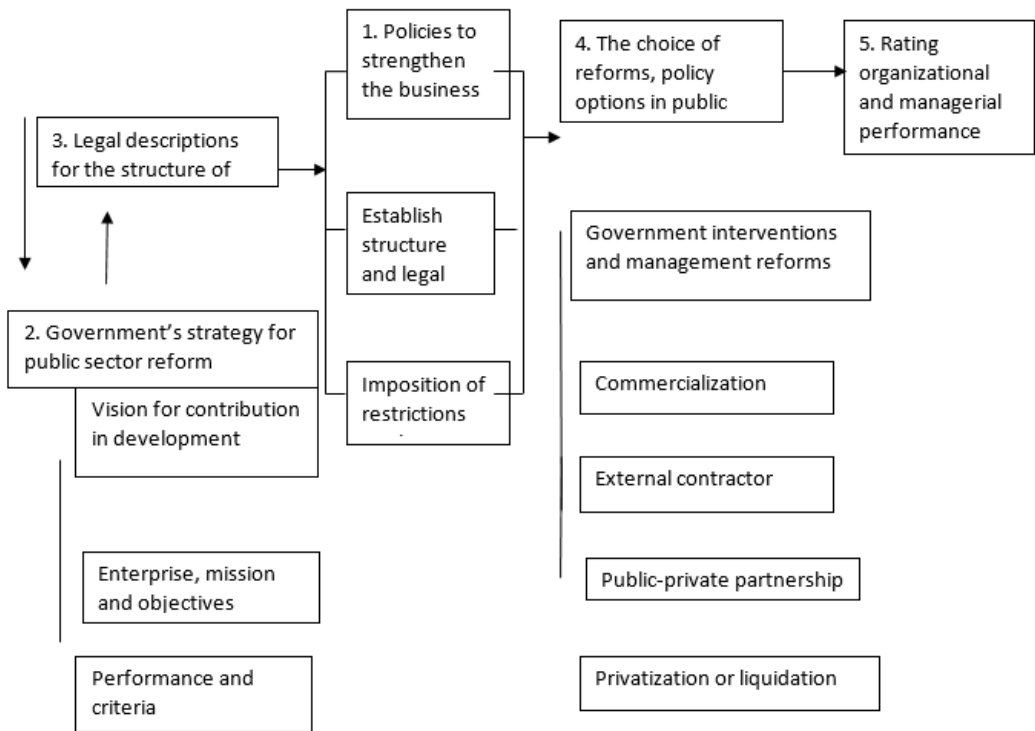
Experience has shown that governments should take the following actions to effectively manage privatization.

Development of a strategic management plan for privatization.

Establish an effective privatization agency.

To choose appropriate methods of privatization

To develop clearly and transparent way, privatization procedures

Application as appropriate methods of assessment and evaluation

Establish effective financial structures for participation in the privatization of the private sector.

Establish an effective system of supervision and regulation of the government especially for natural monopolies.

To assist in strengthening the capacity of private sector management

Establish measures for the protection of employment for current government workers in organizations to be privatized.

Method and Participants

This work is carried out according to a study in public and private institutions in Albania, which has involved a certain number of individuals who have provided relevant information regarding to the topic. Participants are leaders in these institutions who were ready to contribute in this direction.

Materials

All constructs were measured using as instruments, sources obtained from existing literature in appropriate institutions, revising and bringing them adapting to study.

Procedure

The direct meeting with the directors of these institutions to gather information about what happens in public and private enterprises.Received informacion at their websites and compare for the changes associated with their benefits and costs

Results

The aim of this paper is to be familiar with the process of privatization and it's effects in economy.

Objectives

Description of the privatization process

• Identify the effects of this process on economy

• Introduction to the progress of privatization in our country

• efficiency, costs, economic and social benefits.

• Drawing conclusions and recommendations.

As a conclusion based on the study we can say that,from the experience of the privatization process in Albania, this process would be beneficial for the economy of this country.

Findings in the privatization process

Economic reform process began in July 1992 when the government program was supported by the agreement "stand by" with the International Monetary Fund. Based on international expertise, the process of turning public property into private was conducted on the basis of a clear program and higher rates.Criterias and methods of achieving this goal had been improving and enriched continuously. in Albania the transfer of the right of ownership is widely used in the privatization process during the period 1991-2000. The privatization of the economy, as a process that changed the appearance of the Albanian society took two stages and concrete.

1.The first phase, privatization of small and medium enterprises (SME).

Small enterprises considered all those who had the money value equal to no more than $ 100,000, or no more than 50 workers.

Medium enterprise considered all those who had the money value equal to no more than $ 500,000, or less than 300 workers

2. The second phase , privatization of large enterprises.

Large enterprises were considered all that had value in money equal to about $ 500,000, or about 300 workers

Findings on the benefits and costs of the privatization process

Now days more mixed organizational forms of public enterprises that combine centralized management of a number of decisions and proper response to market signals are receiving a significant advantage

In these conditions will be a part of a public enterprise economically optimal solution?

 Our response is based on benefit-cost analysis on this two moments.

1 - Benefits may result from government intervention in cases of market failure or in cases where the behavior of private producers in terms of profit maximization becomes incompatible with the interests of maximizing Social Welfare.

2-Cost will have in cases of organizational failure associated with different specific mechanisms A special tool institutional like public company can achieve a target avoidance behavior in relation to private enterprise ,as pricing based on marginal costs instead of price based on marginal income in a natural monopoly situation, but at the same time it can produce undesired deviations, lets say, inefficiencies costs that should be compared with the costs associated with other mechanisms of interference in private interprise

Microeconomic Benefits

 Privatization brings some benefits for state enterprises:

1)Increased efficiency and cost reduction is the removal of excess employees from those companies, which contributes in this direction and also private decision encourages employees to be motivated to defend their place of work.

2) Increased investment

The pass of interprise from situation with loss and lack of investment resources towards creating opportunities for investment and expansion of domestic and foreign shareholders.

3) The new form of management

Have increased motivation which increases even further by the presence of foreign investors, but also by the lack of political pressures in the decision making of managers

4) Technology and Training

New investment means the most advanced technology accompanied with a full training employees to use this technology.

Macroeconomic Benefits

Privatization brings macroeconomic benefits such as:

1.Fiscal Stability

State finances could be improved in two ways:

By spending cuts to cover the subsidy and losses of enterprises, thus reducing inflation pressure and destabilizing effects on the one hand and the state can receive income from the sale of state enterprises on the other hand

2. The development of the capital market

In countries without a developed capital market is difficult to sell shares to local and foreign investors and as a result the process of privatization can not succeed, but some countries have used privatization to promote capital market development.

3.Increased competition

Through privatization local products enter in new markets, and it promotes competition and increased efficiency of production of services. But on the other and the loss of state subsidy should be done gradually to ensure that the enterprise has a capable structure for a competition in markets where will enter.

4. Attracting Foreign Investment

Privatization stabilizes fiscal and economy situation of the country the for a longer term. A stable macroeconomic environment encourages investment, especially foreign investment, bringing benefits that are important to achieving the country's future.

Costs of Privatization

 The lack of a strategy (short, medium, long) would ensure harmonization of economic objectives, social and financial micro and macro level, the supply-demand balance in privatization with final aiming for due process efficient

Massive privatization program through issuance of bonds resulted in a political-propaganda bluff with difficult bill for repairs.

According to statistics of the AKP, in 2005 in massive, small and medium privatization, are used 10.2 billion ALL privatization shares and 4.6 billion ALL privatization, therefore a total amount of 14.8 billion ALL and from these, are used only 16.3%

of the amount of privatization shares while were privatized 107 joint stock company and many of small and medium enterprises.

Speed of performing the process of privatization before and not parallel with the privatization of the banking system created a number of issues for young entrepreneurs financing.

Problems in relation to the former owners of the land. Existence of the Law No. 7698 dated .0415.1993 "for restitution and compensation of property to former owners' and decisions on the basis of which carried out the privatization process and activity of the commissions for return and compensation of properties was not rare in contradiction with each other.

Fragmentation of former state enterprises and their piecemeal sales, have made to be out of focus of private entities, causing the state to pay thousands of officer and guard without any interest.

Failure of financial guarantees and customer management skills buyer, has made a piece of manufacturing unit to fall in the unsafe "hands"

Selling unconditionally development has ensured treated equally, manufacturing facilities as well as those non-productive causing consequences in economy's development.

Revenues from privatization in years

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Actual income from privatization	2,358	309	616	910	133	906	8,932	12,686	485	899	14,356
	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012*	2013		
	887	1,972	13,246	5,538	25,138	411	438	888	N/A		

Actual income from privatization

Successful privatizations in years

AMC Albanian Mobile Communication: is a telecommunications company offering since 1995 this type of service. AMC was sold at an international auction, supervisor from BERZH in which the he largest offer was presented by Consortium great Consmote (GREECE) and Telenor (Norway).Today AMC counts 600,000 subscribers, investments made in maintenance, technology, network expansion exceeding 200 million euro. It's network covers 85% of the territory and 90% of the populationand it has 300 employees

Seament Albania L.T.C in March 1997 Albania Cement Company bought 70% of shares in cement factory in Fushe Kruja and in the end of 1999 he bought a share in Elbasan Cement Factory. in July 2000m these factories were privatized and over the years they have been refurbished with a contemporary technology by increasing production capacity.

Vodafone Albania :Tender for the second GSM operator mobility was issued in September 2000.On February 2001 Vodafone Uk was elected as winner with 51% of the shares and Panafon Greece with 49%, offering 38.1 million USD. Vodafone network covers about 75% of the territory and 85% of the population, 300 million euro investment

Kürüm International Ltd: Turkish company which operates in the metallurgical industry. This company operates in Turkey and Kosovo, numbering about 530 employees, it produces only for the Albanian market but include projects which implies the possibility of exports and increase production.

National Commercial Bank: Privatization was completed in October 2000. It was sold to a consortium of investors Kentbank Turkey, IFC, EBRD for an amount of USD 10 million. This bank has increased with 40 branches and agencies in 30 cities.

Savings Bank: 2003 was a successful year for FDI in Albania. Great achievement of this the privatization was ,Savings Bank of Austrian Bank ,Raiffeisen Bank with a bid of USD 126 million.This bank has entered strongly in the financial market by increasing competition, increasing the number of services and being widespread in Albania.

Darfo Albania: The ferrochrome production is taken for a concession period of 30 years by an Italian company.

Airport Mother Teresa: has given with concession for a period of 20 years to consortium "AIRPOTPARTNERS". Signing of the contract with the American giant Lockheed-Martin for an investment of 32 million USD for installation of air traffic control that was achieved during 2004.

Revenues from privatization (million ALL)

The anticipated reveneus from privatizations

Actual reveneus from privatizations
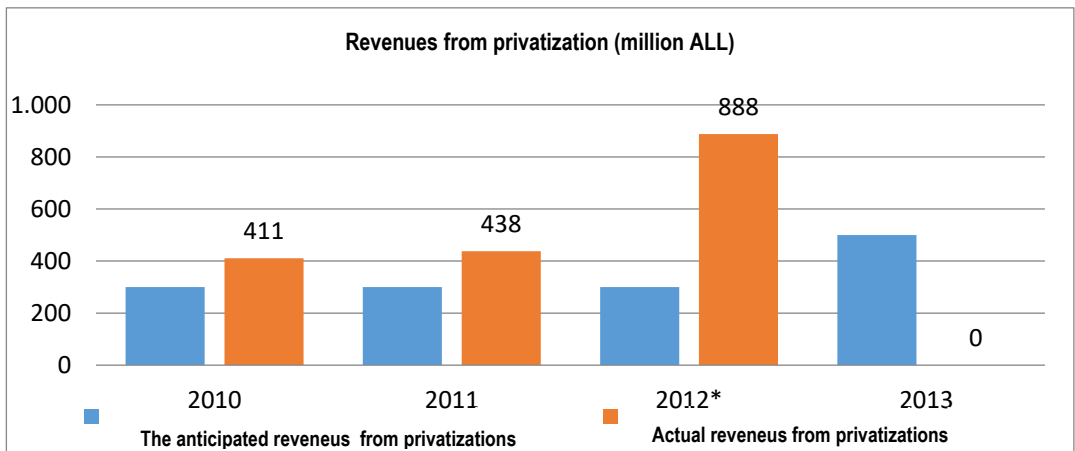
Are all privatizations successful?

Not all are successful privatizations, as an example of the failure of privatization process can mention privatization of CEZ Distribution which not only brings no benefit to the economy but has damaged it and the customer.

Inability of CEZ not deflate.Energy Regulator Office suggests in the report, if the losses would be at a low level, then the Albanian citizens will pay a low price energy.Such losses are recognized by technical and non-technical reasons, consequently not good management of these causes leads to inability to cover costs.

CEZ performance is away from objectives. Withstanding that there was an improvement in the level of collections compared to 2009, the rate of CEZ company performance is still far from adequate objectives. Greater specific level of efficiency in energy consumption is concentrated in the Tirana, Fier, Durres and Shkoder aria.

Method of billing was not correct from the part of CEZ Distribution. November,December 2012 have been recorded around 20,000 bills, issued arbitrarily and contrary to law code power measurement.

The privatization of CEZ has no change in well management,company and it is away from objectives

In 2009, 80 complaints were registered (50 households, 25 non-family, 5 licensed facilities) while in 2010 these complaints increased by 350 ,but we are not including here consultation and complaints made by electronic mail and phone.

Revenues generated by CEZ for 2008-2011(in ALL)

	2008	2009	2010	2011
Reveneus	259 521 739	268 478 261	349 347 826	352 253 623
Costs	320 043 478	400 413 043	364 000 000	430 537 089
Losses	-60 521 739	-131 934 783	-14 652 174	-78 203 466

Conclusions and recommendations

Conclusions

Privation is only one element of the reforming process of the whole Albanian society.

Public sector enterprises are more adaptable to political objectives rather than to economic objectives compatible to the logic of free market.

The absence of profit motivation that was alimented from the absence of competition caused the inefficiency of state owned enterprises. Those enterprise did not focus on producing quality product and services. They were also obliged to employ over capacity.

The process of privatization was also accompagnied by high unemployement rates.

Public sector enterprises did not have anymore subsidies.

Prices were set up artificially. in a centralized economy prices were set up by the governement.

A consolidated macroecomic environment attracs foreign investement that are essential for future economic growth.

Albania has been lacking of a planned privatization strategy. Massive privatization was not successful, the structure of the ownership of the companies was not transparent and effective.

The social cost of privization was manifested moslty through unemployement, wage inqualities.

A new kind of "enterpreneurs" and "new bourgeoisie" appeared but not from market competition, in most of the cases they were connected to corruptive affairs

Recommendations

A concrete and effective strategy is needed. Deadlines in implementation should be respected and it should be followed by post-program mechanisms that can lead to a further attraction of foreign investment.

Political stabily should be achieved in order to allow public sector enterprises to focus more in long term objectives rather than in short term objectives.

Bureaucracy in public sector decision making should be elemined gradualy consequently public sector enterprises should be more reactive towards market challenges.

State monopolies should be eliminated in these sectors where it is possible. Barriers and tariffs should be abolished not only to allow business expansion and to make public sector enterprises more competitve.

Macroeconomic stability impacts growth through boosting foreign investment.

The procedure of estimation of the value of the assets that are going to be privatized should be improved.

Transparency should be insured through fighting corruption.

The propriety of the employee should be transferred because it is on of the most transparent transferring methods that does not allow corruption.

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The Second Constitutional Monarchy Period Which is an Important Milestone in Turkish Political Traditional: Power, Politics, Bureaucracy∗

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Abstract

The second constitutional monarchy period is an important milestone in both the customs and legacies it handed down to Turkish political culture and the specific characteristics of the period. The movement which a group of enlightened people and especially the young Turks lead made II.Abdülhamit declare the constitutional monarchy in 1908. From this point of view, we can say that the constitutional monarchy is the most comprehensive democratic movement in the Ottoman State. However, for the Young Turks who were the founders of freedom, the problem of saving the country rather than freedom was the main aim of their politics. The second constitutional monarchy is the first sample of multiparty system. With the collapse of monarchy, a constitutional system was formed and political parties which are indispensables of democracy were established. This inevitably contributed the development of democratic culture in power/opposition conflict. But, this disagreement focused "intolerance" in politics rather than increasing the ability of conflicting culture acceptance. An important aspect of the second constitutional monarchy is that it passes the strong burocracy tradition on commonwealth burocracy. This situation has closely impressed Turkish state tradition. Another issue that makes the period important is the thoughts and actions of Young Turks. in the direction of this data, rather than what the second constitutional monarchy has brought, how this return has affected the political power tradition in view of political heritage and in what aspects it has influenced the burocracy and democracy tradition have been aimed in this study. Several scientific sources related to the topic have been searched and a point of view has been reached in order to reach this aim.

Keywords: Power, politics, the second constitutional monarchy, burocracy, soldier.

Introduction

The second constitutional monarchy period has an exceptional place in the Turkish political history. Civil-military relations, which was shaped by the intervention of the soldier to the civil power, has almost become a class by getting more central with the new citizen type tried to be formed within the axis of westernization and 1908 bureaucracy impact getting its power from the reforms. Besides, the Young Turk intelligentsia has moved away from the public by trying to fold the public to the direction it wished. However, among the important events of the period, there are the fights of statist elites against the political elite and the Committee of Union and Progress (CUP) that was remarkable in the period and the solution suggestions used or applied by Young Turk intelligentsia for saving the empire. Therefore, we cannot assess the events occurred during the second constitutional monarchy period as events which were lived and finished in that period. Indeed, its effect to the Turkish political history and the history of republic is undeniable.

The statist braw understanding powered by the military custody occuring after that period had seen the environment or public as an organism which must be converted, by moving the center from the environment day by day. Relations of political power and political opposition was built on intolerance and it has kept on a continuously stressing plane. As the understanding of excessive state became more decisive in individual-state relations, the Western concept of democracy has become authoritarian/guided democracy by mutating in the hands of bureaucratic elites. At the end, the fact that the republic period used many concepts or thoughts belonging to the second constitutional monarchy and the continuation of the second constitutional monarchy bureaucracy by being transferred to the republic bureaucracy and the deterioration of state-public relations against the state can be seen as the important heritages left by this term to the political culture.

In this study, CUP's democracy understanding, its relations with the public, its view of public as a lumpen by moving away from the environment and the approaches of public engineering of intelligentsia and lastly the applications of bureaucratic elitist paradigm and its relations with the opposition will be expressed generally.

Democracy, Public, Intelligentsia and Bureaucracy

The second constitutional monarchy, which was announced by Abdulhamid with the struggles of CUP, gives the first sample of a multi-party system. A constitutional environment was created with the overthrow of monarchy and the political parties that are indispensable for democracy started to come out one by one. This situation inevitably brought the conflicts of political power and political opposition and contributed the development of democratic culture. Many parties were founded in this period and their common point has been the Liberty and Entente Party (LEP). The ultimate purpose of LEP is to make CUP far from the power.

The discourse that the power was taken in an illegal way and the other reasons were enough for the opposition to grind against the power. At the same time, the fact that the power deemed itself as the only owner of country and it legalized its actions on behalf of the salvation of country caused the opposition get increasingly stiffened against the power. Indeed, CUP was exposed to great pressures in the elections in 1912. 1912 election, which were made with open vote-secret counting, is known as "the sticked election" because of this reason. From this perspective, the confrontational culture has placed the concept of "intolerance" to the focus of politics rather than improving its ability to digest politics.

Completely different ideological paradigms of power and opposition has made the relations more brittle. CUP, which was leaded by positivist Ahmet Rıza, and the LEP, which was leaded by Prince Sebahattin's decentralist thoughts, thought in different ways as the salvation prescription. Ahmet Rıza was for centralism and Muslim-Ottoman nationalism and against all kind of foreign interventions made to the Ottoman Empire. By contrast, Prince Sabahattin was for a decentralist government that gives as much place as possible for the private enterprise which he deemed as an important factor for development. He was not against the commercial enterprises and political interventions to be made to Ottoman Empire for accelerating the development. Ahmet Rıza and his friends were opposing this idea in a relentless way and the separation between his and Prince Sabahattin's groups started to be clear as one of the separations between Turkish nationalism and Ottoman Liberalism (Lewis, 1993). Indeed, the conversion of Turkism into the Turkish nationalism happened with the Committee of Union and Progress. However, as the Committee of Union and Progress could not stand for the liquidation of the Ottoman Empire, it had to be extremely cautious in this case and it kept its purpose hidden from even itself for a long time (Akşin, 1998).

In reality, there was a political activism aiming to save the state rather than an economic program on the foreground of Young Turk idea. The main purpose of Young Turks was to save the Ottoman State's autonomy and geographical integrity against its gradual fragmentation (Keyder, 1993). Tanör (1999), just like Keyder, says that the main purpose of Young Turks was to save the Empire rather than freedom, because there will be less nations separating from the Empire in a regime in which there are freedom and justice. Thus, to establish a modern management by ending II. Abdulhamid's absolutism and to give political rights and justice to all regardless of their religions were deemed as the only way to ensure the State's survival (Akşin, 1987). Therefore, the intelligentsia, who were scattered, combined in particular publishing organs and they sought for solutions to prevent the ending of Ottoman Empire. Political thought flows confronted us for the first time because of this reason. A bundle of thoughts emerged when the interminnent thought in the country were added to the thoughts imported by Young Turks who were attracted to the Western culture. in General, Westernism, Islamism, Turkism and Socialism appear to be the popular thoughts of the second constitutional monarchy period.

Concepts like positivism, constitutionalism and populism created the main elements of Young Turk bureaucracy which represented a centralist bureaucratic staff strengthening with the reforms. So it was necessary to take science and technology of the West to save the state and to transform the public in accordance with this new formation. At this point, the mission of Young Turk intelligentsia was to bring light to the public and teach them what is good or bad (Hanioglu, 1986). The Young Turk intelligentsia deemed the intelligentsia obliged and required to transform the public by seeing it as an organism. This positivist perspective used to create intelligentsia theory constantly and legalize their actions (Kahraman, 2010). Heper (2006) emphasizes that there bureaucratic elites had an utopian thought and they believed that they could create a future in this way by dreaming a fictional future just because they want so.

The Young Turks used to be consistent of both the intellectuals who studied in foreign schools and effected from the foreign thoughts and the bureaucrats who took higher education in modern schools in the country. Therefore, they used to think that the education of the public was necessary for the salvation of the country. However, as they could not get the expected support from the public for long years, the public became unreliable for them. in this context, ideology of populism of the

Young Turks reflects the idea that the educated people should bring light to the public, so they should try to adopt their own 'rights' to the public rather than a democratic and liberal aspect (Köker, 1993). in other words, their relations with the public could not go further than educating it by publishing and calling them to be vigilant against the acts causing due to the Armenian issue (Petrosyan, 1974).

CUP staff used the power of military and government bureaucracy for taking the power rather than taking the support of people, because of this, the revolution in 1908 was the victory of bureaucracy and intelligentsia hierarchy (Karpat, 2012). At the same time, CUP, which could not get any support from the public during modernization, was always alone and was the representative of the bureaucratic intelligentsia, understood that taking the power with the revolution in 1908 did not mean to take the public (Gevgilili, 1990). As mentioned above, this case caused anger and rage against the public and CUP referred to Populism, which was produced and built by them, to show that they were not against the public. Naturally, this kind of populism is a concept in which the bureaucratic intelligentsia decides on behalf of the public and deems it legitimate rather than a concept demanded and used by the public itself (Heper, 1974) Thus, the tradition to be separated from the public, started by the bureaucracy of reforms, continued and developed by the bureaucracy of CUP.

CUP, which was remarkable in the period and had the political power, was far from being a typical political party as its structure was mainly consistent of civil-soldier bureaucrats. This elitist/bureaucratic structure of CUP will take its relations with both the political parties and the public in a traumatic plane. This case resulted the raise of opposition after July 1908 and the transition of CUP into an attitude that we can call 'authoritarian democracy' (Cavdar, 1999). Indeed, the bureaucrats of CUP got closer to despotism day by day for raising its share in the economy when they had the power (Küçükömer, 1994) and against the possibility that the public or opposition would get stronger with the liberalist policies, bureaucrats such as Murat and Ahmet Rıza Bey, who told the military medicals that the situation is not like they think, suggested to be the leader for the public and believed that the public did not have place in the unit to be established, started the progress of separation from the public at the beginning especially after the second constitutional monarchy (Mardin, 1992). Naturally, CUP bureaucrats that are attracted to the Western culture understood that that were not ready to take the power of such cosmopolitan society when they took it, however this situation accelerated them to rotate through domination day by day (Tunaya, 2004).

Role and efficiency of civil-soldier bureaucracy and Ottoman-Turkish politics in which some of the intelligentsia can be included increased in parallel with the corporisation of modernization struggles by getting more common and they became the main actor of modernization of bureaucracy which confronted us as a class in time (Kaliber, 2007). Bureaucratic centralism and bureaucratic oligarchy and the Ottoman Empire's excessive state understanding, which started with the reforms, took a more solid appearance in the hands of Young Turk intelligentsia which built the second constitutional monarchy. However, the free did not have much meaning for CUP whose main purpose was to save the country. Actually it is very hard to say that they did contribution to the freedom except the re-announcement of the Ottoman Basic Law. Indeed, the facts that they did not take serious the actions which were not created by them, they did not have the principles to determine their future and they thought that the collective discipline was superior than the individualism and the policy must be kept under a central/oligarchic control, are important in terms of their determination for the future (Ahmad, 1995).

Conclusion

The second constitutional monarchy period has remarkably effected the coming periods with its features such as the creation of power-opposition culture, weakening of center's link with the environment, the public's transition within Westernization, the new citizen type, pressure of the military on the power, positivism which was tried to be built on the Ottoman tissue.

At the same time, we can say that the second constitutional monarchy period was maybe the most serious democratic breakthrough in Ottoman state. It can be seen that political parties were created, different ideas were expressed and important developments in constitutionalism were made within the polyphony brought by it, even if it is not in the Western sense. Ultimately, we can say that; the second constitutional monarchy period has deeply influenced the Turkish political traditions with its events and thoughts (positive or negative).

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Evaluation of the role of the peers in the communication with pupils who represent aggressive behaviour in the classroom environment

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Abstract

Aim: The aim of this article is to evaluate the role of peers/ school friends during the adaption phase in the school environment of children aggressive behaviour, aged 11-14 with. The article aims at identifying how the other children perceive the aggressive behaviour and how they react towards this behaviour. Methods: This is a qualitative research. The methods used are: analysing the secondary data and also information gathered by semi-structured interviews with pupils. The Interviews are part of the general research made for the PHD-theses. This study includes a sample of 20 pupils who are part of the same classrooms identified with high level of aggressive behaviour. The questions of the semi-structured interviews tend to explore how the aggressive behaviour of some children in the class affects the emotional comfort of other children.The analysis of secondary data is based on the existing literature of national and international studies and policies related to the field of aggressivity and in the high schools. Results: in general, the situation of conflicts with the expressed disruptive behaviour is seen in an resilient point of view from the peer group. They reflect conformism in some situations where they are passive part of a conflict. Most of the pupils interviewed emphasize how essential is the intervention of the teachers or an adult in cases when the conflict involves them directly. Some cases were successful just because the classmates created a comfortable environment for the aggressive children inside the classroom. The intervention of a teacher was important to resolve difficult situations in the classroom environment.Conclusions: If we contribute to have a positive environment in the classroom with the support of the teachers than we can have better quality of the emotional wellbeing of all children in the classroom.

Keywords: aggressive children; peers, emotional comfort, conflict, classroom.

Introduction

Human aggression is any behaviour directed toward another individual that is carried out with the proximate (immediate) intent to cause harm. in addition, the perpetrator must believe that the behaviour will harm the target, and that the target is motivated to avoid the behaviour (Bushman& Anderson 2001,Baron& Richardson 1994, Berkowitz 1993, Geen 2001). A way of interpreting this definition is that in the aggressive behaviour an important role is set by the way on how the individuals interpret the behaviour and its consequences. We deal with aggression every day in our lives and in any environment, but as Thomas &Bierman (2006) suggested, there is mounting evidence that school environments can contribute to the socialization and promotion of childhood aggressive behaviour. Research suggests that exposure to grade school classrooms with many aggressive members may increase risk for persistent aggressive behaviour problems (Barth, Dunlap, Dane, Lochman, & Wells, 2004; Kellam, Ling, Merisca, Brown &lalongo, 1998). This article aims at evaluating the roles of peers/ school friends during the adaption phase in the school environment of children with aggressive behaviour, aged 11-14. It is important to identify how the other children perceive the aggressive behaviour and how they react towards this behaviour. This study was conducted in a classroom identified with high level of aggressivity.

In accordance with Thomas &Bierman (2006), there are three mechanisms that contribute to the negative impact of high aggression classrooms. First are the social norms, according to the person-group similar model (Tversky, 1997), which states that groups who have high concentrations of aggressive members create a "social" environment, in which the aggressive behaviours are seen as normal, making them socially acceptable. Second, "deviancy training" models, who suggest that aggressive children when paired tend to model, provoke or reinforce antisocial behaviour (Dishion, McCord &Poulin, 1999). And, third, studies also suggest that classrooms that contain many aggressive-disruptive students make it difficult for teachers to forge positive relationships with students and use effective behaviour management strategies to maintain control of the classroom (Brophy, 1996; Hawkins, VonCleve, & Catalano 1991; Hughes,Cavell, & Jackson, 1999). The combination of these three mechanisms, contribute to the rising of aggressive behaviours in students, by being frequently exposed to them in the school environment.

Previous research suggest that the exposure to aggressive behaviours in the classrooms, promotes increases in child aggression, but we should also mention that this impact of exposure varies in developmental timing and length (Thomas &Bierman, 2006). This means that if this exposure occurs early in elementary school or across multiple school years, might have a stronger impact on child's aggressive behaviour and might also affect their development in competences needed for their later behaviour in life, like social, emotional and cognitive ones. in this case children trying to adapt themselves with the aggression in school environments may be part into a socialization trajectory, in which they sustain their aggressive behaviours in later school years. Recent exposure to classrooms with many aggressive peers may function as a stressor for children, contributing to heightened sensitivity to perceived threat and self-protective hostile reactivity (Coie&Dogde, 1998). So, pupils may feel stressed while acting toward aggressive behaviour of their classmates.

Disruptive behaviour in schools has been a source of concern for school systems for several years. Indeed, the single most common request for assistance from teachers is related to behaviour and classroom management (Rose& Gallup, 2005). Effective classroom management focuses on preventive rather than reactive procedures and establishes a positive classroom environment in which the teacher focuses on students who behave appropriately (Lewis &Sugai, 1999). Rules and routines are powerful preventative components to classroom organization and management plans because they establish a behavioural context for the classroom that includes what is expected, what will be reinforced, and what will be retaught if inappropriate behaviour occurs (Colvin, Kame'enui, &Sugai , 1993). This prevents problem behaviour by giving students specific, appropriate behaviours to engage in. Monitoring student behaviour allow the teacher to acknowledge students who are engaging in appropriate behaviour and prevent misbehaviour from escalating (Colvin et al., 1993). As, it will be stated below, children report that teachers play an important role, in preventing aggressive behaviours, and in dealing with conflicts that come through them.

Aggression is an issue that continues, and will continue to be a major concern, not only for educators, but also for pupils and school environment in general. If we make some effort in trying to understand how it is expressed, and how it is perceived from our pupils, we will be able to understand it better, to understand our pupil's feelings better, and to help them in order to deal with it, and also one of the most important goals of school psychologists to prevent it.

Background in the Country:

During the last decades in our country, most of the Ministry of Education and Sciences policies emphasize how important is to offer qualitative education for all the children in the country. Therefore, during this period, in Albania it was given a more special attention to the methods of positive discipline used by teachers in school environment. in the everyday reality of managing behaviour problems in classrooms, the teachers are facing lots of difficulties treating the pupils, especially pupils who represent disruptive behaviour. in terms of involvement, all the children in the elementary school (9-year schoolsystem) can frequent the system even when they behave aggressively; children who show persistent disruptive behaviour, and the teachers, eventually say they face many difficulties. in their opinion, the school should have forms of punishment where children who need specialized treatment intervention receive a special education. While the philosophy of inclusive education sees the schools as an institution of vocational education, not only associated with academic achievement but where children are educated and adapt to the norms of the society. This demands the introduction of training for teachers and intervention plans to influence the deep recognition of positive discipline methods by teachers and staff. The quality of the student relationships is an essential factor to the welfare of students and recently in Albania has been given special importance of this phenomenon. It is important to study this phenomenon based on the analysis of these type of relations. in this background, this study plans to understand how they build, preserve and maintain their relationship with students and other students who display aggressive behaviour. What are their cognitions, what are the beliefs they have built to manage relations with these students.

Core problems about inclusive education

Regarding international reports for inclusive education, we have a lot of good strategies and policies but they are not fulfilling the real needs of children, who behave aggressively in schools. If we take in consideration the physical infrastructure of the public schools, we can see that they are well reconstructed, having in consideration the space and the physic environment for adolescents. The classrooms in the urban middle schools are wide;full of light, but the number of pupils in the same classroom is approximately from 35 to 38. This is not a small number and sometimes the classrooms are small for this number which increases constantly. It can be very difficult to feel comfortable in the classroom. Another problem exposed by teachers and instruction specialists nowadays is the phenomenon called: "the secret abandonment" of school. Pupils aged 12-13 and older, feel more free to leave the class during the lessons and go around the schools or in the community

places around. This is a big problem for parents and teachers. Usually pupils who abandon single hours or even whole school day are related to problem behaviour, such as bad communication skills, aggressive behaviour, episodes of bullyism, and the use of various drugs. They arealso pupils assigned as students with low performance. These students are not afraid of leaving the school for single days or single hours, because they think that in the school there are no rules for exemption and they can be free to behave the way they prefer. The teachers often say that there are lots of difficulties handling these children. in each classroom there are two or three persons, who behave this way. This causes consequences for the other children in the classroom. If we imagine the classroom as a unit composed by many pupils, more or less in the same level of externalised behaviours, we can think about different strategies of managing them, but when in the classroom are also pupils with maladaptive behaviour, they mix the group and, as teachers often says, the entire class becomes difficult to handle. in addition, in the everyday reality of the school there are pupils who found lots of difficulty treating with the children who behave aggressively. Following the result of some researches, children who are rejected, tend to fall into two subgroups: rejected-aggressive and rejected-withdrawn. Rejected-aggressive children are physically aggressive and bullying toward peers, while rejected-withdrawn children are often the victims of aggression by other children. Both groups display maladaptive behavior that makes it difficult for these individuals to get along with other children. (Allison Ryan , Kathryn Wentzel, Sandra Baker, B. Brown , Helen Davidson , Kathryn LaFontana, Dec 23, 2009)

Method

The methodology selected for this study is qualitative methods. After the secondary data analysis, it was found that the studies in the world have brought important data for this phenomenon. Reviewing the literature, it is taken into consideration the trend of this concept and the continuity of the treatment. The Interview was the best tool to get the biggest amount of information from the students. The interview contained open questions to receive as much as possible information from the children. The interview questions were grouped in several categories which included important indicator to be explored. There was a systematic analysis of primary data which provided us with plenty of materials to build a hypothesis in our analysis of information. Members in this study were pupils aged 12 -14 as a target group, who were especially selected for study. Some 20 pupils were divided into two groups. The semi structured interviews served as the material for this study which contained questions from the indicators to be analyzed. The Interviews data were compatible with the overall aim of the study and this tool has proved quite effective as a high value interpretative. There were questions about the information age, family status, parenting styles, as well as open questions where students were invited to give their opinions freely about the relations they have with aggressive pupils.

The pupils in the school environment face a lot of difficulties to be part of a group and also interactive part of the school system. Very few of them found difficulties maintaining the relationships with other pupils who represent aggressive behaviour.

Participants

The participants on this study were 20 pupils, part of a classroom identified as disruptive classroom by the teachers.We have made five open interviews with the children with aggressive and disruptive behaviour in the classroom or in theenvironment of the school during the process of education, and after the interviews we have created two groups of 10pupils each. The reason of the groups was to get more information by the peer and understand the factor that maintainedthe problem of aggressively. The groups of pupils were openly questioned about therelationships between peers and between them and pupils particularly aggressive. Open questions also helped that each of them to have the opportunity to express their opinion on the reasons why these students behave in this way, aggressive and destructive to the classobjects and environment, to each other and to the teachers. Some five children were the pupils who were characterized with more episodes ofaggressive behaviour and some 10 of them were pupils who have normal behaviour condition as said by the teacher.

Procedure

The procedure started with the individual interviews with five pupils with aggressive and disruptive behaviour. Then it was combined two focus groups divided by 10 pupils for each group in the psychologist's cabinet. Permission from parents, school management and teachers was takenfor the interviewing. The individual interviews were conducted in the office of the school psychologist; each of them lasted from 50-60 minutes with pupils with aggressive and destructive behaviour. It was explained to the students the reason and purpose of the study interview. It was explained that these data would be

used for a study on aggressive behaviour and the importance that had the communication between peers to stop or maintain the aggressive behaviours. It was also considered that their identity will be kept confidential and we will not be utilized for other purposes.

The group interviews of 10 pupils took place in the school psychologist's cabinet. Just in the begging of the interviews it was explained to the students the reason and purpose of the study interview. It was explained that these data would be used for a study on aggressive behaviour and the importance that had the communication between peers to stop or maintain the aggressive behaviours. It was considered that their identity will be kept confidential and we will not be utilized for other purposes. I use a dictaphone for the group interviews to have in detail all the information of the pupils.

Results

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the role of the peers in the communication with other children, who present aggressive behaviour in the classroom environment. in this way, the interviews were orientated and focused on gathering information from the pupils on how they react during anaggressive situation between them; on how they resolve the aggressive situation in that moment; on how they communicate with the aggressive and disruptive pupils in their classroom; on how the relationship as the most important factor, between them and the teacher reflect in the best solution without aggressive elements etc.

The study began with the individual interviews, so the result that are presented in this first part are the result of the aggressive and disruptive pupils. The results of the individual interviews with the pupils who represent aggressive behaviour especially were focused in their opinion and how they think about their behaviour; about their point of view; about their type of solution to resolve the situation before acting aggressively; as well as about the communication with other pupils and with the teachers.

The answers of the pupils during the individual interviews show that the relationship between them and the teacher is not so good. They don't have a constructive relation with her. On the other side they feel that the friends of the classroom accept and love them, even if behave aggressively. They understand that their behaviour is not so correct, but most of them don't know why they react this way.

One of the initial questionsis: "What kind of relationship do you think you have with your teacher?" The 90 % of the pupils responded to this question with a contradictory answer: "I have a normal relationship. She criticises me each time I do something wrong." Only two of the pupils, 10 % responded: "I don't know, I don't have a relationship with the teacher of my class."

As we mentioned before the relationship between pupils and teacher is one of the most important factor. for this reason the questions are focused in the type of the relationship. in another question: "What are the reactions of the teacher and how does she behave when you are part of an incident in the classroom example: you've started to abuse your friend in the classroom or another pupil abuses you?". in this open question they answered differently because each pupil had different point of views and different experiences.

Some of them answered that especially when he/she started to offend or physically abuse his friend, the teacher criticized him infront of the other, than together they compiled a form about the incident, or another answer was that every time that he/she is part of an aggressive incident the teacher leaves an individual appointment with the school psychologist and if the things do not work, the teacher and the psychologist meet with the parents of the children.

Regarding the second part of the question: ... when the other abuse or offend him in the classroom..... – most childrenanswered that the teacher proclaims almost all them as responsiblefor the situation, and they said that most of the time she says: "You are guilty as the other peer, you have done something for things to be like this."

Another important question was about the communication that these pupils have with the other peers in the classroom.

"What kind of relationship do you have with the other pupils? Do you feel accepted, loved by them most of the time?"

Almost all the pupils respond that they feel accepted and loved by the other, but when the incident occurred in classroom the class is divided in two groups. One of the groups is who loves and accepts them, the other group is the part that doesn't want and don't like this kind of behaviours happening in the classroom.Some pupils also criticize them or support them to change. The other peers do not talk but only dislike this behaviour.

Another question was about the thinks that they like/dislike in the communication with the teacher. Most of them express the idea that one thing that the teacher shouldn't do is to criticizes them especially in front of the other. They thing that they don't have a good relationship, and most of the time the teacher don't explain or help them improve in behave. "She is too rude with me. I want to know more about her, and she don't know more about me and my family problem. Every time she looks too busy to talk with us..."

The last important question that is helpful to present is : "If you can change or do something differently in your classroom, in your school and to your teacher what should it be?"

All the answers of the pupils were different about the changes that they could do.

One of them answers that: "I would like a different school, with a lot of sportive, entertainment and artistic activities. About the teacher I would like that my teacher improve with the relationship with me and my friends..."

Another answer was: "Everything in the school is fine, the thing that I would like to change is myself. I don't want to be a mass by I don't know how to stop being aggressive."

Another answer was: "My friends sometime make me feel bad, they offend me, and this think make me behave aggressively. I don't know how to do or what to change, the teacher even in this reason make me guilty and feel bad. If she some time can think before and then react?!"

The second part of the study contains the interviews with the two groups of 10 pupils each. The question were oriented and focused on the main idea of this study: - How the support of the teacher reflect and help improving the pupils in their aggressive behaviours and how the communication between them helps to change the behaviour?

Some of the questions below show a slightly different picture than the responses of children with aggressive and destructive behaviour. It is understandable that the groups formed with 10 pupils had their diversity, but they emphasized the significant role of the relationship between pupils and teacher. Also they emphasized the importance of the teacher's intervention in the prevention of the aggressive behaviour or the reaction of the teacher in the moment that had started to develop the aggressive.

From the information of the interviews it is clear that the best intervention to stop, prevent or resolve the aggressive behaviour it was the Relationship and communication between Teacher-pupils. This is not the only way to solve this problem, but is one of the most important which maintain success in the future.

One of the first questions was: "What kind of relationships do you have with the peers that have often become problem with their behaviour? Most of the students at the beginning of the interview stated that they have a good relationship, but when each of them began to cite cases or problems, the students began to add information to their opinion expressing dissatisfaction regarding their behaviour during the learning process often intrusive and not liked. Some of them admitted doing a little humour, that things often enlarged and moved by teachers and are always the same that are punished. Few of them admitted that they are not good students; always bring problems and make often seems to be in the spotlight.

Another important question addressed groups was: What are the things that you like and dislike on them? Many of the students said that they have many good things. - "Teachers do not recognize their problems in the family and it makes even frequently criticized, but up because they have these problems trying to see school as a place where they can have fun and maybe even their download the stress."- claims a student of the class.

 A student claims that one of them has many friends, and claims that he behave aggressively sometimes, but also heis a good friend, loyal and very loving. Others argue that one of them often offendsthe others, insults and strikes. They claim also that some of them use insulting words and do not respect the figure and the authority of the teachers.

Some others argue that perhaps this is part of the character and whatever friends they behave, their behaviour will not change. Others are of the opinion that the teacher does everything for them, but often they do not hear, they insult authoritarian figure, and not have a good relationship, but it does not come from the teacher.

What are the reasons these children behave and do not change their aggressive behaviour?

In response to this question almost all children respond that there are several reasons they behave in this way. Someone claims that - they do not know how to behave differently. Someone else claims - he did not like the rules and the authority figures such as teachers or school institution. Someone claims that - he likes to behave as strong, fall in love and look to gain popularity. Someone claims that - the fact that they're all involved in the learning process cure them to invent things and situations through which to attract attention.

This was a question that divided the group in three different ways how they behave in the moment of a situation or fight in the classroom. "How do you respond when an aggressive incident has just begun or start fights in the classroom?"

One of the ways they behave was: "I only see. I don't react or shout or call the teacher. It's not my business."

Some of them said that 'I'm afraid to act. If I inform the teacher, the peer can fight with me, or simply -they are not at all interested or concerned about it. Is their work and have to take responsibility of their behaviours.

Opinions were as far above the first group belonged to students, who appear indifferent to the aggressive behaviour.

In the second group the students asserted that they intervene immediately to separate them or do not allowed spoiling banks, doors, and other objects within the class. According to them, this can be solved by calling teachers, but their sense of immediate stoppage of action was to it immediately and after discussion with the teacher, and conversation.

In the third group of opinions on this question, they said that they call and inform the teachersimmediately, making them aware of what had happened or what may happen soon.

Another question: "What is the best way to prevent aggressive behaviour?"

The pupils presented several alternative methods of intervention, such as: informing the parents, withdrawal of conduct, written notice to the Director, communicating with other pupils of creating focus groups, communication among peers and communication and development of the relationship between teacher and children.

A large part of pupilssaid that communication between them is very effective, and seems to help them change behaviours. This relationship is stable if there's more communication between teachers and children. They alleged that the teacher is professional, knows and recognizes other ways to understand how the spiritual world of the child is, as well as has life experience more than they do, which can help a child with aggressive behaviour to change and behave in another positive way. It was a question in which students respond to almost all unanimously that the best solution would be conversations between preventive work created between teachers and pupils individually and / or group. This was deemed by them as the most efficient way. If this intervention is direct and consistent, the results are stable with the passing of time, and the resulting interventions and more successful method for inhibiting, preventing and extinguishing aggressive and destructive behaviour.

Findings of Female Pupils

The females are not aggressive and most of the time they are giving pacific and reasonable answers.

They express their feelings with compassion for the targeted pupils; they try to find reasons why they behave like this. "In their family they have a lot of personal and social and economic problems. Their parents are divorced and in my opinion this is the reason why my friend behaves like this".

To the question: "How do you respond when an aggressive incident has just begun or fightingstartsin the classroom?" some of them answered thatthey were afraid and the other girls said "I inform immediately the teacher." This expresses the feeling of being afraid. On the other hand, they showstrongness and will to help someone in danger."I can't stay and watch when the other offend or abuse someone."

Finding of Males

The same results and answers were found in the study. in the question mentioned above: "How do you respond when an aggressive incident has just begun or start fights in the classroom?" the boys didn't like to go and inform the teacher. They want more to resolve by themselves. "If I'll go to inform the teacher they will call me spy." "We are strong and we can resolve it between ourselves."

But in the last answer all together male and female respond that the best solution and intervention is the relationship and the communication between them and the teacher. This shows that both male and female pupils recognize that this is the best way to stop and prevent aggressive and disruptive behaviour. in the other way, when they have to collaborate and react by informing the teacher, they are not so ready to do this thing. They tend to resolve this kind of problems with each other, directed by the "rules of the street".

Discussion

The study's results show that the intervention of the teachers or an adult in cases when the conflict involvedchildren is one of the best ways to prevent and stop aggressive and disruptive behaviour. During the interviews the children that present aggressive behaviour were too closed and manifested resistance at the begging. Some of them were too conservative in their answers, but the others were too open and expressed all their opinions, experience and feelings about this type of situations, relationship and the communication.

During the interviews with the groups they were too open, motivated for the process and gave a lot of information that may create an important path for recommendation for the future.

The school that took part and helped the process of this study was helpful by providing the permission, the premises to complete the interviews and engaged the school psychologist and teachers.

This qualitative research shows that in this little environment – the classroom with aggressive and disruptive behaviour- reflect that the relationship and the type of communications help to improve, or to change the behaviour. It is understandably that this is the first step. It was recognized what kind of think help improve the behaviour. At the present, we know that the second step is to inform the teacher about the type of communication and type of techniques that are successful to use with pupils that present aggressive and disruptive behaviour.

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Migration as a factor of cultural and sub-cultural diversity- case of Korca city

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Abstract:

Sociological studies pay special attention to the mechanisms of cultural change and development, as well as the main factors that determine such dynamics. Zyhdi Dervishi (2011) considers cultural diffusion as one of the most influential factors of cultural development. Referring to the sociological literature consulted for this study, it is founded that Albanian culture is described as a mosaic of diverse subcultures, which differ greatly from one another. This sub-cultural diversity is evidenced in all components of cultural system; the docks, customs, manner of speaking, clothing, lifestyle, religious and pagan rituals and ceremonials, art, music, poetry, norms, values, symbols, elements of material culture etc. There are a number of factors that have contributed significantly in shaping the features of Albanian culture and its sub-cultural diversity. One of these factors is migration. It is noticed that migratory movements affect social and cultural development; major changes occur in family relationships, lifestyle, tendency for new cultural values acquisition, etc. This is more evident in rural- urban migration, as well as in international migration phenomenon. New economic resources, new working devices, system of social relationship in host society comprise an important source in transforming people's lives. Over the past twenty years Albanian society has experienced a number of economic, social and cultural changes, caused especially by increasing flows of internal and international migrants. Significant cultural changes are evidenced in social and cultural environment of Korça city, which is characterized by the phenomenon of massive displacement of population from rural areas to the city, as well as migration phenomenon in Greece. Taking into consideration the complexity of migration phenomenon and the consequences it brings in cultural plan, we intend to highlight and examine elements of sub-cultural diversity in Korça city, caused by internal and international migration. This paper draws on a research in Korça city, located in southeast of Albania, 35 km to the Greek border, which reflects a cultural environment where are intertwined trends of the cultural change, caused by migration from rural areas within the city and emigration process to neighboring Greece. In- depth interviews and observation will be used for data collection. Combined analysis of qualitative and quantitative methods will be used for data processing. This enables making comparisons and identifying problems. This paper aims to identify and analyze the impact of migration in sub-cultural diversity and aspects of the coexistence between rural subculture, urban subculture and the one of people having migration experience to Greece.

Key words: internal and international migration, cultural diffusion, subculture, cultural values

Introduction:

Cultural diversity is closely related to the act of displacement and movement of people from one place to another and adapting to new social and cultural environment. Migratory movements in the contemporary world are extremely diverse. There are three general classifications for migratory movements: (a) internal and international migration (that is the focus of our study), (b) voluntary and forced movements and (c) temporary and permanent migration (King R, 2007, p. 7). These are very useful classifications to create a conceptual map of human movements.

Migration phenomenon has widely affected the Albanian society and Korça region in particular. From 1990 until 2005, over 1 million Albanians migrated abroad and about 400,000 others are thought to have moved within the country (INSTAT 2001). Internal and international migration is one of the most dynamic and specifying occurrence of Albanian society from 1990.

Due to these changes, developments in Albania and in Korça region after 1990 are characterized by profound changes in the cultural field. Given these changes, we want to study the case of Korça city, which represents a as a cultural environment where are intertwined trends of the cultural change, caused by migration from rural areas within the city and emigration process to neighboring Greece and because of the coexistence of these changes in a city with sustainable cultural trend.

It should be noted that it is interesting to explore areas such as Korça region, which has an established tradition of migrating, largely renewed after 1990, as a result of political, economic, social and cultural changes that occurred in Albania.

This study documents the phenomenon of migration in the local context of Korça city. The study, based on original data, aims to highlight the impact of migration to sub-cultural diversity and to identify sub-cultural features caused by the phenomenon of massive displacement of population from rural areas to the city, as well as the phenomenon of migration in Greece. Internal and international out migration are analysed as interlinked processes, to point out the influence they have on each other, which requires an integrated approach.

People moved from rural areas and those who left Korça city and migrated to Greece constitute the empirical basis of the study. Observation and in-depth interviews with them enabled a holistic knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon of integration and coexistence of residents with different sub-cultural backgrounds. Their migratory experiences, adaptation to new social and cultural environment, the challenges of social integration in the host society, combined with the preservation of the sub-cultural traits, have given Korça city the physiognomy of a sub-cultural diverse environment, which should be recognized in all its totality.

The aim of this paper is to point out how migratory processes lead to sub-cultural diversity. The question that naturally arises in this context is: in terms of such diversity, to what extent are integrated members of different subcultures and what are the problems associated with coexistence between members of different subcultures?

The study aims to analyse and explain an important sociological phenomenon; the displacement of people in the developed world looking for a better way of living and the consequences of this shift in cultural terms (shift includes both internal rural-urban migration and international one).

Research Methodology

The purpose of this study is to analyze the impact of migration on sub-cultural diversity. The study was extended in Korça city, which reflects a cultural environment where are intertwined trends of cultural change, caused by migration from rural areas within the city and migration process to neighboring Greece. Interviews and observation were used to data collection. 50 in-depth interviews were realized; 20 interviews with people moved from rural areas to Korça city, 30 interviews with seasonal migrant to Greece and migrants who have been returned to Korça city after a long migration experience to Greece. 20 of the interviewees were men and 30 were women. The interviewees represent a variety of socio-economic status, education level and migration experiences. The selection of the interviewees was made possible thanks to "snowball" method.

The study realized these objectives:

First, it allowed to identify the subcultural features of people moved from rural to urban areas, citizens of Korça and migrants to Greece.

Second, it provided sufficient detail of information on impact of migration on cultural diversity

Third, it allowed to highlight aspects of coexistence and intergration of people from differente subcultural backgrounds and to analyse the problems and difficulties associated to this coexistence.

Most empirical studies on internal and international migration are performed from the perspective of the country of origin. This paper provides a new viewpoint to study the impact of migration to sub-cultural diversity from the perspective of the country of origin and the one of destination, taken together, as Korça city represents a social environment where coexist residents come from rural areas, citizens of Korça and people with migratory experience to neighboring Greece, each with specific sub-cultural features and characteristics. This interlacing in sub-cultural level constitutes the main focus of this study.

Albanian culture- A mosaic of subcultures

It is necessary to present a brief overview of the uniqueness of albanian culture in general in order to understand the impact of migration on sub-cultural diversity in local level. Albanian culture is characterized by a high diversity of subcultures, representing a diversified subculture mosaic (Fuga A, & Dervishi Z, 2010, p. 215).

A map of the Albanian culture divided into subcultures could be made on the basis of linguistic differences, as a result of the action of many factors. Map of Albanian culture will generally resemble the dialectology map of Albanian language (Bobi G, 1997, p.77).

There is a number of factors that have contributed significantly in shaping the features of Albanian culture and its sub-cultural diversity. Some of the determining factors mentioned in differente literatures are:

- Albania's geographic position between East and West, as a result of which albanian culture contains Western and Eastern cultural elements

Diffusion trends between Balkans

Balkan people have experienced intensively intercultural diffusion (Dervishi Z, 2011, p.47). Common historical destiny of these people, geographical proximity, contacts between them, migration phenomenon etc, have resulted in diffusing and spreading a number of cultural features and elements between Balkans.

- Linguistic diversity (dialectal and sub-dialectal differences, and regional dialects)

- Religious diversity; Among Albanians religious diversity is an important factor which "shapes" subcultures or reinforces the original features of existing subcultures (Dervishi Z, 2013, p.95).

- Migration; since 1990 of internal and international migration is one of the most specifying phenomena of Albanian society, bringing significant economic, political, demographic, social and cultural changes.

Subcultural diversity in Albanian environment is a direct result of the impact of migration. Geographical position and historical circumstances led Albanians to be exposed to intensive social and cultural contacts which resulted in maintenance and conservation, loss and replacement, reconstruction continuously the features of Albanian culture (Bobi G, 1997, p.21).

All these factors gave Albanian culture its special physiognomy. Part of this subcultural mosaic is the subculture of Korca city, which is the focus of our study.

Migration and cultural diversity

Studies show that migration of people from rural to urban and suburban areas, as well as international out migration cause significant consequences in their lives in terms of education, employment, family relationships, lifestyle in general (Rye, 2011; King & Skeldon, 2010; Santoro, 2011; Vullntari, 2012). Migrants bring a set of cultural resources in the new country of destination. Migrants are exposed to the host society culture, as well as to the culture of their group or society. They create mechanisms for social and cultural integration in the destination country, creating sub-cultural oasis.

During the last decade Albania has undergone e series of deep political, economic, social and cultural reforms which have affected in determining the typology of Albanian society; such as migratory movements. Julie Vullnetari (2012) uses the expression "Albania on move" to define the typology of Albanian society. Young people are the main actors of these complex movements (Fuga A & Dervishi Z, 2010, p. 15).

Understanding the phenomenon of migration as a source of sub-cultural diversity in Albanian society needs an integrated approach. Internal and international migration are parts of the same system; this is particularly evident in case of Albanian migration, most of Albanians were involved in both types of migration, both internal and international. in most cases, remittances from migrants abroad have motivated and facilitated internal migration. Studies show that internal migration affects out international migration and vice versa (Pryor, 1981; Skeldon, 2006; Vullnetari, 2012). Based on this information we argue that the study of internal and international migration, as a phenomenon of Albanian society after 1990 should be studied by a common analytical context. Only an integrated approach that sees internal and international migration interlinked enables a full understanding of the diversity of migratory experiences and the complexity of sub-cultural interactions.

This paper is based on Pryor's approach (1981) about the interaction between internal and international migration.

Korça city

Korça is the most important regional pole of the south-east of Albania. It is the main city of the Prefecture of Korça. It is located along one of the most important trade routes linking Albania with Balkans and Europe, through Greece and Macedonia. Founded in thirteenth century Korça was historically an important market town, which by the mid- nineteenth

century had around 1,000 commercial shops (Vullnetari J, 2012, p. 27). Korça city is the second most important destination (besides Tirana) for migrants from rural areas of southeast part of the country.

Korça city lies in the southeastern part of Albania and is one of the most popular centers of this part. Korça is 181 kilometers far away from the capital. It has a favorable geographic position as it is located in trade routes linking Albania with Macedonia (47 km) and Greece (35 km). Korça city is divided between the rich history inherited and transformation into a modern urban area.

Korça represents an urban center where tradition is preserved alongside inserting innovations and modern developments, with traditional culture and contemporary educational development, with an advanced university centre, characterized by an ongoing harmony between communities; an urban environment which rises and develops in accordance with national strategy and global development trends. The geographical position of Korça city has helped the movement of population, business development, because Korça represents an economic and communicative join with Thessaloniki (Greece) and Tirana (Nikaj. I, 2011, p.126).

Local statistical indicators show a large number of people moved from villages around to Korça city, which has resulted in significant changes in structural composition of its population, lifestyle, as well as in social interaction between individuals of different sub-cultural groups.

Since 1990 the number of people in Korça city has undergone significant changes as a result of movements of people not only from the surrounding villages to the city, but also from migrating to Greece. It is estimated that migrants from Korça to Greece are about 23000. in 2010 about 280 migrants returned from Greece to Korça city buying new apartments. This has led to the expansion of the city by creating new residential neighborhoods which are characterized by new constructions that reflect cultural influences of host societies.

Table 1 and 2 introduces population movements in Korça city over years.

A brief review of the survey

Due to empirical data collected through interviews with people moved from village to Korça city and those with migration experience to Greece it is founded that there is a number of indicators which show the degree of social and cultural integration of migrants in the host society, as well as a variety of cultural elements carried from the country of origin, which indicate the existence of a diversified cultural environment. Migrants from rural areas have been distributed throughout the city, besides some of them who are located in the south-east or in the suburb of the city. This spatial distribution facilitates their integration, but also overshadows cultural features of the city, especially its historical part.

A characteristic feature of rural areas is a socio-cultural system based on reciprocal relations between the social and cultural units such as family, brotherhood, tribe, village etc, which still remains even after they move to urban area. This is more evident when it comes to neighborhood. Neighborhood preferences of people moved from village are for others come from the same village as they come or from other villages. This is confirmed by women interviewed who have moved from rural areas to the city. They claim that they have better relationships with other women come from village rather than city women. These relationships are associated with family visits, morning coffees at each other's homes. Such practices are typical for rural environment, unlike urban culture characterized by extreme individualism.

Internal migration in Albania is often held in form of chain migration. Therefore, social networks, kin interaction, financial and socio-psychological support take a special importance in discussing the process of integration of migrants in the new urban environment. Chain migration leads to creation of specific socio-cultural groups in urban environments. While the number of migrants in the urban area grows, they create their own communities, with their own values and lifestyles often making the host society feel like a stranger.

Links with rural environment are an indicator for the preservation of values and practices of rural subcultures. These are more evident in family relationships, in gender and generation relations. Duration of stay in urban space plays an important role. Most of them claim that they feel part of urban life in terms of employment, education, social participation, dressing style, communication, way of behaving etc. While people moved from the village to Korça city after migrating to Greece represent a sub-cultural group where cultural elements of rural environment are intertwined with practices and models derived from Greek culture. Sub-cultural diversity rate also depends on the degree of their integration into Greek society and culture.

A first approach to measure cultural integration consists in collecting empirical data about the actual behavior of migrants, to evaluate how it differs from that of the dominant group members. Typical indicators include language spoken at home

(the case of migrants abroad), religious practices, fertility, educational achievement, gender relations, social participation, marriages (marriages between them), divorce, etc.

Albanian migrants to Greece are well adapted to the new way of life in Greek society, they communicate easily with natives, frequent the same places as locals, dress like them, listen to Greek music, have acquired practices and behavioral patterns which make them too similar to the social environment where they live. Such elements are easily obvious, especially when they return to their home country, carrying with them these new practices acquired from the coexistence with Greek culture. But when it comes to mentality, cultural values which characterize psycho- cultural shaping of Albanians the differences are quite inconsiderable. Cultural values and attitudes related to marital and family relations, relations between generations, attitudes towards sexuality etc, clearly reflect Albanian cultural environment. These cultural models, are not only saved between Albanians migrated to Greece (as an indicator of Albanian cultural identity), but they are reinforced and emphasized especially after they return home. This is primarily evident among people moved from rural areas, who have experienced migration in Greece, as well as between individuals belonging to the old generation.

However it is worth mentioning that staying for a long time in Greek cultural environment and efforts for social inclusion and integration have influenced in modifying many cultural attitudes in terms of cultural emancipation of Albanian migrants. These are more evident among youths. Social remittances play an important role. According to Levitt (1998) social remittances represent the totality of ideas, behaviors, social capital transmitted from the host country community to the country of origin.

The impact of social remittances is more obvious in the architecture and interior design of the apartments. Also migrants bring with them new skills and technologies, used to open new businesses such as fast-food-shops, beauty salons, carpentry, etc. Migration promotes new ways of living and family relationships. Experience shows that migration can provide new opportunities to improve women's lives and change oppressive gender relations – even displacement as a result of conflict can lead to shifts in gendered roles and responsibilities to women's benefit.

Migration brings new perspectives and enriches cultural diversity.

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Tables

Table 1- The number of residents in Korça city from 1990 to 2009

Year	Number of people
1990	65000
1995	73499
2000	80772
2005	85590
2009	86596

Table 2- The number of people moved from rural areas to Korça city and the ones left Korça city

Year	People moved from village to the city	People gone away from the city
2005	2456	1163
2008	716	614
2009	925	572

Source: Statistical office in Prefecture of Korça

A sociological analysis of the roots of crime in the family. (Case study in Durres).

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Abstract

In the area of Ex Keneta Durres after 90' was populated by rural residents coming from other provinces. It is a poor area, an informal area in construction and employment of residents. Not all residents are integrated in social life.Analysis of this study aims to study crime and domestic violence by first polidimension all related factors to explain the social roots of crime in families.Domestic crime is one of the social problems in our country. Statistical data for the City of Durres speak for counting crimes increased violence, and also show that the family is getting "dangerous place" of crime. The focus of the study is the overall situation of social, economic, cultural, emotional, psychological, former residents of the swamp. Factors which are sources that generate domestic violence or crimes in the family. In the area of Ex Keneta Durres in july of 2004 with the decision of the Municipal Council of Durres was approved as the new administrative unit , comprising Region No. 6 The area of Ex Keneta is a new residential area , increase the number of arrivals from day to day. in this structure combines elements of various subcultures. The analysis aims at studying the social roots of crime that will be done from the perspective of theoretical paradigms. It also focuses on the role of the state and other agencies to create socialization-economic stability, but also to create conditions for "mental health" of citizens. Social problems of contemporary society have their roots in the past, the consequences in the present and in the future. The importance of the study appear in several elements: -A heterogeneity area residents coming from different provinces have different subcultures. -An area dominated traditional families with a large number of members, with some garland. -Domestic Relations built on customary mentality. -An area where there is fragmentation of families as the result of immigration. "The comunication matrix" is very imported in the socilism of the family mambers.For the realization of this study i have selected qualitative methods,such as:free intervists,structured. The study data are based on some searching methods: Quantitative methods,qualitative; Structured interviews; Official data from the Police Departament of Durres; The review of printed media; Survey 200.

Keywords: Agresion, krim, devianc, matrica e komunikimit, integrim, ,nderveprim social.

Introduction

Albanian society within the family organization changes have occurred. Albanian families,family nucleus, which consists on the coexistence of parents with children in the family, though it is not completely separate from the ties of kinship.Marriages in our country already constructed on the basis of romantic love, the main impact is made affective individualization.As in other places emphasis on personal pleasure in marriage has brought several requirements that can not be realized, it has contributed in recent years to increase the number of divorces. "Affective individualism, forming the basis of marriage, the change affects the man-woman relationships, family is a realization private world where emotional or sexual intimacy between husband and wife Is given primary importance".(Gidden,A,1997:377).

 From a moral and social, family and society are currently in the process of transition from chaotic nature traditionalist toward change, adaptation to time and the imperatives of modern civilization. in correlation between family and society, it is strange that it profoundly affects negatively, breaking the old equilibrium between the individual, the family and family relations with society. Showing balances delicate, fragile. This is evident in phenomena that prove the lack of stability within the family, which is obviously reflected in social life kaotizmi the Albanian society is facing today."Variance misunderstandings, lack of communication, astiff and nervous behavior coupled with offensive words. The parent hits a child, young people suffer, especially girls, from various Forms of depression".(Fuga,A,2007:9).

 Sociological studies, domestic violenceis considered as the dark sides of family life. Domestic violence has become more wide spread in traditional societies, with a higher specific gravity of rural populations. Such is the Albanian society now a days. About 55% of women and 54% of men Living in rural areas.(ADHS 2008-09:37).

On the out skirts of the city of Durres his social problem continues to be quite disturbing rape of women and children by husbands or their fathers. Interviews conducted in the former swamp area in Durres talk about this aspect.

•Mrs.SK 27 years old has been out of work 10 years and married for 8 years and she lives in the former swamp area. Her family consists of 8persons (spouse and two children, two brothers in law, mother and father in law). House hold in come int his work provided by the husband and brothers in law.Regarding its communication with parents partner she says that this relationship is not good but many tolerate all that I escaped from the family and that there cannot come back.She is

not indepedet in making decisions but above all the others who decide to, it also means that no one listen to my decisions. Of course in this family influence patriarchy and forms of violence ranging from psychological. Mother in law helps a little house work and not allow it to go to work. Says there has never thought to continue further education. If no one is addressing the economic needs mother in law and father in law because those people are holding family in come. When asked Which stance when carrying spouse conflict occurs between the bride and mother in law, she says he cried in front of her mother in law and he is on the side of it.

• Mrs.DH 32 years shop keeper has about 14 years of marriage and for 10 years she lived in this area.Her family is composed of eight persons (spouses, 4 children, mother in law and father in law). Revenues in this family provides by the spouse who works in immigration and mother in law and father in law are retired. Communication between the bride and the partner parents are delicate. She says it is not independent in making decisions even she says she has never taken any decision. in this patriarchal family has influence through the interview and understand that there is psychological violence. It also states that it is self that makes all the house chores. Mrs.DH says he has always had the desire to stay in school after married but did not let go. While this phenomenon becomes even more disturbing for the fact that many womens, because of the violence, psychosis and customary codes, not vilify physical and psychological violence exercised against them.

2.Methodology

Quantitative methods,qualitative and structured interviews. for the realization of this study are used combined methods. There were completed 200 survey of the citizens of Durres, and some observations on the family environment.The macrosociological and microsociological analysis helped me with the datas to be near the reality.The survey contains open and closed questions that enables the extractions of necessary results and informations.

Analysis of literature is part of this study.

3.The study hypothesis

Some of main hypothesis that are going to be treated in this study are:

Is crime a growing tendence in the city of Durres?

Is the family today a "dangerous place" of crime?

Does the educational level crime family?

Does the poverty affect in the growing of crime?

4.The data analysis

a.The picture of crime in the family refering statistics for the crime in the city of Durres.

In the following table are given official statistics received from the Police Departamant of Durres(year 2011,2012,2013).

The Year	Year 2011	Year 2012	Year 2013
The Number of Crime	265	342	82(January-april)

The statistc framework presents an alarming situation of crimes.Violence and crime are growing up from year to year.From year 2011 to 2012 we had 72 cases more.

b.The opinions of the citizens of Durres for crime in family.

Demographisis of inquiry	Number	%
Residents in Durres	120	60%
The background of residence	51	26%

Coming from another city	29	14%
Total	200	100%
Age 14-20	22	11%
21-30	66	33%
31-40	50	25%
41-50	30	15%
51-60	22	11%
61-70	10	0.5%
Total	200	100
Females	122	61%
Males	78	39%
Total	200	100%
Lower Secondary Education	18	0.9%
Gymnazium	122	61%
High School	60	30%
Total	200	100%

The surveyed were asked for the forms of violence in the family.The survey data give this order:

Physical Violence 42%,Psychological Violence 32%,Verbal Violence 6%,Sexual Violence 7%

Economic Violence 13%.

It is seen with importance the analysis of this question interlacing with the knowledge that have

The residents about the violence in the family.

The highter percentage possesses the physical violence maybe because for the fact that this is the most frequent form that is spoken in the media,followed from the psychological violence. Domestic violence is observed for those families who see the power of the family that belongs to man and he can do what he pleases.

Evolution of the Albanian family, change of classical functions, the relations between family members, is essentially a progress as contradictory and paradoxical. On the one hand facilitate the classical functions of the traditional family is provided for creating more space for freedom and social progress of individuals. These positive changes are essentially chaotic and conflicting. "The public perception of these conceptual changes, structural and spiritual place in Albanian families, by many regarded as" signals "of family disintegration and destruktimit" (Tushi, G, 2009: 319).

 If we refer to reality, especially the suburbs of our cities, we note that the transformation is not over yet modern Albanian family typology, because it is still in "transition waves". The purpose of this paper is to sudioj their relationship within the family, between the bride and mother in law, son and wife known as "classic conflict" but also as one of the most difficult interpersonal relations and complicated the family in Albania. To study the dynamics of relationships between mother, son, daughter decided to select the former swamp area, the outskirts of the city of Durres.

The former swamp area is a new neighborhood of the city of Durres, which is populated by migrants recently coming from different areas of the country. Former swamp area in July of 2004 with the decision of the Municipal Council of Durres was approved as the new administrative unit, comprising Region No. 6. Swamp in the former increasing number of newcomers from day to day and has reached 40 thousand inhabitants.

The age structure of the population is young and its residents have come from Mirdita (16.5%), Puke (11.5%), Gramsci (10.25%), Burrel (10.25%) etc.. in this structure combines elements of various subcultures. From the statistical data taken note that municipal units in the area dominated by families with more than one crown inside. These families have brought

with them not only the style and ways of life of the areas of which come, but the patriarchal authority, traditional building relationships.

Respondents were asked and for aggressive behavior.

What is for you an aggressive behavior?
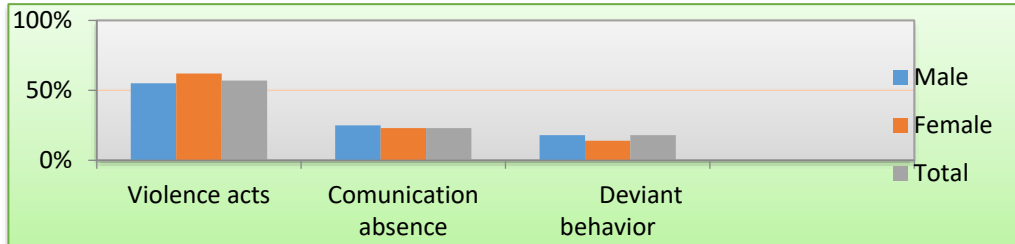
From the data of survey results that the most of the surveyed 62% females and 55% males ose 57 % of the surveyed have defined the aggression behavior regarding the concept of violence.Both genres have estimated violence act as e better definition.This is regarding with the fact that every days people are exposed on the danger of aggression as victims,or as wittness of a violence.The aggression behavior is considered as a violent sea with the higher percentage.There are even traditional stereotypes of the society for the males and females that model the behavior of males and females in society.

 While a low percentage,23%, accept that the communication absence produces aggressiveness. 23% of the females have qualifying the aggressive behavior as a communication absence.From the other side,fast changes in society,the way of living,the facing with norms and new values create a disorentation and suitability absence on the changes that are faced. "The reason is every change,crashing with the inherited institutions of the past,is an difficult inevitable way" (Dyrkheim,E,2004,:46).

 It is noted that the tendency to maintain the form of patriarchal marriage within the family noticed mixture of crowns, which in these families is the leading authority in-law. Almost all women are unemployed. Even in these work-family households are seen as two separate areas from each other. Women are responsible for family life, men working life, this picture serves as a contributor to the obstacles facing women's equality, superstitious thoughts and discriminatory behavior. (Basow, Susan; 2003.303). This status is not favorable for women of these families. Almost all accept that being unemployed were obliged to for what they need to seek pre-law, mother in law and husband. They agreed that one of the causes of conflict bride-guy-in law were economic reasons, unemployment, poverty. These causes represent one of the reasons the social conflicts that arise in society. One of the concerns that arise from the interviews was the lack of economic independence is often made that they were passive in decision making, which was expressed from the simple things in family purchase until handling problems and education of their children .

Another cause conflict within the family of former swamp area to report a bride-son-in law, are the relationships that appear pathological jealousy. Most brides to create relationships and conflicts in this report blaming mother in law. I do not know how many are really in this statement. Yes deeply analyzing their responses notices a contradiction. On the one hand almost all know that helps a lot in-law housework, etc. in keeping children and in turn become a cause for jealousy, conflict. Apparently in this conflict-vjehrë bride, a special role because of "double duty" as a boy and as a man needs to play boy. The boy has placed major weight harmonious relations between the bride and mother in law.From interviews admitted that these relationships often finalized with violence: emotional, psychological, physical, and there are cases and death threats. The way a society defines family violence depends on the culture, economic status, religious law a geographical place. (Legal and Social Treatises on the protection from domestic violence Advocacy Center, 2005). There is also a target group of brides, they have men in emigracion.Ato live with the husband. Their economic dependence is evident, for every expense that should be accountable to make laws.

Social disorganization theory, finds the best support in this regard. Having lived in very closed circles social, moral norms or codes fixed in order to freeze, place individual loses the ability to perceive another world, different from what you saw until then. It happens that different individuals have a narrow understanding of these roles, according to their worldview traditionally coded and launched the world understand that there excluding any message, information that comes out of their imaginations (Fuga, A, 2007: 32).

The surveyed were asked a question:

How do you think crime in families in the city of Durres?

How do you think crime in families in the city of Durres?

Is grown to much	somewhat	It hasen't changed	No answer
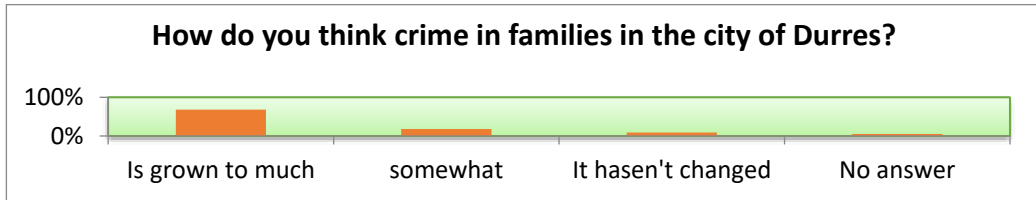
The crime in family is a social problem that has affected our society in last years .From the data of the Police Departament it is noted a tendence that is growing up the crime in the city of Durres.68% of the surveyed accept that the crime in the family has increased.

58% of individs accept that they feel safe in their family.About 10% of them accept that they don't feel safe in their families.In general the people who are with higher education feel more safe in the family because they are more prepared to afford this situations.Women with higher education have been enacted with the jaqne prepared to encourage communication with their spouses, and are therefore less likely to suffer from domestic violence.

• Mrs. MG 35 years with higher education (Engineer) is 10 years old is married and has 10 years are living in this area. Her family consists of 6 people. Both spouses work and mother in law, father in law take retirement. When asked how is communication with parents partner it says in the beginning were very strained relationship, it stressed every word or gesture while now I try not to be affected adapted at all. in making decisions is independent in most patriarchal rasteve.Influence little while, not violence. Mother in law says it tries to help around the house. If there is no economic need one that has addressed its budget. If there were a conflict between husband and wife vjehrës would not intervene.

To see if the past have been a violence history,the surveyed were asked a question:Have you been violenced in your childhood?

15.8% of the surveyed accept the violence in the family.(16.9% with females and 13.8% with males).As we see the violence is used at both genres,the higher rates are at females,but they learnd to be obeyed.These individuals learn to be violent in their youth, this behavior was shown as a model to achieve the subjugation of others, obedience. A significant correlation in the study is the analysis of sex offenders and victims of crime in the typical family. "Domestic violence is primarily a male activity"."Family is today the crime dangerous place". It also appears in a study conducted in the city of Durresit.In the family exercise violence:

The husband against his wife,The parents against their children, The sister against her brother,The brother against his siste,

The most endangered groups are:

Females 63.12%,Males 3.20%,Children 14.43%

A correlation analysis is very important to the roots of violent social variables that lead to the use of violence.The surveyed makes this order:

The economic situation 51%,Emotional situation 42.2%,Alkool use 48.3% Psychological effects of alcohol, which then lead to increase the level of aggression. Alcohol causes a weakening of conceptual skills that lead to misinterpretation of the actions made by other people.

Drug use 20.2%.18% Communication between members.

The analysis of these factors shows that in the first rank by poverty and other patriarchal traditions in the family, which is more sensitive to people coming from rural areas. A significant factor for crimes of violence seen today are alcohol and drugs. Social problems such as unemployment, poverty, lack of confidence in the future, affect the use of alcohol and drugs. Under the effect of these users often create conflicts crimes of violence to violence. Family ties between husband and wife, parent and child, brother and sister, distant cousins can be warm or feeling full, but they can be full and strong tensions that lead people fdrejt despair and a sense of anxiety or guilt. Study the social roots of crime in families constitute a message to all social actors in the life of Durres to undertake urban social policy in the service quality of life of residents and their mental health.

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The impact of Media in the Socialization process in Albania

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Abstract

Media is one of the main agents of socialization that affects youth the most. Young adults are majority time are surrounded by the media, which brings me to my main question, "How is Mass Media Affecting Socialization in Children and Young Adults in Albania?" To understand this question one must know and understand what socialization is. The socialization process is a very dramatic impact on a child's life. Socialization is a "Continuing process whereby an individual acquires a personal identity and learns the norms, values, behavior, and social skills appropriate to his or her social position". Mass media has enormous effects on our attitudes and behavior which makes it an important contributor to the socialization process. in some ways mass media can serve as a positive function. It helps there to be more diversity, we can learn more about things that are going on in different countries. It can help you learn new things you did not know. Sadly Media can serve as a negative function in young people life. Young people want to be accepted by society and the media creates the ideal image that tells you what the characteristics are to be accepted and to be able to fit in with society. They show what you should look like, how you can look like this, and where to go to buy these things that will make you look right. This is why many young women deal with anorexia because they want to look like the ideal type that the media displays. Media also influences young people to misbehave. Media shows that being deviant makes you cool and look tough and that it's okay to do deviant things. Statistics show that when young people watch violence on television it increases their appetites to become involved in violence. It opens their minds to violence and makes them aware of crimes and people acting deviant. Many people think that the media does not play a role in the socialization process as much as family, peers and education. But in fact the media plays a strong role in the socialization process. The aim of this study is to see the positive and negative effects that the Albanian media plays in the socialization process in Albania.

Key words: Socialization, media, violence, young people, social problems

Introduction

Nowadays, we don't suffer from a lack of information, by the contrary;today man is "bombarded" from all sides with animmensity of data. Selecting the right information requires a lot of ability to understand and analyze the information.Today no one can think his life without TV, radio, newspapers and the Internet. Making and sharing information is present in everyday communication of our society and inside the family. The media are organs that transmit information to a wider public through technical means. The mass media include: press, radio, television and the Internet. Freedom of mass media is provided in the Albanian constitution.

Internet is the main factor of spreading the information. By changing the means of communication, the process of education has also changed. Specifically in education affect, many individual factors that are family, school, social class, peer groups, media and the Internet, religion, political and other various events. This process continues throughout life (Frederik and Lavenir 2004).

Powerful influence on socialization of an individual has the media, through which the mass communications are made. "There is no doubt that the media influences people's attitudes and outlooks. Until the child becomes 18 years old, the most of his time he spends watching television and internet, than any other activities, except sleeping. Increasing of the impact of television is perhaps the only significant development of this century". It can be said that the Internet has also become a medium used excessively. However, often the reality that creates media is different from what it is actually. Erich From has claimed that "Media is a method of washout brains that has a hypnotist affect".

The media bombard our brains with information, editorials, analysis, commentary and significant political developments. No one is immune from the influences that they exert. Therefore, caring for them becomes inevitable process that lies at all levels, categories and social classes. Systematic research about the role of media in education of children and adolescents has been the basis of many studies. The same view is also common in the working of David Easton and Dennis Jeck (Easton and Jeck 2008). According to them, socialization is a process through which are reached cultural orientations and behavior patterns. Socialization is a gradual process of learning the norms, attitudes and behaviors that

are accepted by the social system of today. The purpose of the media should be training and development of the individual to become good members of society and the socialization continues throughout life.

A key point of education from an early age to adult, is the creation of beliefs and values, which are long-lasting, so that the principles and advantages gained are stored for longer time.Media (theater, cinema, newspapers, magazines, radio, television, Internet), profoundly affect the outlook and attitudes of people (Maigret 2010).

The story about media impact in socialization

The theory of impact of Media in Education and Socialization has its beginnings in the U.S. in the 1970s as a response and protection from 'bad' media. Most of the materials that were produced at that time aimed to educate the parents from media. Since that time interest in education from media growed and materials already intend teachers and students in schools, encouraging and nurturing critical thinking among childrens. Models are already clearly outlined and there are a variety of them. (Tinder 1993)

Different countries conceive and organize the various forms of media impact in education and socialization focusing on the political, social and economic, with particular emphasis on the importance of using efficient and rational media. in Albania during the period of dictatorship, during the years 1945-1990, the only media in Albania was public television, which exert a great impact on people, because it was the only way information.Media education is characterized by a continuing debate over its fundamental goals and methods, just like any other field of education. So far very few teachers, or not at all, are trained to aware the people about the influence that has the media in the process of education (Frederik and Lavenir 2004).

The purpose of media education is to prepare children to understand and to participate actively in the media culture that surrounds them. The emphasis is on critical understanding and analysis, which are based on critical thinking skills and creative of the students. (Maigret 2010)

Basically, defensive approach seeks to protect children from the dangers of the media. To be sure, these risks are set out in different ways at different times and in different contexts. in some countries, initially the underlying concern was that cultural media educators. They have seen the media as a form of low culture, that would harm the child assessment values and virtues of high culture. in other words, the underlying concern is it moral. (Greenberg 2009)

Media educates the children with values and behaviors that are deemed to be inappropriate or harmful (for example, relating to sex and violence). Finally, and especially in the form of media education that took place in the 1970s - can be seen a political concern: the belief that the media are responsible for promoting false beliefs, political or ideological. in any case, media education is seen as a tool to entertain the children (Anderson 2001).

While these protective view of media education have been away from the replacement, there has been a gradual evolution in many countries for a less defensive approach. in general, countries with more mature forms of practice in media education, those which have a long history and stable model of evolution, have gone well beyond the defense. Media Education here is seen not as a form of protection, but as a form of preparation. It aims to protect young people from the influence of the media, and thus lead them to better things. Students are asked to make their own decisions. Moreover, media education aims to develop understanding of youth and their participation in media culture that surrounds them.

In this process, education media inevitably raises cultural, moral and political concersn, but it does it in a way that encourages active engagement, critical thinking of the students, instead of attending an orientation to a default position. (Giddens 1967)

Television impact in socialization

Television is a tool where a child fits in the best way during a certain time, and the television little by little takes time from other activities, that could be quite necessary for a child. Television unequivocally has positive and negative influences on young children. Television is a media that has more impact on people's lives.

In many developed societies, the time that children spend in front of screens is greater than the time thay spend in school. The impact of television on children depends on many factors, such as the number of hours spent in front of the small screen, their age, their personality, the fact of watching TV alone or with adult and finally the discussion they do or not with their parents about the content of what they have seen. in today's families, parents want to meet every desire of their children, and so they leave them for a long time in front of television. Children are being, that if they want to watch something they want to possess it. But, as Sami Frashëri, an Albanian Renaissance, and writer: "Children should be given what it needs, not what it wants".

The positive side of watching television is that television can be entertaining, educational and can open new windows of information for children, enabling them to travel even where it may not be present, to teach reading and writing, other languages, different cultures and peoples, to attend various educational programs. The most important thing is to select programs that respond to the child's age. Television programs should be in conformity with the child's age. Emissions that are seen by children on television should be suggested by parents, and must be controlled by them. Otherwise, any negligence or deviation from this process can be very harmful for the children. in this way children can learn useful things, as well as useless, which affect their formation.

A child who is taught to stay in front of the television screen turns into an inactive child, he doesn't move and he doesn't go out to have a social life. The greatest responsibility for anything that happens to the child falls on the parents, for the sole reason that the child requires a special focus and support all the time not to create dependency on television.

Television viewed by children, without selection of programs and channels from parents, creates the opportunity for children to see violent scenes, which increases the chance for aggressive behavior in children, because the child thinks that a thing that can be watched on television can happen in reality and could be very true. This obviously affects the children. When they see violence on television constantly, begin to think that it is normal and acceptable by society, while society tries to stop this fenomem. Children internalize what they see, not knowing to distinguish between what should adopt and what not.

Concerning Albania, I think that children are facing with programs that has no values. Children are all the time under the influence of violent movies, crime, fraud, theft, moral degradation. in this context it should be recognized the impact of media on children, as well as a request for the materials selection process that children have the opportunity to follow through television. in conclusion, I think that children are being "bombarded" with ideas, thoughts, writing movies that instead of raising children with positive social feelings, humanity, solidarity, sexual restraint, respect the woman, do the opposite.

In a not very developed society like ours, the role of Television takes a huge social role. in our society the people trust very much to the television. in this case television has in its hand an historic role. Television in Albania, although not in its full formation has played a major role in changing old social mentalities, and has helped to move forward the Albanian society according to contemporary life. The moment that we live, gives us the right to analyze with more responsibility, the huge role impact of television.

We all are aware that television does not make people smarter, but even more ignorant. But it can orient their behavior, positively or negatively. Albanian society is fundamentally politicized and television has played its negative role. All televisions, according to supporters of the policy arm, have "wrecked" the viewer with political debates. Despite the personal nature that take emissions, depending on the production, the time has come to understand the role of television as a kay role in education and socialisation.

More than 50% of people wont to imitate the model viwed at the television. So it happens everywhere in the world. Albania doesn't make an exception. The problem that is facing Albanian society today concerning family violence, sexual violence, murders and suicide, are also causes driven by television. N. Postman writes: "No tool can be dangerous if users know the risks." But if you do not know society goes toward destruction.

The role of the internet in education

Internet in Albania is spreading too fast over the last 20 years. According to the latest data from the operators and the evaluation of the Electronic Communications and Postal (AKEP), the number of households that have Internet access until the middle of 2012 was approximately 140 thousand or approximately 17% of the total number of families, or 4.3% of the population. Usage value is about 30%, so 30 peoples in 1000 use internet in Albania.

This figure is a relatively satisfactory as compare to 2008 was about 15%. So is a qualitative increase between this period. in the focus of internet companies is youth. Since in the begining the early goal of internet companies was the new age people. in all Albanian cities gradually began to rise many internet rooms, almost turning into a fad.

According to the data, in Albania every year come into use 50 thousand new computers, but this number is even larger when we count used computers. If we create a map of internet usage in Albania, we will mark Tirana olored as red and the other places with an pale color. Tirana, is the epicenter of providers and internet users. Internet akses service is available for any city in Albania, but the weakness and hight cost of the service discourages the proliferation of its use in districts.

Methodology of the study

This part summarizes the main results and trends to a survey conducted by 100 persons aged 15-45 years in Tirana about the internet usage and the reasons why people use it. The paper focuses on the use of the Internet according the users

age, what are the main trends, why more Internet use, suggestions for improvement etc. Are interviwed about 100 persons of which 43 females and 47 males.

The spread of the Internet in school

Internet also spreaded in Albanian schools. According to an Albanian government project each school, about 2000 such throughout the country, have their own computer labs, with at least 5-15 computers connected to the network, but not all have effective internet connection at any time. Students say that they mostly use the internet for information related to the lessons, but also to connect with friends on social networks like facebook, twitter etc. Recent years the Albanian government has made substantial investments in order to spread the internet, putting it at the service of the administration, and the public.

Since 1999, all Albanian ministries have their own websites on the internet, and started gradually an implemented program called e-government, e-government or otherwise electronic government. The future of the Internet in Albania is like all other parts of the world. Albania has an exponential growth of the Internet, many Albanians are given to the new technological developments, have huge demand, although prices are still high compared to the region.

The main Trends of the Survey

We had 100 people survey asked randomly in Tirana found that 90% of respondents used the Internet and only 10% do not use it at all. Most users aged 15-20 years. The importance of online media, blogs and social media is increasing day by day, because of the ease that they offer and the opportunity to communicate with a wide audience (DeFleur n.d.). However, in Albania the development of this category of media has been delayed, mainly because of infrastructure, but also due to lack of interest.

Recently, has an increasingly attention and usage for this kind of media. in addition to traditional media websites online, there were new entrants in the media scene. These actors are usually in the form of news agencies or news gatherers. Their websites offer a range of information and topics, similarly with daily newspapers and outdoor media in general, which rarely have any specific target. Variety Information includes almost everything, from politics and current affairs, to gossip columns.

Internet usage from our survey

Our survey confirmed expectations regarding attendance by youths internet: the internet is the most used and preferred by children and young people of this age. More than half of the respondents and the youth said they used the Internet several times a day, while the other half said they use once a week. This high frequency of Internet use testifies to the close relationship that has the youth up to 32 years old with this kind of media and huge influence may be exercised in this regard.

 In fact, as was seen from the survey, the most common reason to use the internet was frequenting social networks, where only a small fraction of respondents stated that they were using these networks. A wide use, although lower than social networks, have fun online and even somewhat less information. So, one can say with certainty that this age group uses this tool in an extremely wide, definitely more than traditional media. Maybe in some cases it can be said that virtual reality provided via the Internet occupies more place in the life of this age group than everyday reality.
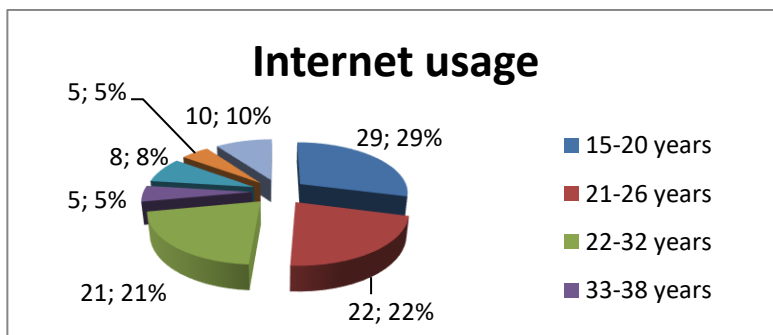
Graph 1, Internet usage in Albania
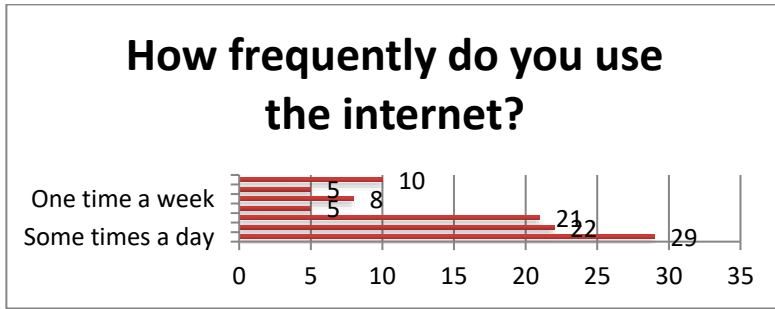
Graph 2, How frequently do you use the internet?

As it seems, 29 people out of 100 use internet at least once a day, but in fact most of them used internet several times a day. Meanwhile, only 10 people said they use the Internet. The wide use of internet is so obviously connected with the growing importance that he has received, but also to attract that age group of young people especially.

Also, the extent of its spread in the country, especially in the capital, is another factor. So, when asked where mainly they use the Internet, the vast majority of respondents said they use it in mobile and in the home and that testifies the ease of access this age group has to this media.
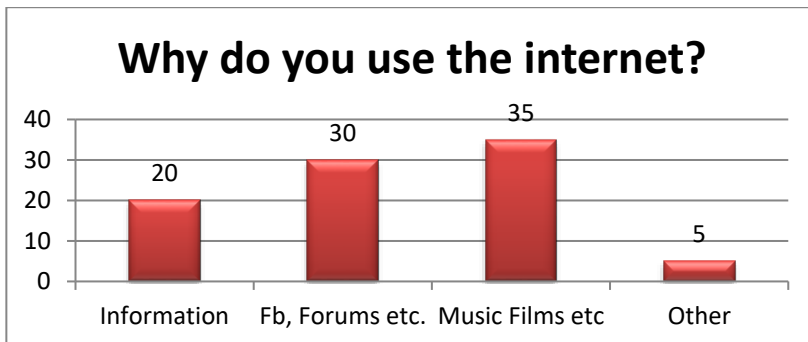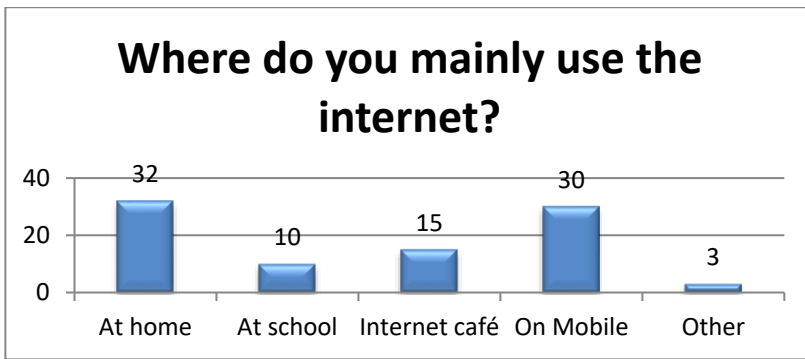
Graph 3, Why do you use the internet?

As expected, the majority of respondents used the Internet for social media, which was significantly more popular than the other categories. However, there were few of those who use entertainment or information. Very few of the respondents said they use for other purposes, of which the most cited were reading books and taking various materials for school projects.

Given the wide use of Internet by this group to engage in social media, they were asked about the frequency and visibility of their profile, as well as how often they update this page. While the vast majority of seeing at least once a day to update the profile figures were lower, but still significant.

How many times do you click the social networks ?
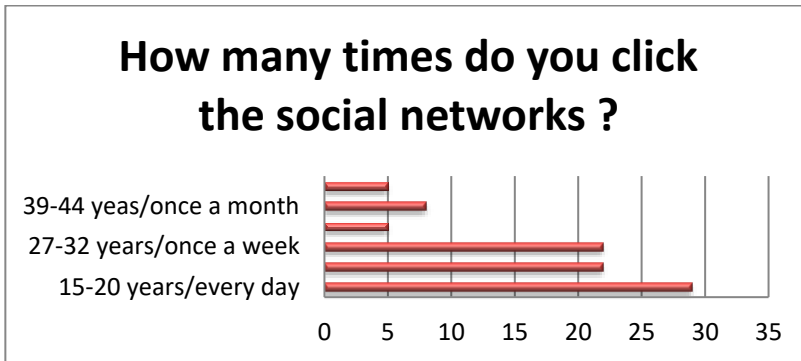
Graph 4, How many times do you click the social networks ?

Given the high exposure of children and young people to the Internet, especially social media, and little opportunity to control the adults in this regard, respondents were asked if they had interference from adults to use the internet and if they had problems with privacy in social media. 30 of 100 respondents said they had interference from parents to use the internet, but interventions were mainly related to the time spent and not with the purpose of using the Internet. On the other hand, only 23 respondents said they had had problems with privacy on social networks, while others said no.

The importance that respondents have given different media
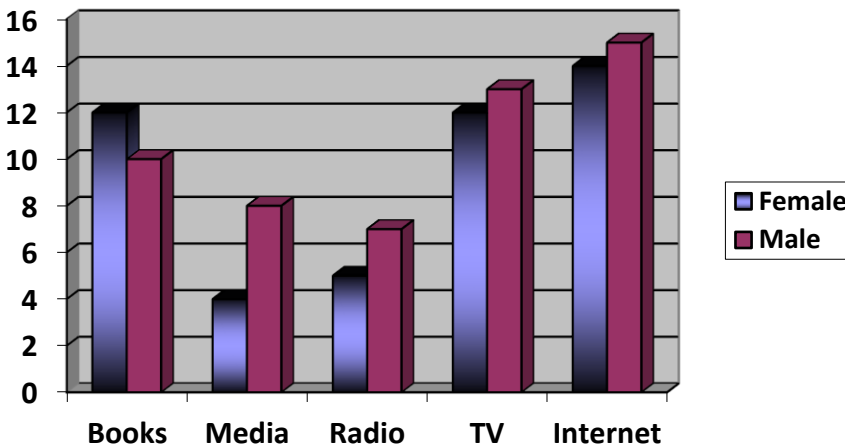
As it can be seen from the cumulative graph for all media, has a marked preference for the Internet in terms of importance, which was expected. Somewhat surprising is the prominence given to books, occupying nearly half of preferences for a grade of "1." Although it is clear preference for the Internet, again, has an apparent competition between him and books. Meanwhile, traditional media are significantly less preferred, especially the press and radio. Television seems to have taken the average preferences.

How safe are our children in front of computers?

In recent years we have seen a large increase in the use of internet, online communication and dissemination of information in our country. The speed with which the increased use of the internet is amazing. We have this growth of its use at work, school and in everyday life obviously. Use of the Internet has brought a number of benefits to society by reducing

geographical distances and facilitating the dissemination of information to the maximum. Many psychologists believe that the Internet has brought a distinct sense of community life. The Internet has brought a number of benefits for children and young people, facilitating their social contacts, improving writing and language. But, beyond the great benefits that come from the Internet, the rapid development of technology, the growth of online services and other applications, unfortunately, have to admit that this increase in use is not accompanied by the necessary measures to be protected from the dangers that brings this technology especially for children.

In many cases, technological developments in the field of Internet are used to self harm Internet users. It is a fact today that the development and distribution of internet moves much faster than the safeguards against abuse of it. I would like to enumerate the consequences and dangers of internet use for children brings and in particular: First, there is a much greater risk of sexual harassment on the Internet. This is a very serious problem indeed. Thus, according to a survey conducted in the U.S., about 19% of children aged 10 to 17 years, who were regular Internet users were sexually harassed at least once a year. One in seven children stated that the harasser was also tried contacting them by phone or by mail. Risk that children fall into the hands of these online teaser is high for two reasons: the Internet is easily aksesushëm children.

On the Internet, the harasser is very hard to identify. The Internet gives the opportunity harasser remain anonymous or be presented with another identity. One problem with sexual harassment on the Internet is their failure. Studies have clearly that most children do not report the harassment or to parents or the police. Is a risk that children face pornographic picture. Although it is very difficult to give an exact number of children who are faced with these images, what we can say is that there are currently about 14 million ëebsit-of pornographic content, with 1 million of them contain images of children.

The large number of websit-tion is due because the Internet is seen as a unique, safe, easy to access by anyone for selling, collecting child pornography. Such views have a very bad impact on the formation of children, except for those selling these materials also aim to "normalize" the activity of these children. Often children who participate in these movies are smiling or making facial expression indicating consent. Which in most cases is not true. Is a risk that children face violence scenery.

The possibility remains high that children come into contact with domestic scenery including images, call for acts of violence, acts of racial, video or images of suicide or instructions on how to commit suicide. But according to a study that was conducted in the U.S., about 39% of children report having visited a web where content has been "musical violence", this is a kind of music "SOP" that foster hatred against other singers. While 20% indicate that they have seen scenes of violence.

Prevention of these negative consequences

Above, I tried to explain the main negative effects of the Internet on children. But, anyway, these negative effects can be avoided. in recent years there has been a growing interest in many countries to discuss and find ways on how to protect children from abuse that may come through the Internet. An initiative is been taken by UNESCO, which was predicted later in the Convention of the Rights of the Child. Convention in its Article 17 imposes an obligation on states to take all measures to protect children from information and electronic materials that can harm their wellbeing. Anyway to prevent the risks of developing the above seems a lot of responsibilities and close cooperation between government bodies and parents on the other. in this regard, much remains to be done in our country and chances are that more be done in this direction. for simplicity it will be divided into two types of measures that can be taken: governmental actions and measures that parents can take themselves.

Measures that can be taken by government

Government is responsible for the welfare of its citizens in particular the children. This is clearly stated in our Constitution. The government has all financial possibilities, human resources, and also the decision to take such measures. Relying to the practice of other countries, I think that it is essential to adopt a special law to protect children on the Internet.

A good model may be the law of the United States. This is a law that was approved in USA in 2000. Law requires the placement of a filter for the internet access of children, especially in schools or in bookstores. The law makes detailed adjustments, for example how this filtering will be done and what should not of allowed. The government should also establish a special institution (Watch-dog) to identify and monitor website visited mostly by Albanian children.

Measures that can take parents

A large part of the responsibility lies with the parents. They can do a lot of things in order to their children do not fall prey to the above risks. Parents can take the following measures: Do not place the computer in a child's room, but in a more open space, the salon will be better. Salon is an open place, where stay other family members and so children will be afraid to visit certain website. The problem here is that children do not use the internet only in their home but in the school also. Thus, according to a study in the U.S., about 45% of teenagers enter the Internet in many places like, in school, in the

library, at home or at friends' Internet centers. Occasionally you look at the computer screen to see what site is visiting the child.

Your child needs his freedom, and by this act of yours might feel threatened. Try to be attentive when you see at the screen, this action should not be perceived as a control, but as a curiosity by your part. Ask what your child is visiting, ask if you do not know how to do something on the computer etc.. Talk about the dangers of navigation on the Internet. Build an open communication with your child and ask if anyone tries make a friendship with him.

Role of the press and media in the individual socialization

The media play a dominant role in the lives of young people. Comprehensive media presence and mediatization of society primarily affect the formation of their identity. Being aware of the role of the media, young people need to have some skill or what is called media competence. Here enters knowledge and ways of using technical means and media language and the ability to make distinctions between different media.

In democratic countries newspapers carry important public functions. It not only transmits new information constantly, but also criticizes and controls addressing issues of public importance, as well as present events in the most accessible and fun for readers. Through commentary and analysis published in newspaper helps to build a critical judgment of the citizen for a functional democracy.

Social function of the media is important for living together in modern societies, in addition to traditional factors such as the family, schools, religious institutions, etc.. Media offers orientation in the thinking patterns and behavior, images and typology for children and youth.

Conculsions

Television, press, Internet and other media are estimated to have a major effect on the development of human identity and their process of socialization.

Although Albania has a total lack of research for the emissions and programs that are mostwatched, it feels the spirit of the great political impact they are having on people at different times. Experts believe that television and the internet are very powerful agents of socialization of the individual.

Modern society where we live is rapidly changing.Principal key is to work constantly with people. The phenomenon of socialization shows that the individ is socialized throughout the life. The more society develops, the more free and democratic it is, the better people will socialize. If anyone wants to reform society, he must convince people for the superiority of its ideas, he may create belief and trust in them. Such a role along with many other agents is played by media. If they will be free and democratic, the objective will be to reflect social reality. in this context better orientate future generations to be better positioned to the next life.

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International Investment (Trade) Factor and Its Effect on GDP: BRICS Case Study

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Abstract

Purpose: The purpose of the study is to assess the degree to which International Investment (Trade) Factor has impacted on GDP looking at BRICS region. The title is dubbed: "International Investment (Trade) Factor and its Effect on GDP: BRICS Case Study". Design/Methodology/Approach: The research adopted a desk research approach. in this regard, resource materials were developed from economic journals, books, articles, policy documents, and other credible websites just to a mention a few. Findings and assumption: The finalised research assessed the contribution trade has had to GDP in BRICS region. Trade has been considered as a fundamental growth factor in BRIC and an accelerating component which has been of great attention within the region. The current research argues that trade has benefited BRICS economy in terms of technology, skilled labour, consumer spending, total investment by companies, total government spending and balance of trade. The analysis bases on data collection from the period 2010-2013 so as to test the relationship between the two economic indicators. As indicated, the main research variables included FDI inflows, population growth, exports, and GDP. for data analysis, the researcher examines the descriptive statistics, correlation, and regression model using Microsoft Excel 2013. The main dependent variable being "trade"; it was anticipated that the trade function in regression model and other statistical tests would have positive relationship with other GDP variables. Research limitations/Implications: The main future research undertaking would be to use quantitative measures so as to establish the correlation between Trade as an international investment process and GDP dynamics.Practical Implications: The engagement in economic growth through increased GDP would be determined by the extent of international trade dynamics in BRICS region. Originality/Value: This research paper addresses fundamental policy issues that may be considered in BRICS region on how best to enhance international investment (trade) so as to support the rest of the economy.

Keywords: BRICS, Trade, International Investment, GDP, Trade, Exports.

Introduction

The purpose of the study is to assess the degree to which International Investment (Trade) Factor has impacted on GDP in BRICS region. Better still; the analysis looks at the role of exports on GDP growth within BRICS region. It is so that there are many other aspects supporting GDP growth in this region and trade is just one of the sectors. However, such investigation is still significant in the sense it will inform the reader whether trade has had any valuable place in the ongoing economic growth within BRICS region. BRICS region incorporates Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa. This is a region that has been undergoing tremendous economic growth since its inception (Smith, 2011). The gross domestic product (GDP) serves as the most basic measure of a country's economic health (Liu et al, 2002). Further, GDP constitutes the monetary value of the entire finished goods or services produced by a given country in a given period of time (Liu et al, 2002). GDP is the total value for consumer spending, government outlays (spending), investments and balance of trade for a country (Makki & Somwap, 2004). Therefore, from the understanding of GDP and its variables one can see that trade (balance of trade) takes just a part of it meaning it is not enough to explain GDP growth. However, just to remind the reader in this work the aim is to show whether BRICS region has benefited from export trade in enhancing its GDP growth. What has been the relationship? in the past, scholars developed models aimed at demonstrating the relationship involved between exports and economic growth (Sharma & Panagiotidis, 2005). for instance, the export-led growth (ELG) model is one of them and secondly, growth-driven export model. in the former case, it affirms that comparative advantage catalyses trade activity consequently resulting in productive as well as efficient utilization of resources (Thangavelu & Rajaguru, 2004). Thus when the export sector increases other improvements follow such as improved technology, availability of capital, and other growth (Rashid, 2007). Other models that have been used refers to import-led growth (ILG) or growth driven export-import (GDE/GDI) (Ram, 2004). in this current work the researcher shall basically focus on assess the potential causal relationship between GDP, imports, and exports to be estimated at current prices from the period 2004-2013. The main tests will include:

i.The correlation between GDP and exports among the BRICS partners

ii.Export cause growth to GDP among the BRICS partners

Methods

In this analysis, the aim shall be to critically evaluate the relationship between GDP growth and exports for the BRICS region. However, due to the limitations embedded in the type of data that shall be used, the researcher will employ a simpler model to demonstrate the basic relationship among the variables underscored earlier. The general scope of production (dependent variable) will be featured in the production function as outlined in the equation below:

$Y = f(L, K, X)$

Thus;

L = Labour input

K = Capital Input

X = Level of exports

Y = Aggregate real output

A growth equation may be developed in light of the equation, as provided by Rati Ram, for example:

$Y' = \beta LL' + \alpha K (I/Y) + \beta XX'$

L = Rate of labour's growth

X' = Rate of export's growth

Y' = Growth rate

I/Y = Investment-output ratio

However, over the same equation the researcher may introduce a constant term as well as a stochastic component to the same; this will be as follows:

$Y = \beta 0 + \beta LL' + \alpha K (I/Y) + \beta XX' + u$

In this work the model to be used is more inclined to exogenous growth model since the researcher shall not use initial GDP variable, government spending, consumer spending, or research and development. The mentioned variables are fundamental to the endogenous growth model though in this work it was better to rely on exogenous growth model. The researcher is persuaded by Foster's equation to develop a regression model shown below:

$\Delta \ln GDPt = \beta 1 INVt + \beta 2 \Delta POPt + \beta 3 \Delta \ln EXPt + c$

c = constant

INV = Investment (FDI inflows)

POP = Population

Exp = Exports

It is worth mentioning the study did not reply on panel data but rather analysed each BRICS country separately. The researcher hypothesizes a negative coefficient between growth and investment variable; the other hypothesis is that the relationship between growth and exports and population shall constitute a positive coefficient. The main data shall be obtained from the World Bank so as to have consistency and reliability/validity of data. The software tool carried out to perform statistical models was excel 2013.

Results

To start with is profiling the GDP per capita for BRICS region individually as nations. The data has been obtained from World Bank data base for each country in the period 2004-2012. However, it will be consolidated as shown in table 1 in the appendix. Now the next thing is to illustrate the manner in which other economic indicators in every region have supported GDP per capita.

Exhibit I: Regression output for South Africa

SUMMARY OUTPUT

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.957760983
R Square	0.9173061
Adjusted R Square	0.855285675
Standard Error	387.7543494
Observations	8

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	6671356.601	2223785.534	14.7903872	0.01246268
Residual	4	601413.7418	150353.4354		
Total	7	7272770.342			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
Intercept	-63594.59432	34465.15766	-1.845185069	0.13876168	-159285.2126	32096.024	-159285.2126	32096.024
Investment	701422007.6	9.20654E-08	-5.21796E-08	-1.764395742	0.15243288	-2.36939E-07	5.2808E-08	-2.36939E-07	5.2808E-08
Exports	57889752492	2.5952E-08	1.60546E-08	1.616481362	0.18129623	-1.86228E-08	7.0527E-08	-1.86228E-08	7.0527E-08
Population	1.306274645	51298.45391	26952.60682	1.903283577	0.12974658	-23533.97936	126130.887	-23533.97936	126130.887

Source: (Calculation by Author)

Exhibit II: Regression output for Russian Federation

SUMMARY OUTPUT

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.99609933
R Square	0.992213875
Adjusted R Square	0.986374282
Standard Error	353.4515192
Observations	8

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	63680085.02	21226695.01	169.9115	0.000113
Residual	4	499711.9057	124927.9764		
Total	7	64179796.93			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
Intercept	2120.165227	997.9543441	2.124511246	0.100829	-650.6	4890.931	-650.6	4890.931
Investment	15444370800 2.54021E-08	1.37109E-08	1.852686209	0.137561	-1.3E-08	6.35E-08	-1.3E-08	6.35E-08
Exports	2.03415E+11 1.55563E-08	3.21517E-09	4.838394681	0.00841	6.63E-09	2.45E-08	6.63E-09	2.45E-08
Population	-0.519330407	2587.499119	761.7578216	3.396747687	0.027359	472.5203	4702.478	472.5203	4702.478

Source: (Calculation by Author)

Exhibit III: Regression output for India

SUMMARY OUTPUT

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.990945592
R Square	0.981973166
Adjusted R Square	0.96845304
Standard Error	53.5091846
Observations	8

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	623873.8923	207958	72.63048	0.000606
Residual	4	11452.93134	2863.233		
Total	7	635326.8236			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
Intercept	2579.42239	1230.83878	2.095662	0.104162	-837.934	5996.779	-837.934	5996.779
Investment	5.39103E-09	3.83081E-09	1.407284	0.232093	-5.2E-09	1.6E-08	-5.2E-09	1.6E-08
Exports	1.26648E+11	2.05468E-09	4.8274E-10	4.25628	0.013092	7.14E-10	3.39E-09	7.14E-10	3.39E-09
Population	-1.527814847	1466.266758	798.3798422	-1.83655	0.140158	-3682.92	750.391	-3682.92	750.391

Source: (Calculation by Author)

Exhibit IV: Regression output for China (PRC)

SUMMARY OUTPUT

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.974329
R Square	0.949317
Adjusted R Square	0.911305
Standard Error	464.4933
Observations	8

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	16164754	5388251	24.97405	0.004734
Residual	4	863016	215754		
Total	7	17027770			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
Intercept	2104.312	5783.624	0.36384	0.734393	-13953.6	18162.23	-13953.6	18162.23
Investment	62108043001	-2.1E-09	8.01E-09	-0.25762	0.80941	-2.4E-08	2.02E-08	-2.4E-08	2.02E-08
Exports	6.55827E+11	3.03E-09	1.3E-09	2.327819	0.080444	-5.8E-10	6.64E-09	-5.8E-10	6.64E-09
Population	0.593932815	-5154.42	9221.407	-0.55896	0.606	-30757.2	20448.3	-30757.2	20448.3

Source: (Calculation by Author)

Exhibit V: Regression output for Brazil

SUMMARY OUTPUT

Regression Statistics	
Multiple R	0.980281
R Square	0.960952
Adjusted R Square	0.931665
Standard Error	724.218
Observations	8

ANOVA

	df	SS	MS	F	Significance F
Regression	3	51629483	17209828	32.81239	0.002821
Residual	4	2097967	524491.7		
Total	7	53727450			

	Coefficients	Standard Error	t Stat	P-value	Lower 95%	Upper 95%	Lower 95.0%	Upper 95.0%
Intercept	11101.32	6038.007	1.838574	0.13983	-5662.87	27865.52	-5662.87	27865.52
Investment	-1.2E-08	2.23E-08	-0.53898	0.618496	-7.4E-08	4.98E-08	-7.4E-08	4.98E-08
Exports	1.09E+11	2.77E-08	1.1E-08	2.51083	0.065999	-2.9E-09	5.84E-08	-2.9E-09	5.84E-08
Population	1.234329	-9030.16	4814.13	-1.87576	0.133936	-22396.3	4336.004	-22396.3	4336.004

Source: (Calculation by Author)

Discussion

As can be seen from the regression analysis in the case of South Africa, the R square was at 0.92 or 92% meaning investment, exports, and population growth explained GDP per capita. It means 8% of GDP per capita was explained by other factors not included in the analysis. The Anova p value .013 shows that for South Africa INV, POP, and EXP are statistically significantly different from GDP per capita. However, from the regression output per se the same three variables do not show any predictive significance to GDP per capita. It means, therefore, they have not significantly contributed to GDP per capita growth.

In the case of Russia, the R square 0.99, it indicates that POP, INV, and EXP explain 99% of the GDP per capita. Also Anova at significance level of .000113 indicates all the economic indicators selected have equal variance. Then, the p values in the regression output illustrates that INV (0.14) does not significantly predict GDP per capita. However, EXP (0.008) and POP (0.03) have significantly predicted GDP per capita.

Moving on to India R square at 0.98 shows 98% of the cases for EXP, POP, and INV explain the GDP. Then, the Anova at .0006 indicates a strong statistical significant difference among the same variables to GDP per capita. However, in the main regression it is only for EXP (.013) that there is indication that it significantly predicted GDP per capita. The same is not the case for INV (0.23) and POP (0.14).

In addition, China has an R square of 0.95 meaning 95% of its INV, EXP, and POP is what explained the trend in GDP. With the Anova at .005 it shows a significant statistical difference between the GDP per capita and the rest three variables mentioned. However, none of the three independent economic variables significantly predicted the GDP.

Finally, for Brazil the R square was at 0.96 meaning 96% of the cases for EXP, POP, and INV did explain GDP per capita. The Anova with significance level at .003 shows a statistical significant difference between GDP and the three variables. However, in the main regression none of the three independent economic variables significantly predicted GDP.

It is worth stressing that for both China and Brazil EXP with 0.08 and 0.06 significance level were the closest in terms of significantly predicting the GDP compared to POP and INV.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it can now be confirmed that for BRICS POP, INV, and EXP explained over 90% of the GDP per capita. This is an important revelation from the regression analysis because it shows the three variables have been playing a role in economic development. But, when benchmarked with other independent economic variables it was seen that EXP was the highest variable in terms of significantly predicting GDP per capita. All, in all, in a future study it would be essential to assess data representing the BRICS region; it would be helpful to address the issue in this study using panel data analysis as a future improvement of the current outcomes of the study.

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(APPENDIX)

Table 1

Indicator (South Africa)	Year 2004	Year 2005	Year 2006	Year 2007	Year 2008	Year 2009	Year 2010	Year 2011	Year 2012
Foreign direct investment, net inflows (BoP, current US$)	701422007,63	6522098178,18	623291744,34	6586792253,11	9885001293,44	7624489973,88	3693271715,48	4139289122,69	4643830666,02
Exports of goods and services (current US$)	57889752492,09	67643778942,06	78317824613,99	90077093237,89	98005339806,41	77556911881,05	99398844053,81	117659751183,48	108595055663,44
Population growth (annual %)	1,306274645	1,310203612	1,314170806	1,318181247	1,322245438	1,326361	1,330539186	1,334782477	1,339096709
GDP per capita (current US$)	4659,623355	5185,849388	5407,258649	5850,958488	5511,195079	5654,492378	7136,963299	7789,944597	7351,756648

Indicators (Russia)	Year 2004	Year 2005	Year 2006	Year 2007	Year 2008	Year 2009	Year 2010	Year 2011	Year 2012
Foreign direct investment, net inflows (BoP, current US$)	15444370800,00	15508100000,00	37954700000,00	55873700000,00	74782900000,00	36583100000,00	43167700000,00	55083600000,00	50661000000,00
Exports of goods and services (current US$)	203415480735,86	268951741205,59	333908278474,50	392044033024,77	520003701781,28	341584673112,73	445512964893,39	576567394209,12	593112327003,54
GDP per capita (current US$)	4108,56	5337,07	6946,88	9146,42	11700,22	8615,66	10709,51	13284,03	14037,02
Population growth (annual %)	-0,52	-0,49	-0,46	-0,28	-0,11	-0,03	0,34	0,40	0,40

Indicators (India)	Year 2004	Year 2005	Year 2006	Year 2007	Year 2008	Year 2009	Year 2010	Year 2011	Year 2012
Foreign direct investment, net inflows (BoP, current US$)		-4628652265,00	-5992285935,00	-8201628958,00	-24149749830,00	-19485789183,00	-11428785746,00	-23890659988,00	-15442447343,00
Exports of goods and services (current US$)	126647860366,00	160837896187,16	199973922363,78	253077528108,49	288901732847,28	273752028721,78	375351687886,03	448717644624,29	446027703580,27
GDP per capita (current US$)	649,71	740,11	830,16	1068,68	1042,08	1147,24	1417,07	1539,60	1503,00
Population growth (annual %)	1,53	1,48	1,42	1,37	1,33	1,31	1,29	1,28	1,26

Indicators (China)	Year 2004	Year 2005	Year 2006	Year 2007	Year 2008	Year 2009	Year 2010	Year 2011	Year 2012
Foreign direct investment, net inflows (BoP, current US$)	62108043001,00	104108693867,00	124082035619,00	156249335203,00	171534650312,00	131057052870,00	243703434558,00	280072219150,00	253474944300,00
Exports of goods and services (current US$)	655826577000,00	836887800000,00	1061681000000,00	1342206000000,00	1581713000000,00	1333300000000,00	1743366950035,36	2089357369251,35	2248376523481,44
GDP per capita (current US$)	1490,38	1731,13	2069,34	2651,26	3413,59	3749,27	4433,36	5447,34	6091,01
Population growth (annual %)	0,59	0,59	0,56	0,52	0,51	0,50	0,48	0,48	0,49

Indicators (Brazil)	Year 2004	Year 2005	Year 2006	Year 2007	Year 2008	Year 2009	Year 2010	Year 2011	Year 2012
Foreign direct investment, net inflows (BoP, current US$)		-12549590735,00	9430275577,00	-27518241273,00	-24601090274,00	-36032806300,00	-36918923577,00	-67689141256,00	-68093253945,00
Exports of goods and services (current US$)	109023247863,25	133460147904,68	156460477941,18	182671465929,37	225926235617,04	177877857668,03	232981910479,97	294453331491,45	282874928219,53
GDP per capita (current US$)	3607,19	4739,31	5787,98	7194,08	8622,71	8373,34	10978,09	12575,98	11339,52
Population growth (annual %)	1,23	1,15	1,06	0,99	0,93	0,90	0,88	0,88	0,87

The Positive Impact of Rural Migration

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Abstract

Rural migration, which has commenced in Europe in the late 1700s, can be defined as the social movement that has occurred in parallel with the Industrial Revolution. The urbanization of the population in rural areas arising from various economic and social causes is also accepted as a result of economic and social changes and developments. It is also a known fact the cited developments and changes have been considered to be a problem for the country and various measures have been taken with an eye to solve the foregoing issue. Basing on such an approach, it is concluded that rural migration has consistently a negative impact. However, it should also be considered that it is necessary to evaluate rural migration as an expected consequence of the economic development process of a country and the necessity of turning this situation into opportunity must also be considered. This study, which has been conducted through basing on this point, aims to bring to the forefront the fact that rural migration, as well as being a problem, also creates some positive results. It is expected also that the aim for bringing this fact to the forefront is expected to be helpful in revealing the requirement that migration from rural areas should also be discussed with the positive aspects thereof.

Keywords: rural migration, rural areas, agricultural

Introduction

Rural migration denotes the migration to the cities from rural settlements (villages, towns, hamlets, etc.). This concept is employed from time to time as migration from village, the most important settlements of the rural areas to cities. However, inasmuch as the only administrative units in the rural areas are not the villages, there is a difference between the concepts of rural migration and migration from villages to cities (Güreşci, 2014, 18-19).

Rural migration is a phenomenon which has commenced in England in the 1700s with the Industrial Revolution and which can be identified from the consequences thereof and reasons of which are being tried to be revealed. Utilization of machines in lieu of human power with industrialization has paved the way for increase in volume and value in production (Song et all., 2012; Itoh, 2009). This increase in value has gained a new dimension with the realization of more production in less time. Consequently, more raw materials and more labor supply have become necessary for more production. This labor supply has begun to be met from rural areas which are outside the industrialized or industrializing regions. Hence, a population movement from rural to urban areas has occurred over time and this population also has begun to attract more and more new rural population. Accordingly the number and the amount of the population of cities in Europe with populations of over a million have increased exponentially within the century.

Rural migration is considered as a natural extension of the industrialization process along with the causes and consequences thereof. However, an industrialization which takes place late which supports status quo and which is haphazard has led to numerous problems in many countries. This situation has led to consideration of rural migration as an issue. Particularly the haphazard urbanization in developing countries, rural-urban identity conflict, unutilization of agricultural land, increase in costs of public investment in rural areas and increase in external dependence in agriculture have brought forward rural migration as a serious issue. (Güreşci, 2012; Çelik, 2006).

Rural migration can be considered as a situation that may create very positive impacts should same be in parallel with economic development and industrialization. An overall assessment of this situation has been made in this study with the causes and consequences thereof.

The Positive Aspects of Rural Migrationa and the Grounds Thereoy

Rural migration, in general, is deemed to be as a serious issue in developing countries. The most important reason for foregoing is based on the fact that, rural migration has started late in these countries and the added value created in the industry cannot assimilate the population coming from rural areas. The positive impacts of rural migration can be categorized under two main topics:

1. in Developed Countries: These countries are generally Western European countries such as England, France, Germany and the United States which have spearheaded the industrial revolution. in these countries the most important reason why rural migration does not emerge as a serious problem and why on the contrary it is accepted as the driving force of industrialization and economic development and change is that the labor factor required through industrialization is met from the rural areas. Another reason for foregoing is that the population in rural areas decreases gradually along with meeting the required labor by virtue of industrialization and urbanization. Rural depopulation is based on the fact that people have preferred to work in industry and services sector which has more marginal productivity and income and less risks and uncertainties compared to agriculture which has more risks and uncertainties. Thus, rural migration in developed countries can be deemed as an expected result of economic development and change.

2. in Developing Countries: These countries are the countries which have started industrialization after developed countries which are trying to maintain intensive production and competitiveness in the market. These countries are the countries which face heavy and big rural migration, along with rapid and uncontrolled economic growth. A variety of short, medium and long-term solutions have begun to be sought with an eye to solve these problems both in urban and rural areas of developing countries where rural migration causes serious problems particularly in urban areas (Güreşci, 2011).

These countries are the countries where, deeming rural migration positively is seriously difficult. Rural migration with the negative results thereof is mostly at the forefront in these countries. The issue should be dealt with a different perspective with a view to create positive thoughts incident to the issues in these countries as follows;

a. Population pressure has decreased with rural migration and indigence and poverty in rural areas have begun to decrease. The major cause of poverty in rural areas is the excessive population pressure in an industry where

agricultural activities and income expectation is low. The utilization of the income continuously which is already low and remaining of a new poor and indigent population as a result is called 'Circle of Poverty' by Ayyıldız (1992). The population is not only intense in rural areas but at the same time it lives in scattered settlements. As such, the provision of public services to the rural areas is quite difficult and costly. A country's rural viz. agricultural population will be gradually reduced due to rural migration. This reduction is deemed as a spontaneous positive result of getting rid of rural poverty. Sure enough, it can be said that the rural migration to cities in the 1950s of Turkey was not deemed as a problem and it was even partially supported (Yavuz et al. 2004).The reservations incident to this positive approach can be enumerated as following;

1. This kind of heavy rural migration realized in a short time can lead to the emergence of a newer and more problematic poor class in cities. a It is a reality that this population which is more docile and compliant in rural areas may become more problematic in the cities. The reason for this is the rural-urban identity conflict and emergence of urban requests in a more severe way.

2. Haphazard urbanization will lead to the formation of new slum culture and emergence of a new class, characteristics of which cannot be fully predictable in this regard. This is because this mass has embraced neither rural values nor urban values fully. This will result in formation of new districts in the cities to where even provision of public services will be hard. Sure enough, urban transformation works in our day arise as a result of this problem.

b. The second way of having a positive result from problems created by rural migration in developing countries is turning same into an opportunity in rural areas. This opportunity has to be realized in favor of the declining population in rural areas as a result of immigration by providing a higher rural agricultural potential or capital. The decreasing agricultural population will lead in provision of more agricultural capital per capita or for each farm. in this way, the smaller rural population will have the opportunity to use a bigger agricultural potential. As a matter of fact, revenue and revenue growth in agriculture is extremely low. If this increase is consumed by a population growing more impoverishment will increase more. However, when there is more agricultural value for the remaining population the issue is convert this value to revenue and growth. A significant portion of the things to be done to this end things that can be accomplished by the public. (Güreşci, 2014, 138-140; Güreşci and Yurttaş, 2008)These areas follows;

1. Legal arrangements: Distribution of the agricultural lands of those who migrate from their village to relatives or non-relatives who live in the villages by tenancy or sharecropping system by making arrangements in the laws of inheritance and transfer. Thus, the remaining rural population will have bigger amount of agricultural land that can be used in agriculture and this situation will lead to a revenue increase.

2. Land consolidation: Land consolidation application also requires a legal arrangement. However, should be noted land consolidation will be much easier with the declining rural population.

3. Regulation of the utilization of pasture land case: This work also requires a legal arrangement. The legal arrangements to ensure the use of pasture lands by the population in rural areas by alternatives agricultural production methods outside livestock breeding can be considered within this context. These lands can be used for cultivation of medicinal and aromatic plants, beekeeping, aquaculture and cultivation of mushroom and this application can be transmitted by virtue of agricultural extension.

4. Increase in public services: The required infrastructure to deliver more public services to a less population is necessary. Reconditioning of rural settlements, houses, animal shelters and other agricultural buildings and establishment of modern villages if necessary and achievement thereof through employment of institutions such as TOKI (Housing Development Administration) and similar institutions in Turkey. Establishment of new models in ensuring the collective provision health, education and transport services of rural settlements.

Conclusion

Revealing the positive impact of rural migration is a difficult work. This is simply because constantly negative results of such migration are faced in developing countries such as Turkey. It is extremely difficult to look for a positive effect under these negative circumstances. However, some positive approaches can be developed in this regard basing on industrialization and economic transformation created by rural migration in developed countries. This situation can be converted into a positive impact by taking into account the fact of consideration of rural migration as an opportunity especially in developing countries and changing of tools and methods especially in implementing agricultural policies in rural areas. This situation will be possible by considering the relationship to be established between the declining rural population and agricultural production with a special understanding and approach.

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IMPACT OF THE ECONOMIC CRISIS ON SMEs (SMALL and MEDIUM-SIZED ENTERPRISES): A GENERAL EVALUATION ON SMEs in TURKEY

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Abstract

Liberalization taking place in the global capital and financial market in recent years and correspondingly the lack of adequate control mechanisms have caused economic crisis at global, regional and country level. While the crises have affected the overall economy, the greatest negative impact has been observed on SMEs. Considering the share of SMEs in total initiatives and employment in worldwide economy, it is seen that they are key points for economies. In this respect, the determination and analysis of the impact of economic crisis on SMEs are very important for a healthy economic development. Starting with this point, in ttis study, especially in the context of recent global crisis, a general assessment on economic crisis has been made and the position of SMEs in the economic structure, the effect of crisis on SMEs has been tried to put forward especially on the basis of Turkey. Several scientific studies and statistical data conducted on SMEs and economic crisis have been examined for this purpose.[1]

Key words: SME, crisis, 2008 crisis, stability, development.

INTRODUCTION

The emerging wave of globalization in recent years has brought the result of rapid and effective dissemination of positive and negative impacts on all fields including the economic field. While the governments generate policies to ensure their citizens benefit from the growing global economy insofar as possible on one hand, they also feel obliged to take measures for the economic crisis emerging in various qualities and dimensions, on the other hand. Economic crises, due to either financial or real reasons reduce the quality of life and decrease the competitiveness of companies and in particular the competitiveness of SMEs. SMEs which constitute the backbone of the economy in both developed and developing countries are the most affected sectors from the emerging crises.

SMEs have an important function in terms of getting rid of crisis thanks to the flexible structures thereof. In this regard, it has great importance to support SMEs in crises for a healthy national and international economic life. Delays in taking measures against crisis lead to occurrence of a high cost both at company and national level (Karaatlı et al., 2009: 144). Determination of the nature of impacts on SMEs in economic crisis will increase the accuracy in forming the policies to be developed in micro-and macro-level. Much as, the economic crises mostly have negative effects, they can be converted into an advantage with the right decisions to be taken. The crises make the economic structures more resilient to crises that may occur in the future if lessons are derived therefrom. Sure enough, especially the banking sector relatively had a healthy structure as a result of the decisions taken after the economic crisis in 2001 in Turkey's economy and the 2008 crisis could be survived with a less amount of damage.

Numerous economic crisis have been experienced until present, however the 2008 Global Financial Crisis has shown a different development in terms of its appearance, severity and the areas affected thereby (Karaçor et al., 2012: 90). The U.S. economy's becoming the focus of the 2008 crisis, effects of which still continue, has become an important factor in determining the purview and severity of the effects thereof. Advanced globalization in the world economy in recent years, and increased openness of national economies to foreign economies have increased the impact of the crisis. Significant declines in growth rates have occurred with the crisis and the volume of foreign trade of the countries has narrowed. SMEs have experienced a number of challenges with the crises such as increase of production costs, decrease in capacity utilization rates, and difficulties in accessing bank loans Information as to the economic crises and especially the crisis of 2008 is given below and subsequently general information and problems concerning SMEs are revealed basing

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on the Turkish SMEs particularly. The impacts of economic crises within the purview of the 2008 crisis and the effects thereof especially on Turkish SMEs are analyzed under the following heading. The main indicators revealing the effect of the crises on SMEs in this context are briefly examined.

1. Economic Crises and the Global Financial Crisis in 2008

Economic crises denote occurrences arising suddenly and unexpectedly which affect the country's economy at the macro level and functioning of the companies at the micro level (Aktan and Şen, 2001: 5). Economic crises can be classified in various categories. The economic crises may occur in the form of global and local crises in terms of their nature. While local crises only affect a country and a region, global crises affect many countries; however, local crises may cause global effects depending on the country where the crises have taken place and to extent of development of the region same has occurred.

Much as the concepts of economic crisis, real sector crisis and financial crisis have been employed in the same sense in this study, economic crises can be divided into two as the real industry crises and the financial crises. The real sector crises are crises that take place in good, service and labor markets and generate effects such as leading to decline in production as well as decrease in employment. However, financial crises denote financial market disorders that my lead to devastating effects on the real sector and which may hinder the functioning of the markets in an effective manner (http://www.ekodialog.com/konular/finansal-kriz-nedir.html). According to another point of view, financial crisis means rapid depreciation of the domestic currency due to overt or covert speculative attacks and decrease in the amount of the country's international (Gençtürk, 2008:6). On the other hand, both types of crisis also have the possibility to trigger each other. For instance, the 2008 Global Financial Crisis has begun in the housing market due to the "mortgage" loans in the USA and then turned into a global economic crisis which has affected the whole world.

Much as the real sector has resisted for a long time in terms of production, investment and employment, it also has been affected by the financial crisis over time. Thousands of companies have closed due to the crisis, growth rates have become negative and unemployment has reached high amounts (Danacı and Uluyol, 2010: 870). Two important points stand out in the crisis of 2008; first cause of the crisis is the fact of the lack of supervision in the financial sector. Financial institutions have performed transactions with a high level of risk due to this uncontrolled and disorderly situation (Hiç, 2009:2). Hence, it has become an inevitable necessity to take action for making a healthy arrangement for financial markets around the world again. The second issue that the crisis has revealed has been brought forward in clearly by a survey conducted through the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). Accordingly, the level of countries in terms of being affected through the crises increases in parallel with the integration thereof with external markets (Ayrıçay, 2010:172). Countries like Turkey which strive to open to external markets and be more effective in the world markets in recent years have been dramatically affected through the global crisis.

2 . Status of SMEs in the Economic Structure and Main Issues

SMEs are the structures which stand out as the most dynamic, flexible and pioneering of economies in all countries in our day. SMEs constitute the major part of production, employment and the number of enterprises in the U.S., EU and almost all the countries worldwide. The number of SMEs constitutes approximately 99% of the total number of enterprises in the U.S., EU and in other countries of the world while they have a great importance in terms of production and employment. Much as there are differences in terms of definition between countries, in general, SMEs can be defined as businesses which use less capital, operate with labor-intensive production technology, and which have a relatively small number of employees.

SMEs are important elements of resistance against the economic crises due to their flexibility. SMEs also have some inferior sides in addition to the superior sides thereof. And such issues may risk the existences thereof in times of changes in the economy and crisis. Accordingly, it is required to determine the problems incident to SMEs which are deemed as a resistance against the crises with the flexible structures thereof in order that they can fulfill their function. When the issues are examined, it is observed that these issues have the nature of triggering and feeding one another.

For instance, while financial problems prevent the employment of professional managers on one hand; lack of professional managers in the face of economic crisis leads to the growth of the problem s on the other hand. Another example is that while lack of funding causes insufficiency of technology it also leads to difficulties as to competition at the same time. In this respect, it is necessary not to consider the problems of SMEs independently. Much as the issues of SMEs may vary according to the status of the country and sector they are in, they can be listed as following briefly (Akgemici, 2001; Ban and Yörük, 2003: 23-24; Erdoğan and Develioğlu, 2011: 141-157):

- Issues due to the Problems of Management and Organization: SMEs are businesses in which ownership, entrepreneurship and business management mostly are performed through the same person. This restriction makes it difficult for SMEs to find professional solutions against the major problems they encounter.

-Financial Issues: SMEs face a variety of financial issues such as lack of resource primarily. The high cost of credits, hardship in conditions as to maintaining credits, the ignorance of the business owners in terms of financial resources constitute a number of the foregoing.

- Hardship as to Production, Marketing and Export: SMEs experience production problems primarily due to financial insufficiency as well as other various issues. Difficulties in obtaining raw materials, supply of expensive raw material, lack of qualified personnel and expensive production due to low amount of production are some of the said issues.

- Lack of Technology: SMEs have hardship in particular as to renewing their technological levels due to financial limitations.

-Lack of feasibility works, and mistakes made in selection of establishment place constitute the other problems experienced through the businesses.

3 . Impact of the Economic Crises on SMEs

SMEs constitute the backbone of the economy with the qualifications they have however they may be affected from the economic crises more compared to large enterprises due to some weakness they have. The impacts of the economic crisis on SMEs may emerge arising from numerous causes. A part of these impacts will be discussed on the basis of the 2008 Global Economic Crisis and SMEs in Turkey due the limited purview of our study.

The 2008 crisis began to be felt in the last quarter of 2008 in Turkey and intensified the impact thereof in 2009. The crisis has affected Turkey's Economy in many ways including supply of foreign resources, reduction in domestic credit sources, contraction of foreign trade as well as decrease in confidence between producers and consumers. (Ban et al., 2010:59-70). The measures taken by the financial sector due to the crisis experienced in Economy of Turkey in 2001 have led to be being affected less by the crisis. The crisis has been rather effective on the real sector.

As is known, SMEs constitute approximately 99% of the businesses in the world and in Turkey. The economic crises that emerge affects SMEs primarily through various channels. The issues ignored regarding SMEs during stable times of the economic life begin to create vital significance in times of crisis.

The impact of the economic crises on SMEs can be examined in two ways. First of them is examining the impacts of the economic crisis on the functions of the business; second of them is examining the crisis in terms of various indicators. The economic crises prevent SMEs to fulfill the various functions thereof in a healthy manner. The resulting macro-negativities affect the production, marketing, finance and administration functions of businesses are by putting them under pressure. The cited functional impairments will be not be discussed in more details in our study.

It is possible to reveal the impacts of the economic crises by virtue of various indicators. Financial difficulties, decrease in capacity usage rates, increase in production costs, decrease in employment, changes in the workplace closures, difficulties in import and export and decrease in investments are some of the outstanding issues among them.

a- Financial Difficulties

Problems such as worsening of credit conditions, increase in interest rates, decrease in re-borrowing facilities, recall of old loans are experienced in times of crisis (Gençtürk et al., 2011: 188). Various empirical studies conducted in Turkey in 2008 have revealed the fact that SMEs are the most affected parties from the crisis in terms of having access to

bank credits. For instance, although the share of SMEs from total loans has been at the level of 27% in Turkey prior to the crisis, it has decreased to the level of 21% in 2009 (BRSA, 2011). Businesses have difficulties in collecting their receivables and paying their debts in times of crises. Ay et al have revealed in their research the fact that 65.6% enterprises in Konya have experienced difficulty in collection of their receivables while 66.1% of them have experienced difficulty in paying the debts thereof.

b- Decrease in Capacity Utilization Rates

According to data from the TSI (Turkish Statistical Institute) and the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey businesses in Turkey have experienced significant decline in production capacity utilization rate during the crisis. The production capacity utilization rate has shown a decline of 22% between August 2007 and March 2009. According to the data obtained from the questionnaires, lack of demand, lack of raw materials and financial impossibilities are the main causes of the decline in capacity rates (CBRT, 2011). The "Situation Assessment Survey" regularly conducted by Istanbul Chamber of Industry (ISO) has also revealed this decline in the first quarter of 2009. It has been determined in ISO's work that negativity has increased more in line with smaller scales of enterprises germane to the decrease in the capacity utilization rate.(ISO, 2009:47).

c- Changes in Closure of Workplaces

An increase has happened in the number of closed businesses while a decrease in the number of established businesses has occurred during the crisis. An increase of 8.79% has taken place in the number of closed businesses between the years of 2007 and 2009 compared to the number of closed businesses in 2004 and 2006. Similarly, an increase of 20% in the number of closed businesses has taken place in the 2001 crisis in Turkey compared to the previous years (Yüksel and Murat, 2012).

d- Change **in** Employment

Businesses have resorted to removal of employees upon the developments such as decline in the capacity utilization rate and reduction in domestic and external demand. It should be noted immediately that removal of employees have fallen behind the decrease in production. The decisions taken by the government in Turkey has become a factor to slow down the increase in unemployment during the crisis (Ersöz, 2012).

When the results of the Crisis of 2008 are analyzed it can be seen that the unemployment level has increased compared to the period prior to the crisis. The unemployment level at the level of 9% in August 2007 has raised to 16% in February 2009 unemployment (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2010). An interesting aspect of the impact of the crisis on employment in Turkey is that removal in the business at SMEs level has stayed at a lower level.

e- Decrease in Producer and Consumer Confidence

One of the most obvious consequences of the crises is the decrease in confidence to the economy. While the decrease in confidence is a result of the crisis on one hand it is also a factor aggravating the impacts of the crisis on the other hand. For instance, the household members living in fear of dismissal decrease consumption and a demand contraction emerges accordingly on the market. On the other hand, the employers resort to ways such as reducing investments and removing employees. When the real sector confidence index prepared through the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey is analyzed it can be seen that a decrease has commenced as from 2008. The cited decrease has continued until the beginning of 2009 and subsequently an increase has started (CBRT, 2008: 1-10).

Another important source of information in terms of revealing the impact of the crisis is the Consumer Tendency Survey prepared in collaboration with the a TSI (Turkish Statistical Institute) and the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey. "Consumer Confidence Index" is obtained by virtue of the survey questioning the thoughts of the consumers germane to issues such as the general economic situation and job opportunities. The consumer confidence index which has been at fairly low levels in 2008-2009 has entered to a trend of increase as from 2010.

CONCLUSION

Globalization of the world economy, and financial liberalization in the recent years have also brought major issues therewith. Uncontrolled and irregular functioning of financial markets lead to significant problems over time and

these problems have the potential to affect the whole world. Accordingly, necessity has arisen for taking serious measures incident to providing a healthy functioning of the national and international economy. In particular, the tools and institutions utilized in financial markets should be subjected to sufficient regulation.

In the light of the determinations made hereinabove, it can be observed that SMEs have great importance in terms of economic stability and development. SMEs also have major weaknesses in addition to the strengths they have. It is seen that SMEs experience bottlenecks particularly in the financial area in times of crisis. SMEs are indispensible institutions for the future of the economy which on the other hand need to be supported in the face of both global and local crises. It is required to analyze the issues experienced in times of crisis. Problems of SMEs worsen in times of crises and endanger the existence thereof. The problems for SMEs which have to be solved as a priority are decreases in capacity utilization rates, increase in costs and difficulties in access to finance in times of crisis.

Supporting SMEs in the face of crisis is an important issue, however it is also necessary to strengthen their structure independently from the crises and raise the awareness of SME managers sufficiently in financial, manufacturing, marketing issues primarily. It is necessary to facilitate access for SMEs to financial resources, including bank loans primarily in times of crisis. Many studies carried out in Turkey reveal that in times of crisis banks make the credit conditions harder for SMEs.

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The importance and application of the principle of equal treatment of third country nationals in the EU

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Abstract

The communitarization of immigration and asylum disciplines and the beginning of a common European Union policy in such areas will begin to create more favorable conditions for the integration of third country nationals who are legally resident, in the territory of the EU. The Tampere European Council of 1999 stressed the need to provide to nationals of third countries rights and obligations similar to those of EU nationals, in order to eliminate social, economic and cultural discrimination. This could be possible through the approximation of the legal status of third country nationals to that of EU nationals. To achieve this goal, there are adopted secondary norms of Community legislation on equal treatment for certain categories of citizens of third countries as refugees, the long-term residents, etc. Regulation EC No 859/2003 extended the effects of the provisions relating to the coordination of national social security regimes and to third country nationals. This European common policy took a new development with the Lisbon Treaty. One of the objectives of the common policy on immigration is the one which provides an equo treatment to third-country national who are legally resident in one of the Member States. This attitude finds concretization even to several articles of the European Charter of Fundamental Rights, which after the Lisbon Treaty has binding legal effects as it has the same legal value of the treaties. The Directive 2011/98/EU aims to establish a single procedure for third country nationals to obtain a combined permit for both residence and work, establishing a series of rights for third-country nationals who are legally resident in a Member State. This directive, in certain sectors, provides an equal treatment of third country nationals with those national. But the text of the directive provides also the cases when EU Member States may derogate from the application of the principle of equal treatment. This paper aims to analyze legal instruments adopted by the EU which recognize the principle of equal treatment of nationals of third countries with nationals, as well as the ways provided to implement this important principle.

Key words: equal treatment principle, third-country nationals, immigration, Community legislation

Introduction

The equal treatment of third country nationals took place only with the adoption and development of a common European policy in the discipline of immigration and asylum. Until the Maastricht Treaty these disciplines were part of the "domestic jurisdiction" and were excluded from any power of community as they were considered as closely related to public order and public safety. (B.Nascimbene, 1995). With the Maastricht Treaty they were considered as a "common interest issues" and it was provided a kind of and intergovernmental cooperation among member states, while if the Council decided unanimously, there was provided even the possibility of applying the Community method.

With the entry into force of the Amsterdam Treaty the context changed completely. Measures relating to immigration and asylum were included in Title IV of the European Community Treaty (ECT) titled "Visas, asylum, immigration and other policies related to free movement of persons" and thus transferred from the third pillar to the first, becoming so issues which enter in the Community competence. The Council tooks the power to adopt measures concerning third-country nationals.

Through a special protocol acquis Schengen was integrated into Community law. in this way a Community policy on immigration and asylum was established with the Treaty of Amsterdam. The extraordinary Summit held in Tampere on 15-16 October 1999 on the creation of a space of freedom, security and justice in the European Union, represents an important step on the perception of immigration considered at that time as an internal security problem. Between members states was created the conviction thath a regular immigration constitutes a benefit for the EU, for immigrants and for countries of origin [1]. in order to regulate this phenomen, measures of short term and medium term are not sufficient. A complex, long term strategy, oriented to soften the push factors in the main countries of migration flows, was necessary. The Tampere Summit provides that for separate policies of immigration and asylum, a knew common policy of the EU should be

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[1] European Council, "Presidency Conclusion" Tampere European Council, 15-16 October 1999 in
http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/00200-r1.en9.htm

determined based on several elements, one of which is the equo treatment of third country nationals who are legitimate residents in the territory of the Member States.The emphasis was put on the implementation of a more vigorous integration policy in order to eliminate economic, social and cultural discrimination and to ensure fair treatment of immigrants, rights and obligations similar to those of EU citizens. The European Council recognizes also the need for an approximation of national legislations concerning the conditions of admission and residence of third country nationals, and the need for an approximation to the legal status of these citizens by guaranteeing equal rights to those of the member countries citizens to persons who have a long-term residence permit.

Community norms which provide equal treatment with EU citizens for specified categories of third-country nationals, were adopted due to the provisions of the Treaty of Amsterdam. With the entry into force of the Lisbon Treaty, the common policy on immigration and asylum had a further development. Chapter 2 of Title V establishes the targets for the implementation of a common policy on immigration and asylum. Article 79 of the TFEU provides that the Union must ensure fair treatment of third-country nationals residing legally in Member States when implementing common policy[1]. The Parliament and the Council using the ordinary legislative procedure can take measures to give support to the member states on their actions in order to promote the integration of third-country nationals residing legally[2].

The principle of fair treatment (equo treatment) of third-country nationals is provided even in the European Charter of Fundamental Rights proclaimed in Nice on December 7 of 2000. The Charter provides in article 15 concerning the right to work, the right of third-country nationals to enjoy the same working conditions as EU nationals. The Charter becomes forceable as the treaties[3] with the Treaty of Lisbon which force its compliance by member states when applying the European Union law. The Charter also recognizes the right to benefit from social security and social advantages to any person residing and moving legally within the territory of the Union. The fact that the provizion uses the term "everyone" means that these rights are not only recognized to the Union citizens but even to third-country nationals who are legally resident[4].

The principle of fair treatment is established in different instruments for certain categories of third-country nationals. for this reason it is important to study the application of this principle according to the categories of third-country nationals and by determining community provisions that recognizes this principle for each of these categories.

Family members of citizens of the European Union

The principle of equal treatment will be applied to family members of citizens of EU member states in certain fields. The Directive no. 2004/38/EC concerning the freedom of movement and residence of third country nationals and their family members, recognizes the right of the latter, regardless of their citizenship to exercise an economic activity[5]. Article 24 of the Directive establishes the principle of equal treatment for citizens of the Union and their family members regardless of their nationality[6]. It is prohibited any discrimination established by law, regulations or any administrative discrimination to access on the labor market. Article 24 when establishing the principle of equal treatment prohibits also any discrimination in the discipline of social security against the family members of EU citizens who are nationals of third countries. This level of protection is not exercised autonomously as they obtained by the relation that family member has with the EU citizen who has exercised the right to freedom of movement.

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1 Article 79 TFEU: "The Union shall develop a common immigration policy aimed at ensuring, at all stages, the efficient management of migration flows, fair treatment of third-country nationals residing legally in Member States, and the prevention of, and enhanced measures to combat, illegal immigration and trafficking in human beings…".

2 Art. 79.4 TFEU "The European Parliament and the Council, acting in accordance with the ordinary legislative procedure, may establish measures to provide incentives and support for the action of Member States with a view to promoting the integration of third-country nationals residing legally in their territories … ".

3 Art. 6 TEU: "The Union recognises the rights, freedoms and principles set out in the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union of 7 December 2000, as adapted at Strasbourg, on 12 December 2007, which shall have the same legal value as the Treaties".

4 Citti, W., "Le categorie di cittadini di Paesi terzi non membri dell'UE protetti dal principio di parità di trattamento di cui al diritto dell'Unione europea", study published in http://www.asgi.it/home_asgi.php?n=30&l=it

5 DIRECTIVE 2004/38/EC OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENTAND OF THE COUNCIL of 29 April 2004 on the right of citizens of the Union and their family members to move and reside freely within the territory of the Member States amending Regulation (EEC) No 1612/68 and repealing Directives 64/221/EEC, 68/360/EEC, 72/194/EEC, 73/148/EEC, 75/34/EEC, 75/35/EEC, 90/364/EEC, 90/365/EEC and 93/96/EEC in Official Journal of the European Union, L 158/77 of 30.04.2004.

6 Art. 24 "Subject to such specific provisions as are expressly provided for in the Treaty and secondary law, all Union citizens residing on the basis of this Directive in the territory of the host Member State shall enjoy equal treatment with the nationals of that Member State within the scope of the Treaty. The benefit of this right shall be extended to family members who are not nationals of a Member State and who have the right of residence or permanent residence".

Third-country nationals in possession of a long-term residence permit

The Directive No. 2003/109/EC1 concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents provides the equal treatment with the citizens of member states with regard to: access to employment and self-employed activity, conditions of employment and working conditions; education and vocational training, recognition of qualifications and study grants; welfare benefits (family allowances, retirement pensions, etc.) and sickness insurance; social assistance (minimum income support or retirement pensions, free health care, etc.); social benefits, tax relief and access to goods and services; freedom of association and union membership and freedom to represent a union or association; free access to the entire territory of the EU country concerned. in certain cases, EU countries may restrict equal treatment with nationals with respect to access to employment. in the field of social assistance and protection, EU countries may limit equal treatment to core benefits. They are nevertheless free to add to the list of benefits in which they grant equal treatment with nationals as well as to provide equal treatment in additional areas. The Court of Justice has interpreted the application of the principle of equal treatment of third-country citizens who are long-term residents. in the Kamberaj2 case the Court held that there was a violation of the European Union law if the national normative reserves a different treatment to third country nationals to that reserved for nationals of the Member State in which they reside, if this discrimination comes in one of the areas for which the directive no. 109/2003 provides for the application of the principle of equal treatment. in this case it was a discrimination against long-term residents of third country nationals in relation to the access to goods and services made available to the public and to procedures for obtaining housing. The Court held that Member States are obliged not only by the Directive No. 109/2003 but even from the European Charter of fundamental rights which is directly applicable when the European Union law is applied and which provides the right of residence for those who do not have sufficient financial resources.

On the social security the Regulation EC no. 859/2003 will extend the effects of Regulation (EEC) no. 1408/71 and 574/72 on third-country nationals on whom these regulations have not been applied because of nationality. Regulations 1408/71 and 574/72 are respectively replaced by EC Regulations no. 883/2004 and 987/2009 and Regulation 859/2003 was repealed by Regulation (EU) no. 1231/2010.

Political refugees

The principle of equal treatment to third-country nationals who benefit of their refugee status is provided by the directive 2004/83/EC3. Article 26 of the Directive recognizes the right of access to employment and paragraph 5 provides that national legislation will be applied to the payment terms, and to other terms of employment. Article 28 establishes the obligation for Member States to ensure the right to social security to beneficiaries of refugee status or subsidiary protection status equally as to their citizens4. in the same way Art 29 establishes the right to benefit form the access to health care.

The principle of equal treatment in Association Agreement with the EU – Third Countries

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1 COUNCIL DIRECTIVE 2003/109/EC of 25 November 2003 concerning the status of third-country nationals who are long-term residents in Official Journal of the European Union L 16/44 of 23.01.2004. Art. 11 "Long-term residents shall enjoy equal treatment with nationals as regards:(a) access to employment and self-employed activity, provided such activities do not entail even occasional involvement in the exercise of public authority, and conditions of employ-ment and working conditions, including conditions regarding dismissal and remuneration; (b) education and vocational training, including study grants in accordance with national law; (c) recognition of professional diplomas, certificates and other qualifications, in accordance with the relevant national procedures; (d) social security, social assistance and social protection as defined by national law; (e) tax benefits; (f) access to goods and services and the supply of goods and services made available to the public and to procedures for obtaining housing; (g) freedom of association and affiliation and membership of an organisation representing workers or employers or of any organisation whose members are engaged in a specific occupation, including the benefits conferred by such orga-nisations, without prejudice to the national provisions on public policy and public security;(h) free access to the entire territory of the Member Stateconcerned, within the limits provided for by the national legislation for reasons of security".
2 CJEU of 24 April 2012, C-571/10, Kamberaj, in http://eurlex.europa.eu/legalcontent/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:62010CJ0571&from=IT

3 COUNCIL DIRECTIVE 2004/83/EC of 29 April 2004 on minimum standards for the qualification and status of third country nationals or stateless persons as refugees or as persons who otherwise need international protection and the content of the protection granted in Official Journal of the European Union L 304/12 of 30.9.2004.
4 Art. 28 "Member States shall ensure that beneficiaries of refugee or subsidiary protection status receive, in the Member State that has granted such statuses, the necessary social assistance, as provided to nationals of that Member State".

The agreements concluded by the European Community with third countries provide the creation of an Association characterized by mutual rights and obligations, common action and special procedures (310 TEC, sot 217 TFEU) (Zanghi, 2003). The institutional structures, which is a characteristic of these agreements, provides the creation of a "Council" composed of representatives of the Union and the associate State, who can make recommendations and in some cases adopt binding decisions. One of the first Agreements which provided equal treatment in certain areas for the associated third country - nationals is the one with Turkey approved in December 23, 1963[1]. Article 10 of the agreement prohibits any discrimination based on the nationality in terms of payment and working conditions, recognizing in this way equal treatment to Turkish workers as those of the community. An Decision of the Association Council of 1980 has provide equal treatment to all sectors of social security defined as such by Regulation no. 1408/712. in the Association Agreements with the Mediterranean countries, the principle of equal treatment shall be expressly provided even in the field of social security.

Conclusions

The equal treatment of third-country nationals will receive a development with the communitarization of immigration and asylum policies. The fact that the communitarization of these policies is fragmentized in different categories and have created different legal statuses for third – countries nationals, this principle today in European Union law applies not only to a fixed norm but to a plurality of norms. Beside the Association agreements which define the legal status of workers of associated countries, there are special norms for family members of Community nationals, third -countries nationals, long-term residents, refugees, etc.. If we take in analyze the Directive no. 2009/50/EC which provides the "blue card", a special residence permit for highly skilled workers, is noticed that some categories of third-country nationals as family members of citizens of third countries, skilled workers or long-term residents benefit from the norms of Union law which, for the manner and extent of rights put a more privileged position than nationals of third countries who are legally resident but who do not have a long- term residence permit. Some provisions of the fair treatment for these privileged categories, formally and in substance are similar to those that the EU law provides for citizens of the Union. As an example of this is the right to move for employment in the territory of the Union, a right that traditionally belongs to citizens of the Union, but that nowdays is provided differently in some of the special status of third country nationals. Family members of the EU citizens and citizens of third countries who have long-term residence permits or those equipped with "blue card" can also benefit from this right. Even the adoption of the Directive 2011/98/EU[3] on a single application procedure for a single permit for third-country nationals to reside and work in the territory of a Member State and on a common set of rights for third-country workers legally residing in a Member State, doesn't change this juridicial fragmantized situation. The Directive itself in its final provisions establishes that there should be no prejudice on the more favorable norms that are provided in the Association Agreements.

The fair treatment of third country nationals is one of the main principles which supports the policy of immigration and asylum and one of the objectives that the Treaty (Article 79 TFUE) sets to the Union for the implementation of these policies. This principle applies to all third-country nationals residing lawfully in the territory of the Union. for certain categories of third countries nationals as; long-term residence permit, those who posses the "blue card" as well as those who are family members of a Union citizens, this principle has evolved into an equal treatment with that of the nationals of a member of the Union.

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LEGAL ISSUES OF ASSISTED REPRODUCTION- THE ALBANIAN PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

Assisted reproduction was provided in Albania as an alternative way of reproduction by the "Reproductive Health" law of 2002. This law is an attempt to give the possibility of access in new technologies of reproduction as surrogacy, heterologues and homologues artificial reproduction to infertile persons, but since the enter into force of this law no further provisions has been made to regulate the procedures and the consequences coming from its applicability. The issue of assisted reproduction is still a subject of debate and of legislative changes as it is still not completely regulated by law. in this important issue, constitutional rights of different individuals, different interests and family law principles are involved. Ethical, scientific and legal factors are those which should be taken into consideration by the legislator in the attempt to make further legislative provisions.

This paper analyses the few provisions on the assisted reproduction in the Albanian legislation. As a concept which implicates many institutions in different fields, the paper aims to give the Albanian perspective on different legal issues related to the topic. The reproductive right as human right and the state liability to ensure it through the health care system should be analyzed according to the Albanian Constitution and the European Court of Human Rights. The consequences of the ART on the family law is another legal issue with which the Albanian legislator has to deal with as the implementation of the techniques on assisted reproduction was not accompanied by the necessary changes in the provisions of family law. The legislations of different European countries which have the best experiences on the field will be put face to face and compared in order to give the best practices.

Key words: assisted reproduction, reproductive right, health care system, family law

Introduction

Bioethics and artificial reproduction as a part of it, is a field of a brief history. The legislative history of it is no more than 25 years old. But during its evolution more and more international conventions and positions by intergovernmental organizations are taken to regulate it.

National states have held different legal approaches on the field. Some of them have given themselves the opportunity to predict and to proceed to further developments on the field by adopting specific law and regulations. Other, feared from the further development that could come by the use of biotechnology, adopted rigid laws on the field and strong criteria for their application. A third approach is that of other countries that adopted laws in accordance to the social and technological flexibility.

Albania can be considered in the group of those countries who have no regulated this field. in 2002 the Albanian legislator decided to implement some provisions regarding the artificial reproduction in the Law on the "Reproductive Health". Incorporated with the other provisions of the reproductive health, the adoption of these provisions didn't give any impact in public. It seems that they were some "dumb" provisions standing there in the "Reproductive Health" law, until fertility clinics of private sector started to apply them. During the adoption of these provisions there were made no public debates on the ethical issues or in the legislative one that may rise during the implementation of them, as they were made in most of the states adopting such provisions. From 2002 until now no regulation is adopted in order to implement more specifically the provisions on the artificial reproduction. The fact that Albania has no regulation on the field makes the situation more uncertain especially according to the status of the donor, to the genetic rights of the child and especially to the criteria settled by the health providers for the applicants.

Albania is becoming a market of the artificial reproduction for citizens of other countries where the regulations exist and are even restrictive. This legislative gap is making the situation more and more uncertain. in the years ahead, when issues associated with the implementation of this few dispositions will arise, the Albanian legislator should be prepared in order to protect the individual rights implicated in this process and which may be threatened.

This paper aims to make a summary analysis of almost all the important issues relating to the application of artificial reproduction techniques. in the first part of the paper is analyzed the right to access in the artificial reproduction techniques

as part of the procreation right. The implications of the artificial reproductive techniques with the principles and provisions of the family law are analyzed on the second part of the paper where through comparison with other jurisdictions is predicted which may be the changes in the Albanian family law. The third part of the paper has a short overview of the possibility of financing the artificial reproductive techniques by the Albanian health care system.

All the analyses is based in the approach of different European countries on the issues in order to have a complete picture on how this field is regulated. Artificial reproduction in Albania is now a fact and the reason for the treatment of this paper is to illustrate how a factual relationship should be safely incorporated and regulated by law.

The right to procreate.

The procreative right seen as a fundamental right would entail the person right to exercise it against all the other members of the society who had the obligation not to prevent it and the duty of the state to guarantee this right by ensuring the access in the procreation methods. Using such a right in the context of fundamental rights and freedoms include in the same context the assisted reproduction methods seen as methods which enable the realization of the right to procreate.

Even if from the theological concept procreation can be described as; "a marital act" it reflects important truths about human sexuality: that it is intrinsically and essentially ordered to procreation by its natural" (William, 2011) , it is hard to find a definition of the right to procreate as it is seen as a widespread concept. Reproduction was seen as the creation of the biological descendents through the sexual intercourse but as Robertson emphasis that "this understanding of procreative liberty can be distinguished from reproductive roles played by persons who are not themselves attempting to acquire offspring of their own". (Robertson 1992)

Social changes are imposing a new concept of procreation; that of the right to use your reproductive material with the mean of reproduction without imposing rights and obligations.

Other authors distinguish the procreation from reproduction; According to Shanner ""procreative rights" refer more specifically to initiating a pregnancy and bringing children into the world. Procreative rights are thus literally rights to have children at all, as distinguished from reproductive rights that concern the timing and manner in which one reproduces…a right to make procreative decisions without governmental restriction or force; a right to procreate without discrimination by doctors or others; an equal right of infertile people to procreate when fertile people can do so…" (Shanner 1995) Such a distinction offered by Shanner presents as a procreative right the right to have access in the artificial reproduction techniques and it broadens the meaning of reproduction by providing it as a possibility given not only for infertile couples but even to singles or others who decide to procreate without a partner and when a sexual intercourse is not needed. As it is mentioned before it is quietly impossible to have a fixed concept of the right to procreate. in most of the cases this right is hided or interpreted under the right to have a family. Different international documents provide the right to have a family; as the Universal Declaration on Human Rights; Art 16 "Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family", Art 23 of the UN International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights "The right of men and women of marriageable age to marry and to found a family shall be recognized.", European Convention on Human Rights according to which "Everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life, his home and his correspondence. Men and women of marriageable age have the right to marry and to found a family, according to the national laws governing the exercise of this right." etc.

 Even though the procreation right is not literally expressed in any international documents the jurisprudence of the courts have tried to fill the gap and they have been careful in interpreting cases brought before them on the issue by interpreting in the concept of family life even the right to access in the assisted reproductive techniques. (S.H v Austria 2011) (Dickson v. United Kingdom 2007)

The Albania Constitution doesn't explicitly provide any right to procreate but it provides in art 53 that "anyone has the right to marry and to have a family". The Constitution of Italy doesn't sanction any right to procreate but it is interpreted under art 30 and 31 "the right to have a family". Article 21 of the Constitution of Greece proclemates that "The family, being the cornerstone of the preservation and the advancement of the Nation, as well as marriage, motherhood and childhood, shall be under the protection of the State", by giving so a special attention to the family including here even the parenthood right. The Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany doesn't recognizes any right to procretate but it establishes the right to have a family under Art 6 "Marriage and the family shall enjoy the special protection of the state.

 (2) The care and upbringing of children is the natural right of parents and a duty primarily incumbent upon them. The state shall watch over them in the performance of this duty". An interesting view is that of the Article 272 of the Constitution of

the former Socialist Republic of Croatia of 1974 which provides the right of everybody to free decision about giving birth to children. This right was not recognized any more by the Constitution of the Republic of Croatia in 1990. (Kora 1998)

The lack of this provision in the States Constitution may occur as a result of their hesitation or fear to give liberty to procreation rights in the constitutional level in order to avoid any argument on the pro choice movement of different groups.

Although there is no constitutional provision protecting reproductive rights, Albania is still bound by some international conventions which guarantees family rights, non discrimination and the principle of the best interest of the child such as the Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women which guarantees the right of the women "… to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children…". The Convention "On the Rights of the Child" entitles the child to know his/her origin and the right to be cared for by his or her parents (Art. 7).

Albania is a member of the Council of Europe and as such the decisions of the European Court of Human Rights are sources of law to which one can refer to interpret the right of reproduction. Although the Convention has not sanctioned explicitly such a right, the court through its interpretation has considered it as an expression of private and family life. According to the ECJ"…the right of a couple to conceive a child and to make use of medically assisted procreation for that purpose is also protected by Art 8, as such a choice is an expression of private and family life…", protected by art 8 of the ECHR. (S.H vs Austria, 2011)

The provisions of the Albanian Law of 2002 are unclear and there is ambiguity in their interpretation. Even if art 30 of the law recognizes the purpose of the assisted reproduction as "the purpose of meeting the request of an individual or a couple to have a child", the whole interpretation of the dispositions related to assisted reproduction refer to it as an opportunity given to infertile couples who can't reproduce through the natural way. Moreover ART is admitted only for married couples, ruling out treatments for gay couples, single people, and women in menopausal age. Such a restrictive regulation derives from the interpretation of art 32, 34 and 40 which respectively defines the accessibility criteria to use artificial reproduction, assisted insemination and artificial in vitro fecundation.

Art 32

The techniques of reproduction are applied:
 a) when an individual has reached the age to marry;
 b) when the spouses have failed in attempts to have a child for a period of two years up to the moment when the transfer of the embryo and insemination is performed;
 c) in the presence of a licensed specialist doctor;
 ç) only after the written consent has been received for each cycle by the interested individuals.

Article 34

 Artificial insemination means using semen from a donor and injecting it into a woman. This is done when:
 a) her spouse is infertile;
 b) the donor is not the spouse of the woman.

Article 40

Artificial fecundation means the fertilization experimentally of female eggs with sperm of the man of a couple, outside the body of the woman. Participation in it is conditioned by the written permission of the woman who donates the eggs and the man who donates the sperm.

This is not an unexpected limitation since the Albanian legislation does not recognize homosexual marriages or homosexuals partnerships. Family is considered as an institution based or not in a marriage of two heterosexual individuals and their biological or adopted children. Given this is understandable such an arrangement of access on artificial reproduction techniques held by other states in Europe such as German, France and Italy which lead the right of procreation only with heterosexual couples.

Only a few legislations in Europe recognize the procreation rights of homosexuals or single persons by using the artificial reproductive technologies like Sweden and Spain which have recognized this right for lesbians and singles but not to gays (Swedish Act on Genetic Integrity, chapters 6 and 7) (Spanish law n. 14/2006 article 6/1)

The implications of the applicability of ART on the Family Law.

The implementation of the provisions on the artificial reproduction will interfere with the provisions of the family law to the extent that they are related with the determination of paternity and the right of the donor to ask for parental responsibility against the right of the woman's husband to contest the presumed paternity. The Albanian Family Code of 2003 provides two forms of defining paternity;

- through presumption; for children born within a marriage or conceived during the marriage and born within 300 days from the day of the dissolution or the declaration void of the marriage if the mother has not being married during this period.

-through recognition of paternity for the children born out of wedlock; which may be applied in two forms (as a voluntary acknowledgment of paternity realized with the consent of the mother, and the judicial recognition of paternity). (Family Code, 2003)

As it can be seen by these provisions the Albanian Family Code links the definition of paternity with the possibility of the existence of blood ties between the offspring and the father. This presumption should fit in cases of homologues artificial reproduction when the husband of the women is also the donor, but in cases of heterologous artificial reproduction, where the donor is not the husband of the women, the situation gets complicated.

Who should be the father of the child? Does the donor have the right to contest the presumed paternity?

Neither the Family Code nor the "The reproductive health" law does not provide any clause on haw should paternity be determined in such situations. Many states have sanctioned another principle on defining paternity, the consent principle. This new form of determining paternity through the principle of consent will be applied when the father of the child is not his progenitor, because methods of artificial reproduction are realized through the donor participation. for children born by the application of the heterologous insemination, the father of the child should be determined according to the presumption principle. (HFEA, 2008)

By interpreting art 180 of the Albanian family Code; "A child born during a marriage is presumed to be the child of the husband", the legal father of the child born by heterologous insemination is presumed to be the husband of the mother. This means that even if the offspring is born by the application of heterologous insemination, the husband of the mother should be the presumed father of the offspring.

But can the presumed father contest his presumed paternity?

According to art 184 of the Albanian Family Code the presumed father can contest the presumed paternity of the child in one year from the date that the man had notice of the birth of the child. This provision gives the possibility to the husband of the women to contest his presumed paternity on bases of the offspring born by the application of heterologous insemination. The Albanian Family Code does not provide any exceptional provisions to be applied when the presumed father has given his consent for the application of these techniques as European countries do. According to the United Kingdom law, the husband who gave the consent for the artificial reproductive techniques can't himself bring a charge for contestation of paternity. (Vonk 2007)

European countries have the same approach even regarding to the donor of the sperm. The sperm donors are not treated as legal fathers, whereas husbands who consent to their wives' treatment are so regarded. (Schwenzer 2007) This mean that the donor can't ask for paternal responsibility as long as the women fertilized is married. He can't contest the presumed paternity by pretending the biological links between him and the offspring. According to the art 5 of the Spanish Law "On Art" the donor can't be subject to claim legal paternity under any circumstances. (Law 35/1988, art 5)

Such a claim can't be filed even according to our Family Law as it recognizes the right to contest the presumed paternity only to the presumed father, to the mother of the child and to the offspring. The donor is not legitimized to bring such a claim.

The continued expansion of the application of artificial reproductive technologies demands a reconsideration of new principles and new forms on defining paternity. The consent principle should be provided in the provisions of Family Law as a new principle to define paternity. The anonymity of the donor and the preservation of the offspring rights should be provided by law. Even though the situation in heterologous artificial reproduction is more complicated and the rights of some people are related to each other the legislator should take into consideration the best interest of the child which should be the clue principle to resolve any situation.

The financing of artificial reproductive techniques.

Artificial reproduction is one of the forms of exercising the reproductive rights of individuals and a substantial part of the right of reproductive health. Seen in this perspective, states that provide artificial reproduction techniques as forms of reproduction in order to avoid infertility should fund these techniques within the health insurance scheme for as long they serve to the reproductive health of individuals.

Many European countries do not limit the implementation of artificial reproduction techniques as the possibility of reproduction of infertile couples, but they include also broader groups such as gay, lesbians or singles. Even if they differ in the access policies of the ART, most of the European countries have deemed infertility as a medical condition and their national policies fund all or some portion of infertility treatment. in compliance with the level of financing some of the European countries restrict access to the treatment by introducing eligible criteria such as age, marital status etc. for example; France has provided public funded from 2000 but limited it only to heterosexual infertile couples or couples who risk transmitting a disease. (Council of Europe, Steering Committee on Bioethics (CDBI)) Germany, according to section 27/a of German Social Code V, an insured person may receive a reimbursement of 50 % of the cost of the artificial reproduction techniques by meeting some criteria. in Italy there is reimbursement only for heterosexual couples and only in public health centers.

The law "On the health care in the Republic of Albania" provides the reproductive treatments as part of the health care scheme by providing it as reimbursable. The treatment of infertility is also provided as a reimbursable service at public health centers, but until today such techniques are performed only by private health centers and are financed fully by the individuals. The state inability to fund in private centers such services or to enable those in the public health centers has led to the fact that a significant part of infertile couples choose adoption instead of artificial reproduction methods.

In Albania there is still no legal regulation on the costs of artificial reproduction techniques and how to deal with them because so far these techniques not only are taking place in private clinics but also their performance fees are determined entirely by the clinics. The financial aspect of artificial reproduction techniques is of particular importance as it is not only related to the implementation or not of the right to reproductive health, but on the other hand the absence of such legal regulation also affects the growth of the phenomenon of "reproductive tourism ".

Recommandation

Artificial reproduction techniques and the concept of artificial reproduction itself are relatively lately provided by the Albanian legislation. The legislative history of these techniques in not more than 12 years old while in other states these techniques are being implemented for more than 25 years.

However, that is enough time to provide a more detailed legislation in order to regulate such a delicate field whose influence falls directly on the family structure. Although the provisions on the artificial reproduction are exhaustive and allow only the artificial reproduction among infertile spouses or those who suffer from genetically transmitted disease, many other criteria are left unspecified and in the physicians discretion.

The law of 2002 does not provide for what will be the position of the sperm donor. It doesn't even provide any obligation of physicians to preserve the anonymity of donors and of the recipients of the genetic material.

Unlike other legislations of the European countries which have provided the implications that the application of artificial reproduction may have on the family law, our legislation does not provide for what will be the position of the donor in relation to the offspring, whether he will be able to claim for parental responsibility or not.

Another issue which remains completely not regulated by the Albanian legislation is the number of the oocytes that can be implemented to achieve a pregnancy. Different jurisdictions have limited this number from 3 to 5 but there are others which do not provide an exhaustive number. It would be favorable if the legislator expressed this definition without leaving it entirely to the physicians' discretion.

It is just a matter of time that the implications of the application of the artificial reproduction will have in family issues to become courts litigations. in order to avoid family litigations on this issue, legislative provisions should have been taken to define by law the relations between three of the main actors of the ART; donor- offspring- beneficiary. It is also necessary to define the position of the husband of the women who performs heterologous artificial reproduction. Despite the fact that the family legislation presume that he is the father of the child, the law should provide the consent principle that is needed in the determination of parental responsibility.

The actual legislation let to the physicians the discretion in determining the accessibility criteria in these techniques. Elements such as, obtaining the consent of the husband of the woman, the anonymity of donors, administration of sperm banks and the couples right over the child, can't be left to medical practice. These elements should be regulated by law. It is the need for a legislative act which can give to couples, physicians and researchers a body of rules which attempt to reconcile the respect due to the human being, medical practice and necessary research.

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STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT APPLICATION DURING THE ENTRANCE and BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT in FOREIGN MARKETS – KOSOVO MARKET CASE

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Abstract

FDI (Foreign Direct Investments) are very important for many businesses worldwide including Kosovo as a country which is seeking for foreign investors to get healed from distraction of the past. Due to the capacity and purchasing power it has, market of Kosovo can be attractive for small and middle businesses intending to invest. Best options prospering in this sort of market, similar to Kosovo market, is by building of partnership or emerging businesses between foreign investors and domestic businesses as the best alternative for both parties. I would stress out the Kosovo market has potential for foreign companies to use the strategic management in order to expand their businesses, in this case in close cooperation or any kind of partnership with local companies by using opportunity in doing business in the field of distribution, representation and sales. Foreign interested companies intending to invest in Kosovo can use the strategic management in the field of operation such are: Distribution – usage of distribution strategies by getting into the partnership with domestic companies, Representation – practicing strategic planning of products offering in partnership with local businesses, Sales – can be mingled experience of companies which operate in Kosovo with best practices from other markets. This combination can afford reaching strategy planes effecting on better sales and aligning the company politics for: Logistic marketing – appropriate for current market of operation, Storage of goods – using the warehouses of partners or distributors, Transportation – using the vehicles of transport that partners are working with according to the agreement between partners – investor and native businesses- about the obligation and expenses for goods transportation.

Key Words: Strategic Management, Investments, Distribution, Representation, Sales, Kosovo market.

Introduction

FDI in a broader scope consist many fields of business. Due to mutual interests that represent FDI, looking from investors' angle objectives finding the new affordable place or market doing business and expanding geographically is an additional opportunity to take advantage of. As well as the country that receives or hosts foreign investments has some pretty lucrative advantages of opening gates with minimization of obstacles by giving to the interested foreign investors chance using their country for business purposes.

FDI mainly are seen as positive economic boost for many countries that lack cutting edge technology, investments funds, raw material, and even labor force. On the other hand, cross-border business doing opportunities are an incentive for numerous potential investors.

Many definitions and thoughts about FDI has been said and stated, so "Inflows are a sign that the outside world considers an economy a worthwhile place to park capital and are a signal that a country has "made it." FDI allows countries without the domestically grown know-how to develop resources that it may not have been able to otherwise (Radcliffe, 2013)," is among those which express bright side of it. Additionally, "FDI is defined as cross-border investment by a resident entity in one economy with the objective of obtaining a lasting interest in an enterprise resident in another economy. The lasting interest implies the existence of a long-term relationship between the direct investor and the enterprise and a significant degree of influence by the direct investor on the management of the enterprise (OECD, 2008)."

FDI is very important topic in emerging and developing markets. Though, current economical and social situation in Southeast Europe, precisely in countries of Balkans' majority of them passed thru the huge war time distractions of 90's, are swiftly modifying polices, improving legal and regulatory framework getting attention from businesses abroad aiming to absorb as much as they can foreign direct investments having in mind that these countries are heavily depended in money stream from abroad.

Every investment has some degree of risk on it, inescapably FDI. Since risk investments avoidance in many cases is manageable, prior to taking a step into the new market company should have basic knowledge about the market. Diminishing the risk of investments, application of strategic management and its usage can surely make numerous businesses thinking and behaving easily while looking for international ventures. Kosovo as a case where many investors seek to get market share, invest and do business, in contrary of perception as a small market, Fast Moving Consumer Goods, FMCG, companies adore this country. Being part of day to day developments in FMCG, as a manager, I see some opportunities for foreign companies that seek to invest in my country by not being stressed and worried about the risk of their money invested. This can be done and conducted by venturing in distribution, representation and sales in FMCG products.

Frankly, Balkans' have some experience in foreign direct investments including Kosovo as part of it. Kosovo as case which my paper is trying to explain reasons investing in Kosovo trying to provided facts and elaborates about the other possibilities which according to me some tiny but precious gaps can be fulfilled with usage of strategic management.

Kosovo's economic facts and FDI throughout the years

As stated above, Kosovo position in regional market concerning to foreign direct investments stands pretty much about the average comparing to other South-East countries. Based on that, Kosovo economical growth is much higher in comparison with regional Balkan countries as depicted in the graph provided beneath, it is obvious that Kosovo can be counted as promising market for foreign investments.

Western Balkans Growth 2007 – 2012 -Growth and Living Standards in Western Balkans
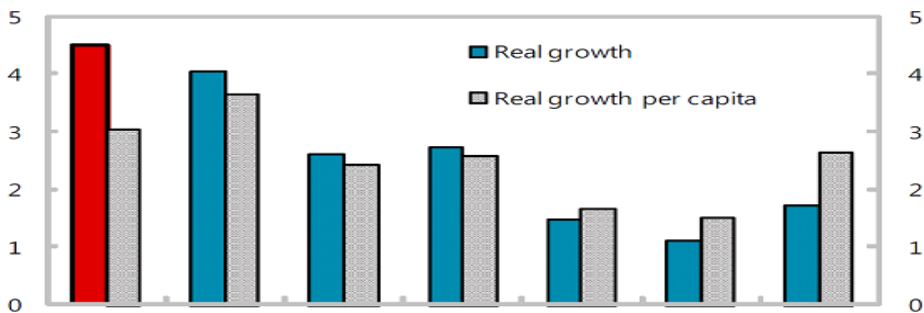
Kosovo Albania Macedonia Montenegro Romania Serbia Bulgaria

Source: World Economic Outlook (WEO)

While table bellow shows foreign direct investments thru the years which as seen investments fluctuate from year to year averaging 348.6 million Euros annually.

FDI growth 2006 –2012 (in mil EUR)

Year	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Total
FDI	294.8	440.7	366.5	287.4	365.8	393.9	291.1	2,378.1

Source: Central Bank of Kosovo

Additionally, tables and graph provided illustrate major investor countries in Kosovo starting from year 2007 until 2012.

Graphical Representation of main investors
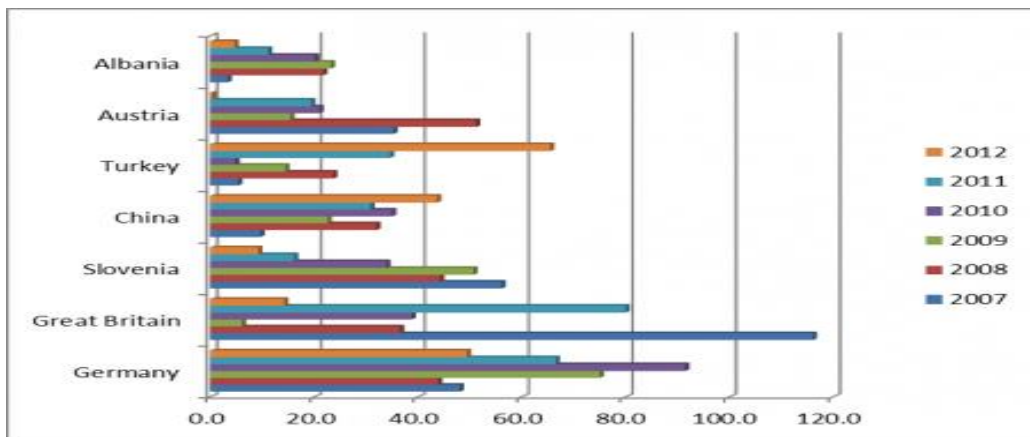
Source: Central Bank of Kosovo

Description/Year	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Financial Services	23.1%	34.9%	25.5%	19.5%	8.9%	10.4%
Production	9.0%	6.0%	17.1%	19.8%	12.8%	12.1%
Real Estate	7.0%	16.8%	14.9%	13.4%	16.3%	31.7%
Transport & Telecommunication	29.3%	13.8%	7.4%	4.0%	6.2%	7.9%
Electricity	0.6%	4.5%	2.9%	0.1%	0.0%	1.3%
Mining	9.4%	4.7%	2.4%	2.7%	0.8%	4.6%
Construction	1.2%	3.7%	12.0%	24.9%	34.3%	20.8%
Processing Industry	8.0%	8.5%	2.4%	6.9%	0.5%	0.4%
Agriculture	1.8%	2.3%	4.4%	0.6%	0.1%	0.1%
Trade Services, Cleaning, Collection	2.9%	2.7%	5.5%	3.3%	2.1%	3.6%
Advising Opearations & Research	1.0%	0.6%	0.9%	2.3%	2.0%	1.6%
Sanitarian Activity	2.9%	0.6%	0.8%	0.7%	0.0%	0.3%
Other	3.8%	0.9%	3.8%	1.9%	16.0%	5.1%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Central Bank of Kosovo
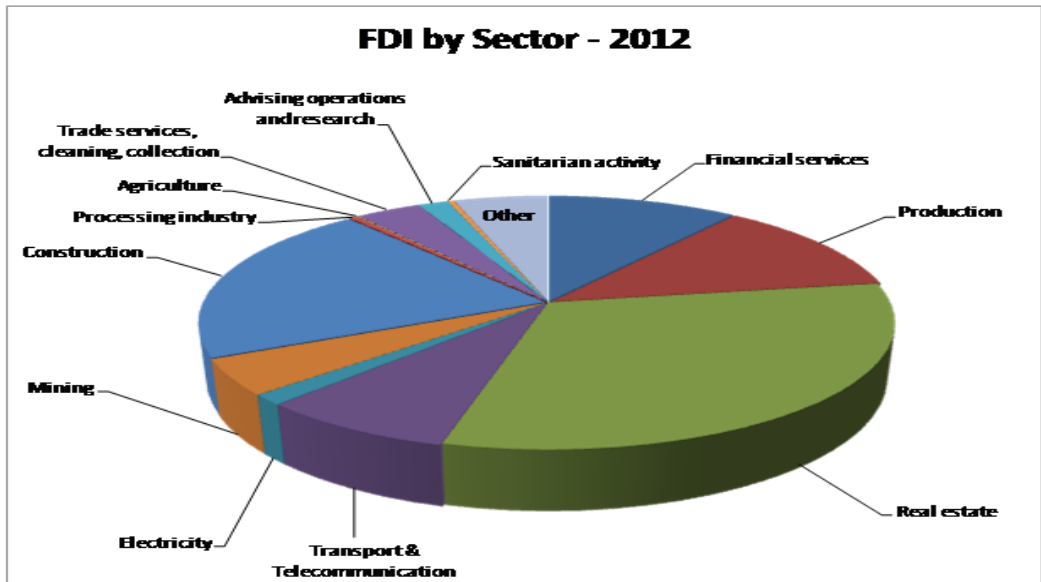
Source: Central Bank of Kosovo

Distribution

Most producers use intermediaries to bring their products to market. They try to develop a distribution channel (marketing channel) to do this. A distribution channel is a set of interdependent organizations that help make a product available for use or consumption by the consumer or business user (Shujaat, 2009).

Presumably, in the first glance a lot of people wouldn't think about the importance of distribution. They may percept as mere function the flow of goods from the producer to the customer since distribution in a gross picture can be seen so. in fact distribution is more complex as such. Having this fact in mind and being witness of daily business operation I hardly believe that many foreign companies can operate within the Kosovo market by investing their potential to this precious field of business.

Why is so important for foreign companies to make leap getting into the small market by getting focused in such easy job to be handled, some may wonder?

Reason behind this idea relies on that since majority of renowned companies whose goods are present and make a good turnover in Kosovo market doesn't have engaged or assigned any specialized distribution company for completion of this professional service while those companies may lose a bunch of money by neglecting or omitting this important business activity.

Additionally, nowadays Kosovo customer demand, which according to business people, is changing rapidly and forcibly determines "rules" on the market making business behaving according to consumers wishes. Getting in updated with desires and wishes of "sacred" consumer, business must change operation strategy. Getting aligned with immense market demands, many companies should ask for cooperation or knotting the business deals with many experienced foreign companies which are ready and enthusiastic to invest in Kosovo market even buying shares of some existing companies. Hence, demands for fulfillment of consumer satisfaction slowly prepares a territory for foreign companies to invest solely or in any sorts of partnership since changing buying culture asks for new strategies which are tightly connected with distribution.

For any potential investor, distribution strategy has to be chosen carefully in order to succeed. Based on my point of view, managing distribution strategy definition given below suit the current market situation in Kosovo and can be used as an advice to be pursued:

A distribution strategy defines how you are going to create and satisfy demand for your products.

A distribution strategy defines how you are going to move products from point of creation to points of consumption in an efficient and cost-effective manner.

A distribution strategy also defines how you are going to develop and maintain customer loyalty.

But first and foremost, a distribution strategy must be in sync with how customers want to shop and buy.

Today's customers shop and buy very differently than ever before.

Their access to high-quality information via the internet, combined with their heightened price sensitivity, has created a customer that is more sophisticated, better informed and often times, more adversarial than customers of the past.

This new breed of customer no longer plays by the rules of traditional distribution channels. Despite this fact, manufacturers and distributors continue to support outdated distribution strategies that actually make it hard for customers to shop for and purchase their products (Shujaat, 2009).

A well chosen a distribution strategy, is necessary because it constitutes a significant competitive advantage and is designed to save cost, improve and increase efficiency, provide reutilization of transactions, provide a larger customer base, and allows businesses to focus on the other aspects of the organization. It is important that the channel also provide business with strategy promotion, brand strategy, and provide convenience for customers while bridging the gap between the assortment of goods and demand from consumers (Abeer,2009).

Representation

Cease of war in Kosovo, 1999, brought not only the peace but along it many foreign and international dwellers who resided in Kosovo for long years thereafter. Since those people came from worldwide, theirs buying behavior was different than native ones. Number of those new residents was in thousands including NATO soldiers, as result, all those people asked for their preferred foods and beverages of their country the products they grew up with and used with. This fact of internationalization of Kosovo population made many companies to import exclusively international brands to satisfy new residents' need and retain some good profit for themselves. Ever since, thanks to new demography, Kosovo was seen as a market where many international companies as Kraft, Nestle, Mars, Coca Cola, Wrigley, Ferrero, Procter and Gamble, Nivea, and many others saw potential of geographical market expansion, as result companies started to deal with domestic companies representing their companies. As years passed, many international companies sought for better representatives, thus often changes of partnerships with representatives shows their mood of "happiness" dealing with some domestic firms.

Seeing this situation, a pressing need for a proper representation company in Kosovo is mandatory. Therefore, sufferings of many international companies would end in case of any international company enters into the Kosovo market as representative company for many international producers. It would be easier, for instance of, any foreign decide to get in partnership with some prominent native companies which side by side both firms can fulfill the breach which previous low working temper companies lacked to achieve.

According to me, partnership between Kosovo and any international firm with go along because both companies have many things in common and many things to learn from each other. International firm will learn about the culture and way of doing business in Kosovo, while native company would learn about working with high standards of operations, the way many international businesses do operate.

Best of all, foreign companies interested for investments in Kosovo, choosing representation as an appropriate service have many issue to offer to the market of Kosovo. for instance, to be successful company needs to be recognizable by clients and consumers which via domestic company can be achieved such reputation. Important issue is maintaining close relationships with current business partners and tries to get deal with potential ones. Try hard to expand business network within current market and try to obtain new deal into the Balkan markets and constantly be knowledgeable of current local developments. All aforementioned points can be achieved with a careful strategic planning since burden of brand representation in front of principals may weight upon shoulders of both partners in business, while as venture companies may cope with many obstacles which can be conquered easily with long term operation strategic planning.

Sales

With the marketplace changing so rapidly and product lives shortening, sales have become a strategic issue (Shapiro, Slywotzky & Doyle, 1997).

Up to date businesses that inspire higher portion of market share doesn't perceive selling in archaic way. By archaic way I mean the out-dated meaning of market as a place where seller and buyer meet for mutual interests consequently selling takes place either as a process of exchange of goods for money or bartering. Era of market changes with selling approach initially started in Ballkan since fall of communistic system. Span of time counting in years it may look long time ago while in practice changes more than 2 decades doesn't make many businesses being satisfied with entire business surroundings environment. While in developed markets selling is seen as an "art" or "science" inside of businesses and majority of planning, short or long terms, is concentrated in boosting abilities of selling by creating miscellaneous strategies of sales, in Ballkans and in Kosovo more precisely, selling improvement approaches, according to me, moves in sluggish pace. Taking these facts, therefore, Kosovo market can be suitable for international business companies with advanced selling management strategies and surely they will do well and succeed in investing via purchase of shares of native companies or even getting in partnership with some semi-up to date companies which managerial policies seek a smart path obtaining competitive market advantage.

In an environment where customer demands predominate because competition is both relentless and increasingly international, the world of selling must accommodate a dramatically changed world of buying. Crucially, sales management itself must catch up to this new world of selling. Many companies currently experience tectonic shifts because their selling abilities do not meet the needs of more demanding customers (Shapiro, Slywotzky & Doyle, 1997).

Being assured that new market, Kosovo market isn't risky, a new entrance as foreign investor or operator would diminish doubts in case of joining domestic companies which objectives and goals align with objectives and goals of investing company as result both parties as partners in business will take advantage of.

Among filed of operation worth to operate in Kosovo market is logistic marketing.

Marketing logistics is described as a system of planning and acting which guarantees that ordered goods will be supplied on time, with using of proper means of transport, in the quickest way and possibly the cheapest, Dwiliński (1998). It's so obvious for market knowledgeable people that logistics and marketing isn't advanced enough to that extent at the level of comprehending that both logistics and marketing in new contemporary operation business environment contemplate.

Good storage is another opportunity for investment for experienced companies in this field. Whilst, many may ignore this fact, day by day request of international companies which operate in Kosovo market are relied and prerequisite for high standards of good storage in order to sign partnership agreement with native businesses. As a person part of daily businesses operation, I see good storage as a prospective investment that can generate satisfactory incomes meanwhile start slowly creating another working culture within Kosovo market.

Among most important and key elements of business is also transportation. Lack of transportation strategies, many businesses in Kosovo lost market share either lacking strategy or avoiding expenses that transportation service causes. Customers demand their shipments be delivered as they require--on the date needed, by the carrier preferred, in the proper shipping packaging method and complete, both shipped complete and delivered complete and in good order. Being able to have a transportation program with can do this provides customer satisfaction and can give your company a competitive advantage (Craig, 2012). Investing in transportation service company is a wise and potential business filed that many experienced foreign companies can easily cover Kosovo market with proper managerial strategy.

Conclusion

Market of Kosovo is small but attractive. Based on recent date taken from World Economic Outlook (WEO) Kosovo stand I very good position attractive for foreign investment. Its geographical position is so important due to the connectivity with other Balkan countries. Exploring Kosovo for investment purposes in worth action for venture businesses. As it said world is shrinking, many distinguished companies target countries like Kosovo to invest in. So far, majority of best and high quality brands can be found in shelves even of traditional trades sellers. Day by day, Kosovo's consumer taste is changing requiring besides quality products also quality services. This change is seen but not so much followed from many domestic companies as consequence makes them losing race with foreign competition businesses. As matter of fact, new market changes enable foreign companies to seek for investment opportunities in some valuable services. Advance which can be taken from foreign investors is the fact that some native companies are more than willing to join and get into partnership

with international companies aiming to prospect and take competitive advantage since open market trades from surrounding Ballkan countries is threatening with new market expanding strategies applied.

Recommendation

Investing internationally or in foreign countries is willingness or venture that many companies make a step forward. As every other investment, aim is for higher return of investments. Even objective of companies is to find most sustainable business of country to invest in; nowadays international business climate offers such opportunities for wise and brave farseeing strategic managers.

Kosovo is among countries that offer such opportunity for international businesses. With usage of proper strategic management, market of Kosovo can be used as affordable and secure place with fast returns of investments. As a person who is engaged in daily operation business, I see that many international companies can solely or in partnership with native companies take a good piece of market share of even penetrate with some new service businesses. Among opportunities for investments I see sectors suitable to invest in as bellows:

Distribution of goods mainly, representation of international companies with products and services, and professional sales operations. Apart from that a potential field of investment would offer a logistic marketing, storage of goods and transportation service businesses which by using strategic management will doubtlessly succeeded in Kosovo market.

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Examining the relationship of Corruption with Economic Growth, Poverty and Gender Inequality Albanian Case

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Abstract

This thesis examines the relationship of corruption with economic growth, poverty and gender inequality in Albania. Albania is a developing country with a GDP growth rate of 1.6% (World Bank, 2012) and income inequality is a serious problem that government has to deal with. Regarding gender discrimination a lot of progress is made. The current government counts six female ministers in its body. Corruption in Albania is a widespread phenomenon and is found almost in every sector of life. TI CPI index ranks Albania in the 116 place out of 177 countries observed. To study this relationship a multiple regression analysis is conducted. Data for this analysis correspond to years 2000 to 2012 and is accessed from World Bank database. in this analysis CC from World Bank is the dependent variable, while FDI, GDP growth rate, GNI per Capita, Unemployment Rate, Proportion of Women in Parliamentary Positions and Women's share in Labor Force Participation Rate are the explanatory variables. The first two variables are used as indicators of economic growth. GNI per capita and Unemployment rate account for poverty, while the last two variables account for gender inequality. The results have shown that when the level of FDIs in Albania is increased government performance in control of corruption is improved. From the analysis it is understood that a decrease in unemployment rate would increase government performance in control of corruption. The results of the analysis showed that when unemployment rate increase, CC decreases. Regarding the link of corruption with GDP growth rate and GNI per capita, an inverse relationship is observed. With an increase in either GDP growth rate or GNI per capita, CC will decrease. Even the relationship with number of women in parliament and their share in labor force participation rate with corruption resulted to be negative. An increase in either proportion of women in parliamentary positions or share of them in labor force participation rate has shown to worsen government performance in control of corruption.

Keywords: corruption; economic growth; income inequality; gender inequality

Introduction

This paper aims at explaining the relationship that exists among corruption and economic growth, corruption and poverty, and corruption and gender inequality in Albania.

Albania is a transition country, which left communist regime in early '90s.Under that regime its economy was closed. With the collapse, from 1992 to 1996 Albania experienced a good economic growth, having the highest economic growth rate compared to it of other transition countries in that period. in 1997 with the civil war that captured the country economy entered into collapse and the transition period was extended until today. Unemployment rate in 2013 was registered 14.7%, which is a very high rate. Agriculture is the main sector, generating the largest percentage of GDP. Corruption has always been a serious problem for the country. It is one of the most important factors that impede its integration into European Union. According to TI, Albania was placed in the 116th place out of 177 countries taken in observation. On overall country is perceived to be highly corrupted. To understand this condition, this paper tries to explain the level of corruption in the country through Economic Growth, Poverty and Gender Inequality. Income inequality is a very serious problem, since the bottom part of the population merely earns money to get feed. Gender discrimination is another issue that should be taken into consideration, even though a lot of progress has been made in this aspect.

The first section is an introduction of the main topics to be discussed in this paper. This section tries to give the definitions of each topic, corruption, economic growth, poverty and gender inequality. After defining it, then it tries to explain the factors affecting each subject and in the end it deals with methods used to measure those. Because of its illegal nature measuring corruption is very difficult. To measure it different international organizations have established some well-known indexes such as: Corruption Perception Index of TI, Control of Corruption index by World Bank etc.

The second part is the literature review on the relationship of corruption with economic growth, poverty and gender inequality. The relationship between economic growth and corruption is studied in two directions, economic growth effect on corruption and corruption effect on economic growth. Some studies reveal that corruption impedes economic growth and other reveal the contrary. However, the results differ because of different conditions taken into consideration, such as

the country of observation, culture of that country and other uncontrolled factors which may have contributed to such results. When examining the effect of corruption in economic growth most of the studies conclude that when corruption decreases economy performs better. The link between corruption and poverty has two sides. Corruption deepens poverty, but poverty may also lead to corruption. Studies made all over the world show a direct relationship between poverty and corruption, implying that an increase in poverty will increase corruption in that country. Regarding gender inequality and its relationship with corruption there are different views. Some argue that when the number of women in high managing and leading positions is high, level of corruption is low. However, some studies contravene these results, showing a negative relationship between number of women in high positions and corruption. It should be noted that these results differ because when studying this relationship, different variables are taken into consideration. It should not be forgotten the fact that females are differently treated and seen in different countries and situations.

The last part of this study is the analysis of these relationships in Albania. A regression analysis is performed, with CC index of World Bank as dependent variable and FDI, GDP growth rate, GNI per capita, Unemployment rate, Proportion of women having a seat in the parliament and women's share in labor force participation rate as independent variables. The dataset consists on data for the years 2000 to 2012. These data were accessed from World Bank database. It should be mentioned that in this study no data from Albanian sources was taken, to avoid the biasness of the results.

Background

Corruption

Corruption is a problem which is seen in every country in the world, even though in different measures. There are many definitions about it. The most widely used one is that corruption refers to the misuse of power by public officials for personal gains, forgetting their responsibilities and duties. Transparency International defines corruption as: 'Corruption is the abuse of entrusted power for private gains. It hurts everyone who depends on the integrity of people in a position of authority' (TransparencyInternational, 1993). According to world banks' corruption is 'the misuse of public office for private gain' (World Bank, 1997).

Industrial revolution is one those historical events which have contributed in the development of corruption. During this period the so-called white collar crime appeared. Industrial revolution was followed by a great financial growth. Because of this financial growth, economy became more dependent on finance and investments (Lanch & Rob, 1992). This dependency was followed by the development of banking sector, stock and bond markets, and a new legal system. To sustain these developments, the number of financiers, lawyers and many other professionals was increased, which helped in a further expansion of white-collar crime.

Colonization is another source of corruption. Results of different researchers have shown that there is a strong relationship between colonies and corruption. This fact is seen more on countries where the companies created by colonies, have low property rights. According to a study made by Acemoglu, Johnson and Robinson in 2001, in those areas where a large number of Europeans were living, institutions created were used for their own benefit. Even today these countries suffer from high corruption levels.

One of the main reasons for involving in corruption is rent seeking. Many governments in Africa have been practicing kleptocracy. This is a practice in which personal interest comes first. People and many other resources are exploited and national interest is neglected. Governments in these countries put their friends and relatives in important political positions. This practice, nepotism, confronts the principle of meritocracy. in meritocracy people are rewarded for their abilities and capacities, without "references" from relatives and friends. Countries which do not apply this principle are governed by non-professionals. This results in an increase of corruption levels. Studies show that in those countries where government intervenes more, corruption is higher. Intervention of government includes quotas, tariffs, subsidiaries etc. Governments have full power on these instruments and may use them in a way that benefits them most.

Efficient institutions play an important role in fighting corruption. To increase efficiency of them, skilled and well-educated professional should be employed (C.North, 1991).An efficient institution means acting in accordance with law and without any outside or inside distracter. This way quality and stability of institution will increase.

Treisman in his research mentions as possible factors of corruption religion and old traditions (Treisman, 2000). Some researchers argue that in Catholic and Muslim countries the level of education is low, resulting in high levels of corruption. However, in my opinion religion does not influence corruption. Religious people are guided by Bible or Koran, in which corruption is seen as a sin.

As almost everything that exists has two parts one black and one white, we can say the same thing about corruption. On one side it is seen as 'grease in the wheels of commerce', and on the other side it is seen as 'sand in the wheels of commerce'. According to Leff (Leff, 1989) corruption helps to speed up transaction process. By means of corruption new industries/firms will enter the market and will increase competition. On the other hand corruption is seen as a factor which impedes efficient allocation of resources. for example Kaufmann in his study in 1997 concluded that resources devoted to corruption could be invested elsewhere and probably this investment would bring a higher return and lower costs. Usage of bribes can be very costly. Bribery does not necessarily mean that what you have asked for will be fulfilled. As it is illegal, investors cannot sue the other party in a court.

Corruption is seen in different forms. Researches use five approaches to differentiate types of corruption. The first approach has to do with the position an individual has in an institution. Based on this approach we differentiate between 'upper-level' and 'lower-level' corruption. High-ranking officials are engaged in 'upper-level' corruption. On the other hand civil servants relate to 'lower-level' corruption. The main difference between these two types of corruption is the role or the position that the public official is holding. 'Political corruption' stands for corruption at the decision-making stage, while 'bureaucratic corruption' stands for corruption that occurs in implementation of policies and decisions.

The second approach has to do with the nature of transaction. This approach makes a distinction between 'bribery' and 'extortion'. Bribery is a situation in which an individual from general public makes an extra payment to public officials, to reach something he/she needs. On the other hand extortion is the case when public officials use their power and asks extra payments for providing a service.

Many scholars classify corruption in two forms: petty and grand corruption. Grand corruption, sometimes called as political corruption, refers to corruption at the highest level of governance. It includes people who have a large influence in political decision-making. It involves a large amount of money. Petty corruption, on the other hand, takes place at the lowest levels. in this level we have a direct contact between public officials and the general public and less money involved. This form of corruption is also very important because these small bribes, over time are amassed (Scott, 1972).

Corruption can also be differentiated based on the context of the act. This is systemic framework approach. According to (Robinson, 1998), there are three types of corruption: 'incidental corruption', which is very rare; 'institutional corruption', which refers to institutions that lack control and corruption is high; and 'systemic corruption', which is the case of society being too much involved in corruption practices.

Another approach distinguishes corruption based on motive or outcome from the act. Margarit Beare, in her research "Corruption and Organized Crime: Lessons from History" in 1997, recognizes four types of corruption based on motive/purpose approach. 'Bribes/kickbacks', used to get the right to do legitimate business; 'election/campaign corruption', which is that type of corruption used to guarantee ongoing power; 'protection corruption', is a situation when payments are offered in order to get protection from engaging in illegal businesses; 'systemic top-down corruption', is that form of corruption which relates to a systemic use of a nation's wealth by a ruling elite.

Corruption has been and is still very hard to measure. One reason for this difficulty is the illegality in its nature and different forms it is seen. Different international organizations have developed different indexes which help to measure it. Transparency International uses CPI (Corruption Perception Index), International Country Risk Group's has established a different index (ICRG).

Corruption is understood better when analyzing the relationship between corruption and poverty; corruption and gender inequality and corruption and economic growth. in the following sections, this paper will be focused on poverty, gender inequality and economic growth, specifically their definitions, types, factors and measurement.

Poverty

'1 billion children live in poverty' (Shah, Global Issues, 2013). Statistics show us that poverty is increasing day by day. This phenomenon is present in the majority of world's population, in both developed and non-developed countries. Poverty covers a wide range of topics. It is not related only to poverty in terms of income, but also to health and wellbeing of individuals.

Different scholars have distinguishes three main types of poverty definitions: monetary poverty, multidimensional poverty and the capabilities approach (Misturelli & Heffernan, 2008). Monetary poverty refers to poverty in terms of income. Capabilities approach is about what individuals can do with what they posses.

On the other hand other researchers have divided poverty in to two main types: Absolute and Relative poverty. Absolute poverty, known also as extreme poverty, refers to a situation where people cannot satisfy even basic needs for living, like: food, clean water, houses, medicine etc. This kind of poverty is more common in poor countries, but not only. for example Roma living in European countries suffer from absolute poverty. Relative poverty is when there exit some differences in incomes and life styles of people in a society. in relative poverty people struggle to reach a minimum standard of living, defined by the rest of the society.

There are many factors behind poverty. Mainly poverty is the result of how society is structured. It also depends on individual factors.

Individual factors are classified as follow:

High Unemployment: This is an indicator of low or no income.

Inadequate Education level: This prevents people from getting employed in good positions and be better paid.

Minority Ethnic group: Members of these minority groups are discriminated and prevented to get access to decent jobs.

Disability: Disabled people have limited access to employment.

There are some other very important causes of poverty, which do not directly depend on individuals. These factors are related to historical events or functioning of the society.

Colonialism: Many scholars see this as very important factor, which has contributed to the level of poverty in the world. Colonizers have created some "local economies" so that they could exploit resources only for their economic growth. These countries lack a proper infrastructure, preventing interaction with other countries.

Power Centralization: This refers to centralization of political power. in many developing countries, politicians make decisions about regions they are not familiar with. This leads to inappropriate programs.

War: Beside numerous human deaths, war causes many material damages. Many fabrics, stores, roads are destroyed. in these situations, limited resources are used for military purposes, rather than to fight poverty.

Social Inequality: This social inequality has to do with discrimination done to individuals on basis of religion, ethnic and racial characteristics. There is the example of White and Black people, which based on their skin color they get or not the opportunity to work.

Corruption: This is another factor that contributes in advancement of poverty. This is related more with the situation, when public representatives use funds provided for public investments for their own benefit.

There are different ways to measure poverty. The most used way is to define a poverty line. This line differs from country to country. for example in poor countries this line varies from 1 to 2$ per day. in developed countries poverty line is defined as having an income below a certain percentage of median income of a country. However, World Bank and OECD use even other indicators to measure poverty, like: birth rate, mortality rate, disease occurrence, households' conditions etc. GINI coefficient is another method used to measure poverty. It refers to measurement of disposal income inequality. A coefficient of 0 implies complete equality, while a coefficient of 1 means incomplete inequality. Beside disposal income, some other indicators like school enrollment, literacy rate, unemployment rate, migration rate etc, are included in Gini coefficient analysis.

Gender Inequality

Gender inequality has always been a hot topic for debates all over the world. If we have a look at the history, we can see a domination of male over the women. Even the 20th century situation, was seen to be the same. Women were meant to be home, taking care of children, while men were supposed to work and participate in public field.

Regarding the definition of gender inequality, I would like firstly to define what gender equality stands for. According to United Nations (United Nations, 2001) organization gender equality refers to equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men. Equality does not mean that women will became the same as men, but instead equal chances to develop will be given to both of them.

Gender inequality refers to discrimination made to men and women because of their gender. Generally this discrimination is addressed to women. They are seen inferior and less valuable just because of the fact they are women. But there are also some cases of discrimination made to men.

In sociology this inequality sometimes is seen as a "natural" thing. This means that gender relations are not defined by the rule of the society, but instead biological characteristics. for example it is a fact that women are able to give birth to an infant, while men are not. However, these natural inequalities cannot be the reasons for the social relations between genders. in an egalitarian point of view, relations between genders are said to be pale if both men and women have equal power and autonomy.

As it was mention above, there exists a traditional division of labor within the household. Women are generally excluded from leadership positions, while on the other hand men are excluded from child care. Because of these divisions, there are formed some stylized facts of relative status of men and women (Mikkola & A.Miles, 2007).

Relative status of women:

Son preference: in some countries female babies are valued less. This phenomenon is remarkably observed in regions of Asia, mainly in China, India and South Korea. Statistics show that this is also seen in western countries like USA, too. Number of divorced people, who have girl children, is higher than those having boy children. Lena Edlund in her study "Son Preference, Sex Rations, and Marriage Patterns" in 1999 has stated that son preference is explained by the parents utility perception. Males will be more helpful than women.

Education: for many decades women have been excluded from education in school and university. The first woman acceptance in university was in 1870 in the University of Helsinki. in developing countries literacy levels are lower in developing countries, even though significant progress has been made.

Employment and total work: Share of female workers in the total labor force has increased over the past years. We have more women employed in the service sector. Still, women are deprived from leadership positions. There are 192 countries in the world, but only 12 of them have as the head of the state a woman. Another interesting fact is that women are those who occupy the largest percentage of part time jobs, translated in lower incomes.

Decision making power: Women have always been striving to gain power. Even in western countries, like USA, women gained the voting right only in 1920, in the same year with Albania, which is still a still a transition country.

Status of men

Life expectancy: Men's life span on average is shorter than that of women. Only in some countries life expectancy between men and women is equal. This shorter life expectancy of men is related to life style of them. Men are those who are more engaged on suicide, war and narcotics usage.

Changing roles and marginalization: With the changing structure of the work in the developed countries, women started to work in the service sector. This sector was growing day by day, while men were working in declining sectors, like: manufacturing, agriculture etc. Because of this restructuring, an increase in women's relative wage is observed.

Gender inequality is seen as one the determinants that lead to corruption. One of the most challenging question of current debates is whether women are less corrupt than man are. Different researches have been made to analyze the impact that gender has on corruption. Some believe that women by nature are less corrupt than man. They have the fear of being detected and then discriminated by the public. Others oppose this fact, by arguing that women can be easily corrupted as they are easily manipulated. Further in this paper we will try to give an answer to this question.

Economic Growth

This section is about economic growth, its indicators, measurement and effect it has in the life of people. Economic growth is defined as the capability of a country to produce goods and services and distribute them among consumers. It is measured in real and nominal terms. in nominal terms, inflation is also included. Real economic growth is adjusted for inflation.

The most used indicators for measuring economic growth are GDP per capita and GNP per capita. These two indicators take into consideration even the population of a country. Gross domestic product (GDP) is the sum of the value of finished goods produced within a country in a specific year. GDP represents also personal consumption, government expenditures, private investments and net exports. Gross national product (GNP) includes GDP, plus income earned by residents in overseas investments, minus any income earned by foreigners within the country. GNP is a measure of country's performance, what its residents have produced and whether these products were produced within the boundaries of the country.

In 1776 Adam Smith with his book "The wealth of nations" brought a new and fundamental perspective of economic growth theory. in the very first chapter of his book, he discussed on economic growth by explaining the importance of labor division. According to him, specialization would result in faster and more efficient growth. By taking the example of pins production, he argued that a single person would not be able to make 20 pins a day and ten workers at the end of the day would have finished less than 200 pins. However, if work is divided and different worker is assigned a different task, at the end of the day the same workforce would have finished about 48000 pins. Division of labor increases productivity, leading to higher wages. With high wages people demand more and markets expand further. As a conclusion, Smith's economic growth theory says that growth is mainly achieved by an increase in consumption. However, this growth cannot continue forever. Government intervention may impede the indefinite growth of economy, by policies like imposing a ceiling wage.

Most of the work on this topic has been done to define the causes and origin of economic growth. The three most important factors are physical factors, human capital and innovation. Solow explained capital accumulation as one of the most important indicators of economic growth. It is known as Solow Growth Model. in this model prices are not taken into consideration and everyone works all the time. This model is build under the assumptions that people work all the time and save a fixed proportion of their income. Economy is assumed as closed. Fundamental equation of growth: ($k = s * f(k) - (n + \gamma + \delta) * k$), where k stands for capital stock for worker, s for investment, n for population growth, γ for technological progress and δ for depreciation. Population growth, technological progress and depreciation are inversely related to k(capital stock per worker). While investments are positively related to k. Human capital is seen by many scholars as one of the most important factors of economic growth. It is the use of human capital that has helped economies recover from stagnation. According to different scholars studies the return to accumulating human capital increases with the stock of human capital (Roys & Seshadri, 2014) .

Regarding the origin of economic growth, there are two factors institutions and geography. It is believed that efficient working institutions help growing the economy. Institutions which operate on basis of meritocracy contribute in reducing corruption. Countries where corruption is in the lowest level have prove to have highest growth rates. Luxembourg is one of the countries with the highest GDP level in Europe and according to CPI of Transparency International organization, it is ranked the 11th among 177 countries (Transparency International, 2013). Regarding geographical position, those countries which are not favored by the climate are poorer compared to those countries favored by geography. There are countries like Sudan in Africa that face a negative growth rate, specifically GDP (real) in 2011 was -4, as registered in Indexmundi.

Literature Review

Corruption and Poverty

The relationship between corruption and poverty affects both individuals and businesses. It is a twofold relation: On one hand poverty encourages corruption, while on the other hand corruption intensifies poverty.

This relationship has been a subject for study since 1970s. Rent-seeking phenomenon influences people perceptions about the economic system. A few businesses would be able to survive if they did not use their power to influence government officials to make them favors in any case they need (O.Krueger, 1974). Price system is viewed as a mechanism which rewards the wealthy people and those who have connections with political representatives. This perception creates incentives for greater rent-seeking. A higher rent-seeking leads to an increase in economic activity. Corruption benefits some individuals more than others and as it deepens and affects government decisions in resource allocation, its distributional effects are more obvious (Gupta, Davoodi, & Alonso Terme, 1998).

Corruption contributes to tax evasion, lack of effective tax administration and favors well-connected and wealthy people. for example the use of government funded programs for the benefit of the wealthy people will decrease the impact of social programs in income distribution and poverty level. Wealthy people with use their wealth o affect government to make them favors while conducting trade policies, for example special exchange rate, spending program and tax rate. in this way assets of wealthy people will have greater returns, compared to those assets owned by the poor. As assets can be used as collateral, the ability of the poor to borrow will decrease, contributing to a deeper income inequality and poverty. Corruption contributes to lower spending in health and education (Mauro, 1995). It prevents the poor people to get access to public services, because of their inability to pay bribes. Such things lead to an exacerbation of poverty. The wealthy people can corrupt government to increase investment in education for their benefit. The poor people have an extra risk premium, so the expected return on assets of wealthy people will increase. They will be discouraged to invest in any resources resulting in a deeper income inequality and poverty level.

Because of corruption, public investments will shift from service sector to areas with higher profits, like construction and infrastructure. Lack of investments in service sector makes service providers to ask payments for services that should be offered for free or at low cost (USAID, 2005).

The link between corruption and poverty can be explained also by economic growth. High corruption is followed by a high poverty level. When economy is growing, people expectations are higher. Unemployment falls and income level starts to increase. Due to these changes people start to spend more and poverty reduces. But when this growth is associated by a high level of corruption, the opposite situation is observed. An increase in corruption will decrease economic growth. As a result poverty will increase and income inequality will be more rigid (Gupta, Davoodi, & Alonso Terme, 1998).

In May 1998 IMF conducted a research to investigate the relationship between corruption and poverty. The result showed that corruption and poverty have a positive relationship with each other. A one percentage growth in rate of corruption decreases income growth by 7.8% for those people who fall on 20% of bottom population.

According to a study of World Bank, lower levels of corruption are associated with lowers levels of income inequality and costs of corruption are higher in small businesses (World Bank, 2000). The study was conducted to see if there is any relationship between corruption and income inequality, in Europe and Central Asian countries.

Susanne Karstedt (Karstedt, 2001) conducted a research in 35 OECD countries. Her aim was to examine the link between corruption and income distribution. Results showed that countries which have high income inequality have also high level of corruption. Whereas in countries education level is high and number of women in government positions is high, corruption has a decreasing trend. The relationship between corruption (Gini-Index) and income inequality was observed to be non-linear, meaning that corruption will exponentially decrease after certain income equality is reached. Even though the level of income inequality is same in different countries, level of corruption is not the same. Fight against corruption has not been efficient in every country this is the reason why corruption between countries with same income inequality is different.

Income inequality increases corruption. Because of their status, privileges and their economic capacity, the rich people have both motivation and possibility to engage in bribes giving, while the poor people are somewhat excluded from this so-called privilege (You & Khagram, 2004). in countries with totalitarian political regime, corruption is very high. However the effect of inequality is more severe in countries under democratic regimes.

In 2002 in Monterrey it was held Summit of Development Finance and since then worldwide is accepted that corruption increases poverty, or at least impedes efficiency of poverty reduction actions.

Political corruption has an indirect impact on provision of public services, while petty corruption used to access these services have a direct impact on poor households poverty level. These poor households are not able to find money to afford the public services offered, or are obliged to rely on incompetent professionals. in their effort to find money for such services, they actually deepen their poverty. They borrow money from different sources, which later they are not able to pay. They may take their children out of school or even cut back on food.

Corruption does not directly produce poverty. The relationship between them is indirect. Corruption has a direct effect on economic performance and governance, which are directly related with poverty (Chetwynd, Chetwynd, & Spector, 2003). Anti-corruption measures if carefully implemented may result in important poverty reduction. in order to decrease poverty, these anti-corruption actions should also achieve an increase in economic growth, increase trust in government, improve public services etc.

Corruption and Gender Inequality

Many researchers and scholars place a great effort in determining the link between corruption and gender. Most believe that corruption affects men and women differently.

Women into government have benefit on society and decreases corruption in particular (Dollar et.Al, 1999). A higher rate of women in governmental position reduces corruption. Women are believed to behave less opportunistically and may have higher moral and ethical standards than men. As a result more women into government may benefit society in general. His study consisted of sample of 144 and 270 observations, for the period of 1982-1995. To account for participation of women in government share of seats in upper and lower chambers held by women is used. As an indicator of corruption level International Country Risk Guide Index (ICRG) is used.

This relationship between corruption and participation of women in government is explained by the concept of self-selection (Swamy, Knack, Lee, & Azfar, 2001). There are a very few women who get to these important positions, and this is because these women are among the most distinguished ones.

However the belief that women have higher ethical standards and thus are less corrupted than men is opposed by Goetz. She argues that such relationships exist because of limited access of women to political decisions. Generally corruption happens in all-male networks and women are excluded from these networks. When they enter in politics they are unfamiliar with such behaviors, such as bribes that would bring them personal benefit. Because of this reason they behave more ethically and with higher integrity. However, when the time passes and women become more familiar with such environments, this effect may fade away (Goetz, 2004).

Hung-en Sung attributed the belief that a higher e number of women in government decrease corruption to the well functioning of liberal institutions. A fairer system and not higher women integrity lead to less corruption (Sung, 2003). Liberal institutions provide better incentives for women participation in governmental positions. These kinds of institutions treat women equally, fairer and with tolerance. in this way women feel more committed to their work and do not engage in illegal exchanges. in her analysis when both gender differences and institutional indicators were included in the model, the effects of gender inequality on corruption become non-significant. This leads to the conclusion that is the degree of democracy within the institutions that affects more corruption and less gender differences.

An important factor that has been taken into consideration when examining the link between corruption and gender is discrimination against women. in countries where corruption is high, the level of discrimination against women is also high. in these countries it is seen a great preference for men in government positions.

Several studies argue that society's behavior against women shapes political life and the position of women in government. As politics has an important influence in corruption, one can argue that society's behavior against women has a great impact on corruption as well. in 2001 Trip made a research in analyzing the role of women in preventing corruption in Eastern and South Africa. Despite reforms made, improvements in competitive elections, freedom of expression and multi-party political system, women yet did not have enough access to higher positions. Women could enter in politics, but they could not access all-male networks and were excluded from the benefits of clientelistic networks. However, these reforms helped discriminated women to form some social groups. These groups organized independent movements. The aim of these movements was to increase transparency and remove such clientelistic networks that benefited men, and were an important source of corruption (Trip, 2001).

Importance is also given to attitudes against corruption, which determine its persistence. in 2006 V. Alatas made a study on four countries Australia, India, Singapore and Indonesia. The results showed that there not difference in men and women's attitude against corruption. A greater variation was observed in women's attitudes toward corruption in different countries. These findings suggest that attitudes toward corruption are more related to culture than to gender differences (Alatas, 2008).

In studying the relationship between gender and corruption, it should be understood that corruption affects differently and takes different forms in men and women. These different effects are studied into three categories: access to decision-making power, protection of women rights and access to resources (Nawaz, 2009).

Corruption leaves women with little space to change their state. in countries where votes are bought, clientelism is on place and where people are awarded for their connections and not on basis of meritocracy, there are few chances for poor women to develop themselves (Kariuki, 2008).

The impact that corruption has on women access to resources is very deep. It can be analyzed in three different situations. The first case has to do with the relationship of grand corruption and access to public services such as health and education, to women. These services are more affordable for an advantaged part of the society. Poor women cannot afford the bribes asked for these services, this makes them become poorer or are left with few choices for such services. Another serious case is the sexual abuse in schools. This kind of corruption is not reported due to its nature. This leads to discrimination and prejudices against females, while the other party is not touched at all. This is the case when the effect of corruption on women is doubled: not only they pay the "bribe", but they also are in danger of being expelled from school. Most believe that women are unable to pay bribes so they are somehow "justified". This means that women may access some services without paying bribes, but not always. in most of the cases women do not get the service because they cannot penetrate inside the network where bribes are paid (Nawaz, 2009).

Corruption and Economic Growth

Effect corruption has on economic growth has two sides. Some researchers have concluded that it impedes economic growth, while others argue that it contributes to a faster growth.

Corruption contributes to economic growth by allowing individuals to use bribes in case where there are excessive and irrelevant regulations and to avoid unnecessary bureaucratic procedures (Leff, 1989). Corruption can reduce the time

people waste in a queue (Lui, 1985). Excessive bureaucratic procedures slow down the process of business formation or because of the strict, inefficient rules individuals do not take advantage of all the resources available. in these cases corrupt officials may have a positive effect on growth, by reducing the barriers mentioned above. He also argued that some corruption may even enhance economic growth in countries with efficient rules.

The view of Lui that corruption has a positive effect on economic growth is contested by many other researchers. Bribery is not a legal process, so that officials who accept these bribes will help and enter in such relationships only with people they may know or believe in. This means that not necessarily using bribes will increase efficiency (Alaman, 1989).

From another perspective corruption hinders economic growth. When corruption is high it decreases both investments and economic growth (Mauro, 1995). His study consisted on cross-sectional data on different countries. However Mauro's conclusion is not universally supported because his findings rely on some specifications, which makes them sensitive to changes in these specifications.

Corruption has a negative effect on most macroeconomic indicators such as consumptions, employment, investments, exports/imports, spending of government and money market (Bendardaf, 1996). Bendardaf reached this conclusion by using Keynesian model. Lambsdorff also relies on Keynesian model and states that corruption impedes growth and worsens the effectiveness of investments (Lambsdorff, 1999).

Based on the growth model developed by Lucas in 1998, which explains that output is generated by the equation: $Y = A * K^{\propto} (u * h * L)^{1-\propto}$, where u is the time workers spend on working and h is the human capital, effect of corruption on investments is negative and statistically significant in the same time, while the effect of corruption on economic growth is not significant (Brunetti, 1999).

Different studies support the fact that corruption decreases growth. However some exceptions are included. in a regression analysis when investment variable is controlled a negative link between corruption and growth is observed, but when education is controlled for the impact of corruption on growth is no more significant (Mo, 2001).

A study made on African countries showed that corruption decreases growth on one side and increase income inequality on the other side (Gyimah-Brempong, 2002). Corruption is seen as an important factor which reduces economic growth rate in Lebanon. When corruption index decreases GDP increases and GDP start to move to its steady state level. Corruption has a negative effect on living standards, investment and human capital in Lebanon. It also reduces effectiveness of government expenditures (Farida & Ahmadi-Esfahani, 2006).

Albanian Case

Albania

Albania is one of the oldest countries in the Balkan region. It is located in the southeastern Europe and is bordered by Adriatic and Ionian Sea, Greece in the south and Montenegro and Kosova in the north. It gained its independence from Ottoman Empire in 1912. Until 1990s it has been under communist regime. in 1991 the first democratic elections were held. A lot of progress is made regarding the election process, but deficiencies do exist yet. in 2013 general elections were held and a government coalition between Socialist Party and The Socialist Movement for Integrity was formed. Albania joined NATO in 2009 and is a potential candidate for accession in EU. Despite reforms that are made corruption remains one of the biggest challenges of Albanian government.Before the crises of 2008, Albania was one of the fastest-growing developing countries, with a real GDP growth rate of 6%, which was followed up by a decrease in poverty. But with the crises this changed. Unemployment in 2013 was calculated to be 16.9%, while in 2012 it used to be 14.7%. Agriculture is one of the most important sectors in Albania. 20% of GDP is generated from this sector and about more than half of Albanians are employed there.

Corruption in Albania

Corruption is a widespread phenomenon in Albania. According to Transparency International corruption perception index Albania was ranked 116 out of 177 countries included in these ranking. Its score was 31 on a 0(vey corrupt) to 100(very clean) scale (Transparency International, 2013). On the other hand World Bank Control of Corruption Measurement in 2012 placed Albania in the 20-40 percentile rank. After the fall of communist system till 1996, Albania was doing quite good with respect to control of corruption. Then in 1997 with the civil war that captured the country the situation was changed as shown in Figure 1. Compared to its neighbor countries Montenegro, Serbia, Macedonia and Kosovo, Albania is performing worst.

Control of Corruption
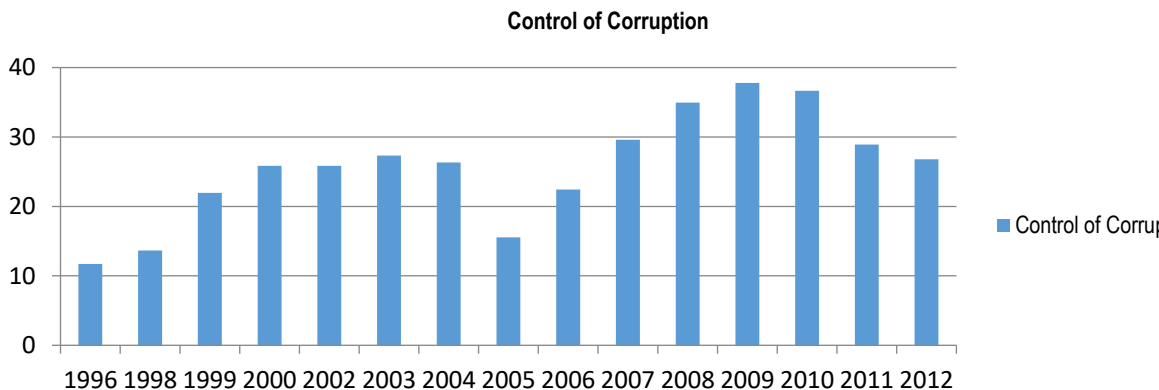
Figure 1: Control of Corruption Yearly Percentile Change Albania (1996-2012)

According to Global Corruption Barometer of 2013 50% of respondents say that corruption is a serious problem in this country, 70% of them responded that education systems are extremely corrupt and 80% say that medical and health services are extremely corrupt (Transparency International, 2013).

Forms of Corruption

As mentioned above corruption is a wide spread phenomenon in Albania. Country is perceived as highly corrupted. Among all the forms of corruption in world, in the country petty and bureaucratic corruption is the most observed one. It should be also mentioned that organized crime, is another form of corruption, that Albania is trying to fight with .Because of corruption Albania's progress development has been hindered.

Petty and Bureaucratic Corruption

This type of corruption is the most widespread one in Albania. Public officials are very corrupted and this puts a great load on business firms.

Interpreting Table 1 we can see that business firms pay bribes to public officials to perform a business transaction. Compared with Central Europe and Eastern Asia percentage of bribes being paid by businesses in Albania is higher. for example in Europe and Central Asia Percentage of firms expected to give gifts in meeting with tax officials is 9.8, while in Albania it is 18.4. The same thing is observed even with other indicators listed in Table1 (Enterprise Surveys, 2013) . Small businesses are those that pay more bribes. The most common way of paying bribes is cash. According to results of Enterprise Surveys purpose of speeding up the business procedure is what mostly pushes businesses to use bribes. 13.5 % percent of bribes being paid to public officials are not used for immediate results, but to serve them in the future in case they need something.

Political Corruption

Electoral deception is one of the biggest problems in Albania. for example in 2007 local elections there were observed some problems with voter's registrations. While in the elections if 2009 Freedom House states that even though there were not noticed many major problems, vote counting process was doubtfully seen by Socialist Party and was followed by legal disputes. Besides these a serious problem is the not reporting of political party's income and their source of funding during electoral campaigns.

Organized Crime

Nearly 50% of Albanian GDP comes from illegal activities such as: drug trade, prostitution and smuggling. A very serious problem is the drug trade. Lazarat, a village in Gjirokastra, south of Albania is the biggest drug suppliers. Drug trade is the main source of living for people in that area and police finds it very difficult to penetrate in there. Several scandals are reported recently by the media regarding this phenomenon. Media is revealing the fact that behind this situation stay some powerful politicians.

Methodology & Data

The data used in this paper correspond to the period of 2000 until 2012. This sample has data about corruption, poverty, economic growth and gender inequality.

This paper uses Control of Corruption Index of World Bank as a measure of public corruption. It is used to understand people perception's of how much public power is used for personal benefits. It includes both petty and grand corruption. Data for this index is taken from 31 different sources produced by surveys conducted by NGOs, national and international organizations, private firms etc. Score range varies from -2.5 to 2.5, with -2.5 for the worst performance and 2.5 for the best performance. A high score serves as a signal for a positive performance of government in reducing or control of corruption. Control of corruption is given as a percentile rank. This percentile rank shows the percentage of countries in the world which score below the selected country. It is based on 0 to 100 scale.0 corresponds to the lowest rank while 100 to the highest rank.

Annual GDP growth rate is used to estimate the relationship that exists between economic growth and corruption. GDP growth rate shows percentage change of a country's GDP from one year to another. It is expected that with a higher economic growth corruption decreases. Besides this, FDI is also is used in examining the relationship between corruption and economic growth. World Bank defines FDI as sum of net inflows of investments not on a single investor, but instead on a venture operating in a country.

To examine the relationship between corruption and poverty, unemployment rate and GNI per capita are used. GNI per capita is the ratio of Gross National Income of a specific country divided by the mid-year number of population of that country. It is calculated in American dollars. It is expected that a higher GNI per capita ratio will affect positively corruption, by decreasing it. On the other hand an increase in unemployment rate is believed to affect negatively on corruption, by increasing it.

The relationship between corruption and gender is studied through two main variables, number of women in parliamentary positions and women's share of labor force.

To examine the link between corruption, economic growth, poverty and gender inequality a regression analysis has been performed. Control of corruption variable from the World Bank is used as the dependent variable.

Independent variables are five: Annual GDP growth rate, GDP per capita, Unemployment rate, Number of women in parliamentary positions and women's share in the labor force.

In Table2 are the data used in the regression analysis to empirically study the effect that variables have on each other. This paper has 12 observations for each variable. The data for the analysis has been accessed from World Bank database.

Analysis

$$CC = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * FDI + \beta_2 * GDPgr + \beta_3 * GNIpC + \beta_4 * UnR + \beta_5 * PrWLeg + \beta_6 * WShLF + u$$

This is the equation showing the relationship of corruption with economic growth, poverty and gender inequality.

Where CC stands for the dependent variable, which in this paper is the control of corruption. It is the variable to be predicted.

β_0 : is the expected intercept parameter. It equals Y when the values of the independent variables are 0. It is called as the Y-intercept of the line.

β_1 : is the slope of regression line, with respect to x1. It shows how much Y changes with one unit change in x1.

FDI: is the first independent variable and in this case is Foreign Direct Investments in Albania.

β_2: is the slope of the regression line, with respect to x2. It shows how much will Y change with one unit change in x2.

GDPGr: is the second explanatory variable and corresponds to economic growth rate in Albania/

β_3 : is the slope of the regression line, with respect to x3. It shows how much will Y change with one unit change in x3.

GNIpC: is the third independent variable and corresponds to data about Gross National Income per capita.

β_4 : is the slope of the regression line, with respect to x4. It shows how much Y will change when x4 is changed by one unit.

UnR: is the 4th independent variable used in this model, and are the data about unemployment rate in Albania.

β_5 : is the slope of the regression line, with respect to x5. It shows the effect that one unit change in x5 has on Y.

PrWomPar: is the 5th explanatory variable used in this model, and is about proportion of women in parliamentary positions.

β_6 : is the slope of regression line with respect to x6. It shows how much Y changes with one unit change in x6.

WShaLFPR: is the 6th independent variable and is about the women's share in labor force.

U: stands for the error term.

The following table summarizes output results from the regression analysis.

In the interpretation of Table 3, CC has a mean of -0.6867, meaning that on average the performance of government in control of corruption was negative. The standard deviation of CC is 0.12558, explaining that on average data about CC vary by 0.12558 from the mean.

FDI has a mean of $695354189.4333 per year in Albania and on average the values in the data set vary with $521236485.04032.

GDP growth rate has a mean of 4.7750 and a standard deviation of 1.89359. This standard deviation shows that GDP growth has been relatively stable for this period.

GNI per capita has a mean of $6987.5 and on average the values of data used in this model vary with $1817.75.

Mean of unemployment rate is 13.36 which is not a good indicator. Standard deviation of unemployment rate is 0.7655 which shows that unemployment rate has been almost stable and high during the period being studied.

Proportion of Women in Parliament has a mean of 9.633%. On average data on this model vary by 4.78%.

Mean of Women's share in labor force participation rate is 47.5% and has a standard deviation of 2.34%.

In Table 4 are presented the correlations among variables used in this analysis.

Among all variables the ones having the highest correlation with CC are FDI, GNI per capita and Women's share in labor force participation rate. FDI has a positive and a relatively strong relationship with control of corruption. Correlation between them is 0.785. When FDI in Albania increase CC is expected to improve, indicating a lower corruption level in the country. The correlation between GNI per Capita and CC is relatively strong and positive, 0.716. When GNI per capita increase CC is expected to increase and corruption in the country is expected to decrease. Regarding the correlation between Women's share in labor force participation rate and CC a strong but negative relationship is observed. The correlation coefficient is -0.756. An increase in women's share labor force participation rate is expected to decrease CC, suggesting a higher corruption level in Albania. Regarding correlation between CC and Proportion of women holding a seat in the parliament a moderately strong and positive relationship is observed. When number of women in parliament increases an increase in CC is expected. The weakest correlation is observed between corruption and GDP growth rate. Correlation coefficient is -0.082. It is a weak and negative relationship, implying almost no relationship between these two variables. The correlation between unemployment rate and CC is also moderately weak, but positive.

Accordingly, the correlations that exist among independent variables in this dataset are explained. From the results of the table above FDI has strongest relationship with GNP per capita and Women's share in labor force participation rate. Correlation between GNI per capita and FDI is 0.944. It implies a very strong and positive relationship. When GNI per capita is increasing, FDI is increasing, too. Correlation coefficient between FDI and Women's share in the labor force participation rate is -0.921. It shows a strong, but negative relationship between the two. An increase in women's share labor force participation rate is expected to decrease FDIs in the country. The weakest correlation of FDI is with GDP growth rate. Correlation coefficient is -0.417. This implies a moderately weak and negative relationship between these two variables. When GDP growth rate increases level of FDI is expected to decrease. On the other hand GDP growth has the strongest relationship with Proportion of Women having a seat in the parliament. A moderately strong and negative correlation is observed, -0.726. With an increase in the number of women in parliament GDP growth rate is expected to decrease. The results show that GDP growth has the weakest correlation with women share in labor force participation rate. The correlation coefficient is 0.431, suggesting a moderately weak and positive relationship. GNI per capita has the strongest correlation with women's share in labor force participation rate. A correlation coefficient of -0.993, implies a very strong, but negative relationship among these two variables. An increase in of women in labor force is decreasing GNI per capita. The correlation of GNI per capita with all other independent variables is seen to be positive and relatively strong. Regarding the correlation of Unemployment rate with other independent variables the strongest correlation is observed with the number of women holding a position in parliament. The correlation coefficient of 0.812 suggests a relatively strong and positive relationship

among them. When number of women in parliamentary positions is increased, unemployment rate is expected to increase also. Unemployment rate has the weakest correlation with women in labor force participation rate variable. However, this correlation is not weak, but close to 0.5. The correlation is negative. As discussed above women's share in labor force has a very strong and negative correlation with GNI per capita. Its correlation with GDP growth rate is seen to be weak but positive, suggesting an increase in either of the variables when one of them increases.

From the output of Table 5 by use of coefficient of determination R2 goodness of fit is measured. Coefficient of determination shows how much variation of the dependent variable is explained by the regression line and explanatory variables. in this model 97.6% of variation of government performance in control of corruption variation, the dependent variable, is explained by the independent variables. 2.4% of variation is not explained. R2 in multiple regression does not take into consideration the degrees of freedom used in the model. It faces the problem of over fitting. A more accurate value is the adjusted R2. Adjusted R2 in the model is approximately 0.948237. It shows that actually approximately 94.8% of variation in Y is explained by the independent variables. R2 and adjusted R2 are very close to each other. This is a very good indicator, as it suggests that over fitting problem is almost not present in this model.

Interpreting the results of Table 6, F-test regarding the significance of the model is conducted. for the model to be statistically significant Sig. or probability of F-statistics (p) should be less or equal to the level of confidence. in this model significance level is 0.05 and p is 0.001. p= 0.001<0.05, so the model is statistically significant. It means that in Albania government performance in control of corruption has statistically significant relationship with the explanatory variables. When df1=6 and df2=5 and confidence level is 0.05, critical value for F is calculated to be approximately 4.95. in order for the model to be statistically significant F statistics must be value than F critical value. in this case F-statistics=34.585, which greater than 4.95, showing that the model is statistically significant.

Interpreting Table 7 the following regression equation is obtained:

Equation 1: Regression Equation

$$\hat{Y} = 19.37 + (6.02E - 10) * FDI + (-0.021) * GDPgr + (-0.001) * GNIpC + (-0.033) * UnR + (-0.009) * PrWLEg + (-0.34) * WShLFPr + u$$

After finding that the model is statistically significant, significance of coefficients with the dependent variable is measured.

In order to test the significance of the coefficients the following hypothesis are used:

H0: β=0

H1: β≠0

These hypothesis test if independent variables have a statistically significant effect on the dependent variable or not. If the probability of the t-statistic for the corresponding coefficient is less than or equal to confidence level, null hypothesis is rejected. in this model significance level is 0.05. The hypothesis is a two-tailed one. Another way to test the significance of the coefficients is the comparison of t-statistics with the critical value. The critical value in this model is ±1.96. in order for the coefficients to be significant t-statistics of each of them must be larger than 1.96 or less than -1.96.

t-statisticsFDI=6.11 and probability for t statistics for FDI is 0.002. Confidence level is larger than p (0.05 >0.0017).The null hypothesis will be rejected, meaning that there is a statistically significant relationship between corruption and FDI in Albania. When comparing t-statistics with critical value we can see that there is a statistically significant relationship between corruption and FDI (t-statisticsFDI=6.11>1.96).

t-statisticsGDPgrRat=-1.653 and probability of the t-statistic to be like this for GDPgrRat is 0.159. Confidence level is smaller than p (0.05<0.159). This means that there is no statistically significant relationship between GDP growth rate and corruption in Albania. This insignificance can be as a result of the scope of the economy in Albania. As it is small economy the effect of GDP growth rate in control of corruption is not high. This insignificant relationship can be also observed when comparing t-statistics with critical value. t-statisticsGDPgrRat=-1.653>-1.96, so statistically there is no significant relationship between the two.

t-statisticsGNIpCapita=-6.019 and the probability of the t-statistics to be like this is 0.0018. Probability of t-statistics 0.0018 is smaller than confidence level 0.05. As a result there is found a statistically significant relationship between GNI per capita and control of corruption in Albania. t-statisticsGNIpCapita=-6.019 <-1.96, indicating a statistically non-significant relationship between GNI per capita and control of corruption in Albania.

t-statisticsUnRate=-1.441 and the probability for it is 0.20. The probability of t-statistics is larger than the confidence level (0.20 > 0.05). There is no statistically significant relationship between corruption and unemployment rate in Albania. in

Albania the political and grand corruption comprise the highest percentage of total corruption. Thus unemployment, which is mostly seen in that part of population having no relationship with politics, is found to be statistically insignificant. Even when t test is made the relationship is found to be insignificant. t-statisticsUnRate=-1.441>-1.96.

t-statisticsPofWinParl.Pos=-1.061 and the probability of t-statistics is 0.337. The probability of t-statistics is larger than the confidence level (0.337>0.05). From the results is seen that relationship between proportion of women in parliamentary position and corruption is statistically insignificant in Albania. This insignificance can be explained through two factors. The first one is that the number of women as legislators in Albania, despite the increase year by year, is not high enough to have a significant impact. A second reason is that women used to have limited access to higher positions in parliament. These higher positions usually are held by men, who are the ones that control and direct those women holding a place in parliament. t-statisticsPofWinParl.Pos=-1.061>-1.96, which shows a statistically insignificant relationship between the two.

t-statisticswshLF=-5.863 and probability for t-statistics is 0.002. Probability of t-statistics for women's share in labor force is smaller than confidence level (0.002<0.005). There is a statistical significant relationship between women's share in labor force and corruption in Albania. When making t-test t-statisticswshLF=-5.863<-1.96, indicating a statistically insignificant relationship between women's share in labor force participation rate and corruption.

The following paragraphs consist on an interpretation of Beta coefficients resulting from the analysis.

β_1 =.6.02E − 10. This coefficient shows that the relationship between control of corruption index and FDI is positive. With one dollar change in FDI, control of corruption index score will change by $6.02E − 10$ units. A positive relationship shows that when the level of FDI in Albania increases government performance in control of corruption improves. The reason behind this positive relationship is explained by the fact that FDIs are not controlled and influenced by Albanian bodies, which are perceived to be highly corrupt.

β_2=-0.021. A beta coefficient of -0.021 shows a negative relationship between government performance in control of corruption and GDP growth rate. With one percent increase in GDP growth rate, CC score will decrease by 0.021 units. in the case of Albania an increase of GDP growth rate means more resources available in the hand of corrupted bodies, so that they use these resources in a way that benefits them more.

β_3 =−0.001. This beta result shows that the relationship between CC index and GNI per capita is negative. With one dollar increase in GNI per capita CC index decreases by 0.001 units. Albanians have the perception that almost every sector in Albania is very corrupted and those having more money on their hands benefit more from different public and private services. Because of this perception with an increase in income level of the individuals bribes increase and it becomes more difficult for the government to control corruption.

β_4 = −0.033. The link between unemployment rate and CC is found to be negative. When unemployment rate increases with one percent CC's score decreases by 0.033 units. When unemployment increases people's contentment with the government is low and they don't believe on the fairness of government. Because of this government performance in control of corruption worsens.

β_5 =−0.009. The relationship between CC and proportion of parliamentary positions occupied by women is found to be negative in Albania. With one percent increase in the number of women in the parliament CC decreases by 0.009, meaning that government performance in control of corruption does not improve.

β_6 =−0.34. Even the relationship between CC and women's share in labor force is found to be negative. With one percent increase in number of women in labor force CC decreases by 0.34 units, suggesting that government performance in control of corruption worsens.

Behind the findings that the link between CC and women's share in labor force and proportion of women in parliamentary positions is negatively, lays the fact that women are easily corrupted. They are corrupted easily due to the fact that they have less power in their hands so that they can behave differently from the environment they work in. in all-male network, where the network is perceived to be highly corrupted, there is not left enough space for women to deviate from this so-called 'culture'.

In order to understand the sensitivity of dependent variable to changes in the independent variables an interpretation of standardized beta coefficients is made.

With one standard deviation increase in FDI, CC will increase by 2.498 standard deviations. One standard deviation increase in GDP growth rate will decrease CC by 0.322 standard deviations. in case of one standard deviation increase in GDP per capita, CC will decrease by 7.689 standard deviations. When unemployment increases by one standard deviation CC will decrease by 0.204 standard deviations. CC will decrease by 0.327 standard deviations when proportion of women

parliamentary positions is increased by one standard deviation. And, with one standard deviation increase in women's share in labor force participation rate CC will decrease by 6.338 standard deviations.

Conclusion

This paper discussed one the most debated topics of today's world, corruption. Corruption is a widespread phenomenon present in every country in the world, even though in different levels. It is very difficult to measure it, because it is not reported as it is an illegal activity. The main objective of this paper was to study the effect that economic growth, poverty and gender inequality have on corruption, especially in Albania. A regression analysis was conducted, where CC was the dependent variable and FDI, GDP growth rate, GNI per capita, Unemployment rate, Proportion of women having a seat in the parliament and Women's share in labor force participation rate were used as independent variables. From the analysis it resulted that only FDI, GNI per capita and Women's share in labor force participation rate have a statistically significant relationship with corruption. Others resulted to be statistically insignificant. An increase in FDI improves government performance in control of corruption. When GNI per capita increases CC score decreases, resulting in higher corruption levels in the country. This can be explained by the fact that institutions and people on general are perceived to be highly corrupted. When people have more money on their hands, they use this power to get what they want. The results also showed that with an increase in the number of women in labor force participation rate, holding other factors fixed, government gets a lower score in the control of corruption.

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Tables

Table 5. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.988a	.976	.948	.02857	.976	34.585	6	5	.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), WomenShareLFPR, GDPGrowth, Unemployment, PropWomenPar, FDI, GNIperCap

Table 6. Anova

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

1	Regression	.169	6	.028	34.585	.001b
	Residual	.004	5	.001		
	Total	.173	11			

Table 7: Coefficientsa

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	19.377	3.348		5.787	.002
	FDI	6.019E-010	.000	2.498	6.116	.002
	GDPGr	-.021	.013	-.322	-1.653	.159
	GNIpC	-.001	.000	-7.689	-6.019	.002
	UnR	-.033	.023	-.204	-1.441	.209
	PrWLeg	-.009	.008	-.327	-1.061	.337
	WShLFPR	-.340	.058	-6.338	-5.863	.002

a. Dependent Variable: Corruption

Economic and social policies impacting on the social under-development – case study: mining restructuring in Valea Jiului[1]

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Abstract

The paper I suggest is based on the preliminary results of the research project Deindustrialization and under-development in the Romanian Transition. Individual/Collective Strategies/ Reply Policies. Case study: Valea Jiului, that will be done within the project ID- 141086 „Pluri- şi interdisciplinaritate în programe doctorale şi postdoctoralele" This project is constructed from the perspective of the social development paradigm. The modernization theories suggest the paradigm of development as modernization from an evolutionist perspective. While the communist project of social development chose explicitly industrialization as a corollary of modernization, such process of (post) modernization initiated in the moment of the

communism' collapse. On economic level the transition meant also a continue and emphasized process of de-industrialization illustrated by the constant decrease of the number of industrial employees from maximum 4 millions in 1990 to 1,2 millions of employees in 2011 (data sourse: Zamfir s.s., coord. 2011). In the same time a transfer of the agriculture employees to the subsistence agriculture was registered (now the employees represent only ,2% of the total persons working in agriculture – MADR, 2013). The high reduction of the percentage of employed population represents a factor generating under-development and has a negative impact on the balance of the social insurance systems (pensions, unemployment, health). This paper intends to describe and analyze a special case of the communist under-development from the perspective of causes, factors and mechanisms of this process located in the region Valea Jiului. The selection of the mining restructuring in Valea Jiului is based on the fact that this represents an example of failure of the social policies aiming to reduce the effects of the transition (effects increased in the respective case exactly by the manner of implementation of certain economic policy measures).

Keywords: underdevelopement, social policies, economic policies, mining restructuring

Introduction

Romania is experiencing for the past two and a half decades a process of social transformation with effects on the general society and on its major components. One of the basic transformations pertains to the relation between state and economy – from the all present interventionism to a policy of almost total absence of the state in planning the economic policy.

The modernization theories suggest the paradigm of development as modernization from an evolutionist perspective. While the communist project of social development chose explicitly industrialization as a corollary of modernization, such process of (post) modernization initiated in the moment of the communism' collapse.

On economic level the transition meant a continue and emphasized process of de-industrialization illustrated by the constant decrease of the number of industrial employees from maximum 4 millions in 1990 to 1,2 millions of employees in 2011 (data sourse: Zamfir s.s., coord. 2011).

The significant decrease of the number of employees after 1989 was generated mainly by the reduction of the number of employees from the industry, which had not been absorbed by other economic sectors and they vanished from the formal labour market.

The decline of the industry leaded also to half the number of employees who run shuttle service (most of them living in the rural area) between 1990-2002, mainly from the extractive industry and energy, which produced 100.000 unemployed in 1995-1997 (Bleahu, 2004, p .91).

The reduction of the number of employees continued even during the period of economic increase and the in first year of economic crisis in Romania (2009) almost 300.000 employees from the industrial sector lost their jobs.

In the same time a transfer of the agriculture employees to the subsistence agriculture was registered (now the employees represent only ,2% of the total persons working in agriculture – MADR, 2013)

The high reduction of the percentage of employed population represents a factor generating under-development and has a negative impact on the balance of the social insurance systems (pensions, unemployment, health).

On the other side, the manner of development of the Romanian transition leaded to the increase of regional disparities and generated enclaves of under development

The forms of underdevelopment are diverse and refer to different levels of aggregation from communitarian to local and regional.

The paper I suggest is based on the preliminary results of the research project Deindustrialization and under-development in the Romanian Transition. Individual/Collective Strategies/ Reply Policies. Case study: Valea Jiului, that will be done within the project ID- 141086 „Pluri- şi interdisciplinaritate în programe doctorale şi postdoctoralele"

This project is constructed from the perspective of the social development paradigm.

The general objective of this project is circumscribed to the accomplishment of a typology of underdevelopment in post – communist Romania. The accomplishment of such a typology comes from the necessity to have an innovating tool of shaping the strategies and the policy of response to the negative impact of social transformations. The increase of social polarization and local disparities as effects of un-industrialization and return to agriculture, illustrates on one side the development of a certain pattern of the strategies of response to social transformations and on the other side the low efficiency of the policy of support for the groups affected by the transition.

The increased percentage of the precarious occupation like the subsistence agriculture in the detriment of modern occupation together with the inefficiency and insufficiency of the active measures of support of occupation represent two factors that stop the social development.

A first stage in this endeavour of making a typology is the analysis of the communitarian problems and the concrete and differenced (on local level) manners of function of the socio-economic mechanisms with impact on the social development. The identification during several case studies in rural communities of some communities with similar level of development, both in poor and rich areas shows the existence of some mechanisms of communitarian underdevelopment following a common structural logic which can be found even in the developed areas of the country.

Based on the results of these case studies I made a preliminary analysis of the mechanisms and factors with impact on the social development and the manner how certain particular contexts intensify this impact (Preotesi, 2014).
This project involves an extension of the underdevelopment perspective by including the issue of the urban underdevelopment and, in the same time, a different approach of the underdevelopment.

The integrate (rural-urban) approach on local level of the underdevelopment intends to observe the "fine mechanisms" of the interaction rural-urban in the process of (under)development. In other words, in the analysis of the mechanisms of the underdevelopment the reference of the rural communities to the urban which irradiates development (Sandu, 1999), will be completed with the analysis of surviving valves offered by the rural to the urban subjected to some process of social disaggregation.

The specific objective of this project is to describe and analyze the specific case of the post-communist underdevelopment from the perspective of causes and mechanisms of this process located in Valea Jiului. Beyond the specific of the issue of underdevelopment, the choice of this study case is based on the fact that it represents a model of failure of the social policy of attenuation of the economic impact of the transition (impact amplified in the respective case by the manner of implementation of some measures of economic policy).

Restructuring the mining on Valea Jiului on a very short period of time and the high percentage of the passive measures of support for those fired transformed "over night" almost half of the employees in the area in assisted population following a classic pattern of acute social dependency: compensatory salaries- unemployment benefit- social aid (model explained by Septimiu Krausz, în Zamfir, Zamfir, Bădescu, coord., 2000, p.343).
The effect of these policies from the perspective of social underdevelopment is perfectly illustrated by the current situation of Aninoasa, first town in Europe in insolvency and which need sponsorship to finance the organization of a referendum to decide the return to the status of village (cf. Stegar, 2014).

The current state of the domain

The scientific literature referring to the project's theme can be included in the following categories:

- social development

- communitarian development, particular case of the social development

 -urban development

- the perspective of social policies of support addressed to the vulnerable groups.

Within the specific context of Romania the theoretic frame is defined by the perspective of the so called sociology of transition.

In Romanian sociological literature authors like Dumitru Sandu (1994,1999), Ioan Mărginean (2001, 2004), Cătălin Zamfir(1994, 2007), Vladimir Pasti (1995, 2011), Lazăr Vlăsceanu (2001, 2007), Mălina.Voicu (2004), Bogdan.Voicu (2005) present models explaining the social processes and mechanisms of the post-communist transition in Romania.

The paradigm of social development contains two types of approaching the underdevelopment starting from the relative importance paid to the endogenetic or exogenetic factors as determinants of the underdevelopment and based on two theories: the theory of modernization and, respectively, the theory of dependence.

The theories of modernization sustain the paradigm of development as modernization according to an evolutionist scheme. The theories of dependence developed by Frank(1966), Cardossso(1972) sau Wallerstein (1994), emphasize the role of external factors as determinant of underdevelopment emphasizing the unbalanced and inequitable power relations among states generating and maintaining the discrepancy among the developed and underdeveloped countries.

A domain well represented in the Romanian sociological literature dedicated to the transition is that pertaining to the so called external agents of development. In this category are institutions like The World Bank, International Monetary Fond, European Commission. These analyses pertain both to the ideology and theoretic approach of social development promoted by these institutions and to the impact of their programmes. The strategy of development promoted by the World Bank and FMI for the European countries in transition is based on reducing the role of the state in eradicating the underdevelopment and increasing the role of other actors of development like the local communities and ONG. If as regards the first part this was materialized in reduction of the state' involvement in economy, the expected effects of the second part of the development strategy did not match the expectations, a lack of balance leaded to disintegrating process like the deindustrialization of the country.

The failure registered by the World Bank in implementing some programmes of development leaded to a rethinking of the importance of social capital as a condition of the success of the programmes of economic development (Preotesi, in Zamfir, Stănescu, coord., 2007, p.565-566).

The communitarian development represents a particularly case of social development.

The concern for measuring the communitarian development materialized in the elaboration of local index of development. The models of measurement the local/communitarian development are based on some synthetic index made as factorial scores of some sets of socio-economic indicators. Such model of measurement made Dumitru Sandu (Sandu, 1999)

As regards the social development of the towns this is approached in the Romanian scientific literature from different perspectives – economic, urban sociology or urban geography.

The mono-industrial towns present a special interest for this project. Valea Jiului is an area of constant presence among the mono-industrial towns since the first half of the last century (Dumitrescu, 2007). The moment of accelerate restructuring of the mines on the second half of 1997 represented due its socio-economic effects a domain of interest valued in a well represented scientific literature. Reference works made from economic perspective like that of Mircea Coşea (Coşea, 2000), or from sociological perspective like Dîncu, Rotaru ş.a., 2000), together with the constant work of the research teams from the University of Petroşani and the Social Institute Valea Jiului (Krausz, 1999, Stegar 2007, 2014) represent a basic source for my research in this project.

I shall consider mainly the results of the research made in Valea Jiului on representative samples or even on the entire population of miners employed or unemployed.

The preliminary analysis of the data

The preliminary analysis of the data offered some hypothesis and premises for the intended analysis.

A more general hypothesis is that the influence of the structural factors like the lack/shortness of alternatives to mining on the labour market in Valea Jiului is mediated by some factors specific to the local population and context.

Among these factors are certain categories of the working force dismissed/to be dismissed.

An interesting direction of analysis is comparing the expectations and the behavior of the miners dismissed in 1997 and the expectations of those waiting to be dismissed from the three mines that will be soon shat down (Petrila, Paroşeni, Uricani)

The analysis of the data collected a year after the massive dismissal in 1997 on a representative sample of 850 dismissed miners shows a profile of those dismissed characterized by many vulnerabilities towards the reintegration on the labour market.

Some of these characteristics are (data source: Krauss, 2000, Stegar, 2000):

- low education-low qualification/ mining

- average age relative low- to young to be retired soon (over 50% are under 35 years -cf. Krauss, 2000)

- low mobility of the working force – third of them would accept a job only in Valea Jiului and 17% only in the residence locality.

- high and unrealistic salary expectations considering the level of education, qualification and the job offer (90% said in 1998 that they would not accept a salary below the average salary, more that half would accept a salary at least 50% higher than average -cf.Stegar, 2000)

- less than half said they intend to get a job in the near future (86% had worked a year after the dismissal but almost three quarters of them only in daily or occasional jobs -cf.Krauss, 2000)

The data collected in 2012-2012 (presented and analyzed in Stegar, 2014) on a representative sample of miners in Valea Jiului containing over 60% of the total reference statistic population offer several interesting conclusions compared with the data collected in 1998:

- even thou the average age of the miners is increasing, the percentage of those over 50 years is one extremely low (under 10% on total and under 7% in the case of the mines to be closed). The natural exit from the system by retiring does not represent a valid alternative for most of those to be dismissed and the high percentage of those over 45 years emphasized the vulnerability of those dismissed towards the integration on the working force market.

- the average level of education is higher than in 1997, the percentage of those without high school education is still important (almost 50%, a little higher at Petrila şi Uricani and only 35% at Paroşeni);

- less than half of the miners said that they would search for a job if they would be dismissed and over a fifth would be involved in their own household, mainly in subsistence agriculture (Stegar, 2014);

- more than a third of the miners would search for a job only in Valea Jiului and over a fifth would search for a job abroad. Even if the percentage of those that would get a job anywhere in the country (31,95%) revels a high opening towards the mobility within the national context, if we consider that 50% do not search for a job – this alternative can not be considered major.

Beyond comparing the expectations and the behavior of the two moments of dismissal in mining it is also useful to analyze these data within the general context of the interaction of the unoccupied persons with the labour market to emphasize the specific of the situation.

Attitudes and behavior in the interaction with the labour market of the unoccupied persons regarding the theritorial mobility .

In a recent published report (AJOFM Mureş, 2013) we find the result of a survey on the mobility of the unemployed. These shows that almost 2/3 of the interviewed unemployed persons do not consider the territorial mobility a valid alternative for obtaining a job. A quarter of the interviewed persons said that they would accept a job in a place located at over 50 km away from their current location, 7,73% would accept a job anywhere in the country and 8,25% would go abroad for a job. One of the most important motive for this acceptance is the salary – a motivating salary package is considered the basic condition for 80% of the interviewed persons. This package would represent also a compensation for the discontent caused by the shuttle service, respectively relocation, but also a compensation for the costs of this alternative. This compensation is not really offered by the measures for stimulating the mobility of the working force (bonus for mobility stipulated by the Law 76/2005).

These conclusions are similar with the results of an analysis of the interaction models of the unemployed persons with the labor market (developed in Preotesi, 2012) based on the data obtained in the project „Proactiv-de la marginal, la exclusiv" (ICCV-CATALACTICA, 2009-2010)-.

This analysis takes some of the conclusions of the above mentioned research report but the analysis refers separately to South West Oltenia and Muntenia, while here these two regions are analyzed together.

The data resulted from the survey undertaken in the counties composing the two regions revels certain profiles of attitude and behavior of the unemployed persons towards the (re)integration on the labor market.

The percentage of those that had a job offer within the past year is very low (under 9% for each of the regions). This shows the low offer of jobs. The quality of jobs is also low, inadequate to the specific and expectations of the potential working force. Even if the number of available jobs was low only the fifth part of the persons accepted these offers. More than a third part of those declining the offer motivated their refuse by the low salary, close to minimum wage, in most of the cases (most of the jobs were for under qualified persons).

On the other side, the analysis showed that most of the unemployed persons did not searched for a job within the past year (68,5% of the interviewed persons in both regions).

The intention to search/not search for a job depends statistical on many socio-demographic variables like: the occupational status, age or number of children.

The profiles of the unemployed persons, attitude and behavior towards the integration on the labor market offer several interesting aspects for this analysis.

If the profile of that who does not have, but searched for a job within the past year is that of a young person, up to 35 years, no children, with precarious resources, without unemployment benefit, the profile of the one who does not have, but did not searched for a job within the past year is sensible different. This last one is between 49-62 years old, lives in a household where the monthly expenses are at least of 2000 lei, he owns his house and his is retired on medical reasons or benefits of unemployment. Hence, a sure income conditioned by the current occupational status represents an inhibitor of the searching behavior. Disregarding those with medical condition, we may consider that these persons have a behavior oriented on maximized the utility on short term.

For the analyzed population, characterized by a high level of social vulnerability, this strategic choice is dictated rather by serious problems regarding the immediate subsistence than by individual characteristics, hence this choice is more or less a forced one. Within this context we have a difference of motivation between the two categories, while one category base their choice on the total lack of resources, those on the other category have at least the possibility to choose. The pressure imposed by the need and the low job offer determine those in the first category to accept jobs on the informal labour market as daily workers or on the black labour market, which solve partially the problem of subsistence on short term, but the lack social protection and of legal protection against the employers' possible abuses creates vulnerabilities.

The choice made by those in the second category to maximize the short term utility and maintain the social vulnerability on long term is also a forced one. The real difference between the salary that could be earned and the unemployment benefit is very low and does not represent a motivation to change a status with sure benefits, no costs, even on a limited period to a status with less sure benefits, on an unspecified period of time, but with higher costs and efforts. The time of the unemployed represents an important resource that may be used to increase the income by alternative activities like agriculture in the personal household or as a daily worker.

Those retired on medical reasons might go back to work but they have the same dilemma as the unemployed persons – to renounce to a benefit obtained without any effort and to the free time that could be transformed in money for a just a little higher income, still insufficient and that can not be increased because they would not have the free time.

On the other side, more general arguments like the low offer of jobs and the low salary are intensified by the personal experience and the failures in (re)integrating on the labor market increase the lack of confidence and lead to a blasé state and an associated passive behavior" (Mihnea Preotesi, Iulian Stănescu, în Cace, Arpinte, Scoican, coord., 2010, p.149-150).

Most of those who would get a job said that acceptable salary is 1000 lei net. This value is less the average in both regions, but double than the minimum wage.

The salaries offered to unemployed persons are not satisfying these minimal demands of subsistence

As regards the salary expectations the hypothesis that will be tested in this project is that the salaries decrease compared with those expressed in 1997 as a consequence of experiencing their own inadequacies, but they are still high comparing to the real offer on the working force market. Among the basic premises   of this hypothesis are the relatively high salaries from the extractive industry comparing with the processing industry and the average salary on economy. According to the collected data the expectations of some dismissed employees start from salaries higher than average and decrease in time to the average salary.

Tble1.The structure of brut/net average salary on sub-sectors (February 2012)

Economic sector/subsector	Average salary brut (lei)	Average salary net (lei)

Total economy	2028	1472
Extractive industry	3540	2510
Processing Industry	1834	1340
Hotels and restaurants (HORECA)	1116	824
Research-development	3110	2232
Public Administration No Army	2617	1870
Education	1768	1270
Health and Social Assistance	1697	1235

Data source: INS, Press release nr. 75/ 4 April 2012

The analysis of the above data must take into consideration the fact that the salaries of the miners in Valea Jiului are on higher level than other employees in extractive industry. The obtained salaries are higher than the base salaries and the difference between these salaries and that from other sectors is an important one as may observe in the table below.

Table 2. The medians of the distribution of brut/base salaries on sectors and types of employees

(Sub) Sectors of activity	Number of workers	The median of brut base salaries/worker (lei)	The median of brut obtain salaries/worker (lei)	Number of employees Other than workers	The median of brut base salaries/non worker (lei)	The median of brut obtain salaries non worker (lei)
Processing Industry	632.938	701- 1000	1001-1500	188.250	1501-2000	1501-2000
Extractive industry	38256	1001-1500	3000-3500	16.250	2001-2500	4000-4500
HORECA	52628	701-1000	701-1000	29.624	701- 1000	701-1000
professional scientific and technical activities	16.864	701-1000	701-1000	67.513	2001-2500	2001-2500

Public administration	63.383	601-700	601-700	219.608	1001- 1500	1001-1500
Education	42.008	601-700	700-1000	308.518	1001- 1500	1501-2000
Health and Social Assitance.	47.075	701-1000	701-1000	207.573	1001- 1500	1001-1500

Data sources: The authors calculation on the results of the research regarding the distribution of the employees on salary groups (INS, October 2011)-apud.Preotesi, 2012.

The lowest level of median salary (601-700 lei) corresponds for the obtained salaries and for the base salaries to the budgetary domain public administration and education, for workers, respectively the domain hotels and restaurants (HORECA) (701-1000), for the non worker category.

On the other side, the data confirm the existence of a dual labour market in the industrial domain. If we center the medians we obtain an average median of 2,4 times higher in extractive industry compared to processing industry both for workers and non workers.

The multiplication of the higher salaries in the second group with a similar percentage makes the differences between the two sectors even higher. Also, the group of the non workers in the extractive industry is the highest median. The differences compared to the three budgetary categories can be considered as excessive high considering that this sectors are not so much affected by the free market mechanisms, the index of multiplication is over 3 compared with the health and public administration sectors and 2,4 compared with education.

For two groups of employees where the percentage of University educated persons is higher than the other domains, most of the employees from the nom worker category earn brut salary of 1001-1500 lei, net 720-1020 lei, and most of the net salaries in education are below 1250 lei.

The salaries in Hotels and Public Nutrition (HORECA) are under 1/3 of those in the extractive industry, which is interesting because the alternative to mining in Valea Jiului is the tourism; 100 of boarding houses were built here. One of the question I shall try to answer by collecting qualitative data is to what extend the dismissed miners are among the owners of these boarding houses.

Conclusions

Within the context of the relation between deindustrialization and underdevelopment in this preliminary phase of the project several elements will constitute the basis of the analysis. One of the important indicators of the trend to underdevelopment is the reduction of the numberr of employees in Valea Jiului caused by the drastic reduction of the mining, the main economic activity. From 50.000 employees in 1989 today are only 7500 and almost 2000 will be soon dismissed from the closing mines (Paroşeni,Uricani and Petrila).

The alternatives to mining developed in the past two decades proved to be non-viable economic or social. An example of declassification on communitarian level is Aninoasa where the socio-economic effects of closing the mine in 2005 were not compensated by economic alternatives and the effect was the declared insolvency of this urban locality that will be reduce to the status of village.

An other indicator that represents premises of the underdevelopment is the evolution of the manner of referring of the miners to the alternatives they would access in case of dismissal.

On the moment of massive restructuration of the mining in 1997 only for 1,5% of the future dismissed the agriculture (mainly of subsistence) was considered a viable alternative. A year after dismissal, almost one third of them had chosen this alternative (cf.Krausz, 2000).

According to the data collected in 2011-2012 we notice a significant increase of the percentage of those who would choose this alternative, more than a fifth of the interviewed persons, which is more than the number of owners of households exploited for the subsistence agriculture (cf.Stegar, 2014).

The evolution from stable occupation well paid to non occupation or precarious occupation is reflected from the socio-economic reality towards the subjective reality in people's expectations. Within this context one of the most important dimensions to be explored in this project is that of the impact of the deep process of deindustrialization in Valea Jiului on psycho-sociological plan, on individual, collective and communitarian level.

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Economic growth and unemployment rate. Case of Albania

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Abstract

This thesis studies the relationship between the economic growth and the unemployment rate in Albania. This relation is known as Okun's law, which states that 1 percent decrease in unemployment; GDP will increase by 3 percent. Albania is one of the countries that have a sluggish development and impact of unemployment is negative in the economy of the country. At the same time the economy itself effect the employment of the people. The unemployment occurs when people are without work or seeking work. During recession there is a high unemployment rate. Even some peaks of the development like in the Total Factor Productivity, integration or infrastructure there have been recession and a bad time for the Albania too. This affected the investments, the business and by lowering their profits they are obligated to lay off employees. So the unemployment rate starts to rise up. This study takes in consideration the years from 2000 to 2013 when the unemployment was rising day by day with negative impact in the economy. This thesis introduces the general relationship between gross domestic product and unemployment. The methodology used a simple regression and takes the economic growth as dependent variable and the unemployment rate as independent. The observed result didn't explain the Okun's law for Albania. The main reason is the current crises that prevent the improvement of economic conditions.

Keywords: Economic Growth, Unemployment Rate, Albanian Economy.

I. Introduction

This thesis introduces unemployment and economic growth of the Albania. Unemployment is strongly related with the GDP of the country. The objective of this thesis is to find the relation between them and the impact that they have to each other. Unemployment is nowadays a main problem occurring in Albania. People that are not working or seeking for work so jobless form the concept of unemployment. Unemployment rate is measured by the number of unemployed people over the all population. Actually in Albania the unemployment is 13.5 percent which is relatively high but decreased related with the 2013 year when unemployment rate was 16.9 percent. Still this rate for the females is higher than males but the number of employed females is increasing day by day in Albania. Youth unemployment continues to be spread phenomena in the society since after finishing the studies it is difficult to find a job and this lead to the joblessness for the graduated ones this number is 27,2 percent for people 15 till 24 years old. Unemployment is categorized in the structural unemployment that means labor markets does not need some workers with specific skills also the frictional unemployment when the worker is searching for a job. There exists hidden unemployment too that means is not reflected in the unemployment statistics, the cyclical unemployment that happens when the economy cannot provide jobs or the classical unemployment that usually happens because of the low wages. To find a relation let's tell about the economy of Albania which according to some statistics like those of IMF the country even though of crises economy grew by 22 percent from 2007 to 2012.The Euro zone bad situation in 2012 effected the GDP of the Albania and it declined so remaining weak for the year 2013 also. What effects the economic growth is at the same time the labor force of the Albania, GDP growth rate was averaged 1 percent, this rate is result of some factors but unemployment has its impact as well. Labor force is important for the output since they are a main factor in the business. In Albania the sector that is increasing the GDP is still agriculture but the industry is increasing faster also. The agriculture has more employed people than industry that's why the effect of them is higher in the GDP. After the transition and after the period of recession the unemployment fall because when there is bad time for the economy the business lay off the workers since they are producing less. So the relation between the economic growth and unemployment is interdependent that explains how the economy changes when there is a high number of unemployed people and how this phenomena effect negatively in the economy as well. When there is a growth in the real gross domestic product which exceeds growth of the labor productivity then employment will rise and if this is rapid there is labor force growth than unemployment will decline. After the transition the agriculture had the higher number of employees even this sector had the lowest productivity and the services sector with the highest productivity had 60 percent of people employed. According to (Kota, 2007)the labor productivity it is important for the economic growth, and in order to be efficient labor force has to shift from less productive sectors to more productive ones. To remain still to the unemployment, one of the factors that are increasing it not only in Albania is the technology which is substituting the skills of the workers and this leads to the less number of people working. Anyway there are a lot of reason that have direct impact in the economy where

the political reasons can be included also but according to business cycle is going to come a increase for the economy so the business will be able to produce more so to high more people and the economic growth will happens since there can be more exports and less imports. Despite its growth Albania still is one of the countries with the lowest wages but this cheap labor costs affect the economy negatively since people are not satisfied and do not have tendency to work. Economic growth is main goal of every country economic, monetary and fiscal policy. The investments are important in helping the economy and choosing the unemployment problem. So economic policies tends to increase the economic growth that lead to reduce of unemployment and the investment policies are creating more jobs by their investment programs. Unemployment is a global phenomenon that has economic and social effect and every country despite the development is facing with it. This study identifies the correlation of this phenomenon and the economic growth for the Albania, despite the theoretical part that shows the negative relation this research is based in the methodology which uses as unemployment rate as dependent and economic growth as independent variable and again proving not a positive relation between them. This study is based in specific years and takes the sources from the INSTAT, World Bank and IMF, it is important because identifies the relationship between unemployment and the economic growth and underlines this relationship. It takes real facts of the economy of Albania and related with the Okun's law and the regression analysis done this relationship will be showed in the papers of this research.

II. Literature Review

There have been many theoretical debates about the effect of the unemployment rate in the economic growth. Arthur Okun a professor and economist proposed a relationship between them in 1962 and called it Okun's law that states 1 percent decrease in unemployment the GDP will increase by 3 percent. But this economist says that this relationship varies from the country and the time. This is an empirical study that proves the imperfect relationship between them and this law is called Okun's rule of thumb. By this law according to the economics arm of Federal Reserve Bank of Saint Louis explain that this law tells us when unemployment rate is high or above the natural rate the country's GDP may be lost. It is a simple law that states a positive relation for employment and economic growth and a negative one between unemployment and economic growth.Okun presented two different versions of this law. The first one is :

$\Delta U_t = a - b * \Delta \log GDP_t$

this equation represent the ration of GDP and unemployment as 2:1 for the United States (Abel, 2008). It represents also the elasticity of the unemployment rate with the economic growth (Balakrishnan, 2010). ΔU_t shows the change in the unemployment rate, $\Delta \log GDP_t$ is the change in the GDP, is the level above the natural rate of the unemployment and b is the Okun's coefficient (Neely, 2010) noted that this coefficient can change over time since the relation of unemployment to economic growth depends on technology, laws, preferences, demographics and social customs. Accept the equation it is important to say that the Okun's coefficient is by itself a good observer for the relationship of unemployment rate and the economic growth. However the instability of that over time, business cycles and regions was defined. This instability is related to late impact of unemployment rate to the changes in output that means there are other factors intervening in the relationship of them such as labor policies or uncertainty.

(Knotek, 2007) claims that if instability of it is considered this relationship becomes an important forecasting tool. After the financial crises of the 2008 the Okuns coefficient changed rapidly in some developed countries. After the behavior of that coefficient, scholars believed that are the technological, social and normative transformations of the past 30 years in the United States. (Neely, 2010) noted that industrialized countries have smaller Okun's coefficient because unemployment is simpler than changes in output since it is easy to fire workers. In Latin America because of the lack of data of the unemployment rate (Gonzalez, 2002) proposed use of the survey in order to find the data, he stated that it is better to use real wage instead of the unemployment rate because in case of the inflation real wages can push it dawn and avoiding lying off. The rule of Arthur Okuns had many critics but also people who support it. Ben Bernanke the Federal Reserve chairman summarizes that to reduce the unemployment the economy must growth at a level above its potential so to specify Okun's law says that if potential rate of gross domestic product growth is 2 percent the GDP must grow at 4 percent in a year to reach 1 percent reduction in unemployment.

Another interpretation of Okun's law was from the Kansas City fed that explains this law like the slowdowns of growth leads to the rising of unemployment. Some economics blogs supported that law and concluded that Okuns law is a useful guide for the monetary policy of the country if the unemployment rate is measured. Also the Keynesian economics emphasizes the government intervention in order to reduce the unemployment during recession. He said that government can increase demand for workers by expansionist monetary policy or financial stimuli. Keynes mentioned that unemployment is caused by investor who tries to receive money for themselves rather than to produce more products. Marxists had the same point

of view with the Keynes but according to them the unemployment is inherent that means it is something that it is expected to happen. They think that unemployed workers does not bring profit but at the same time unemployment is profitable in the capitalist countries since contribute by lowering wages which are costs for the owners and the only way to eliminate unemployment is to abolish capitalism.

So the most important theory that is exactly for the relationship of the unemployment and the economic growth is the Okun's law that is mentioned before and it shows the negative relation that this paper supports by the empirical analysis also. This law it is important for the theoretical and empirical reasons. From theoretical part Okuns law is seen as macroeconomics building and from empirical point of view it is regarded as a hint for policymakers to calculate the cost of higher unemployment.

Some countries break the Okun Law that means in case of a fell in GDP the labor productivity increased. The countries that were abnormal, breaking this law were the US, Spain and the Ireland in the recession times. (Rowe, 2011) Okuns's law normally falls in recession, since the gross domestic product and the unemployment falls also. But in the US the ratio of GDP over unemployment didn't have a decline. In the years of 2008 and 2009 the GDP of US felt nearly 4 percent and the unemployment by 6 percent so the GDP over employment ratio increased by nearly 1 percent. (Rowe, 2011) Spain and Ireland were also breaking this law. Spain was like the US, this country had a decline in the GDP and in the unemployment but during this time the productivity of Spain increased by 6 percent. Ireland is also a special case where in the recession the GDP declined the employment declined also but the productivity of it increased to the same level it was before recession. These countries broke the Okuns law.

In the period of recession and the countries had a decline in their gross domestic product mostly in 2008 and 2009 then in 2011 there is a positive increase of the GDP of these countries. In the Ireland the GDP felt much than the other countries. Since in the recession there is a decline in the output also the consumption falls, drops in the international trade and many other effects.

Also the unemployment in the developed countries being part of the G8,in the period of the recession and it declines . So the unemployment increased. Okuns law it is not a theoretical view but an empirical one. Okuns law in difference with the Keynesian and monetarist theory that explains the recession as a cause of the fall of aggregate demand and the increase of the productivity when unemployment falls but the Okuns law states that the productivity falls.

Okuns law predicts that decline of economic growth coincide with increasing of the unemployment. But this is not always the case. Firstly Okuns law is not a tight relationship, because many growth slowdowns haven't lead to a rise in the unemployment and this varies from periods of time and from the business cycles. Anyway Okuns law can be a useful forecasting tool.

The relationship of the unemployment and the economic growth for the OECD countries changes from countries to countries and is not stable across time, but he concluded the impact of the economic growth in the unemployment. (Lee, 2000). The Okuns coefficient of the some OECD countries showed that in 1990 the employment growth was higher than in the other previous years (Baker and Schmitt, 1999).Many studies found the relation of the economic growth and the unemployment rate is useful the rule of thumb in the macroeconomics. The (IMF, 2010) stressed as important the fact that to explain the changes of Okuns coefficient from the different countries or times the institutions and policies are needed.

 Mentioning the fact of the impact of the crises, (Fallon and Lucas, 2002) argued that the financial crises of the 1990 effected slightly the employment since this crises resulted only in the cuts of real wages. In contrast (Hall, 2010) said that in the period of crises the employment situation doesn't change since there is a poor bargaining ability of the people working.

III. General View of Unemployment Rate in Albania

After the communist regime Albania achieved an economical growth but still the poverty remains high. Since it is a poor country the high level of unemployment exists so it is important to discuss about this topic.

 Unemployment still remains a problem in the Albanian economy. It refers to the labor force that is not working but available for or seeking employment. This group consists of students, the invalids and the ones performing military service also the persons that are not currently looking for a job. The working age population includes people from 16 years old to 65 years old for men and 60 for women.

Our country suffers from the phenomenon of the unemployment. As we see in the Figure 1 the lowest rate of unemployment during last ten years have been in 2009 about 12,5 percent and the highest rate of unemployment is 17 percent in 2002and

2003.From this years the unemployment have been reducing but anyway the rate of unemployment for the Albania remains high.

Figure1: Unemployment rate in Albania
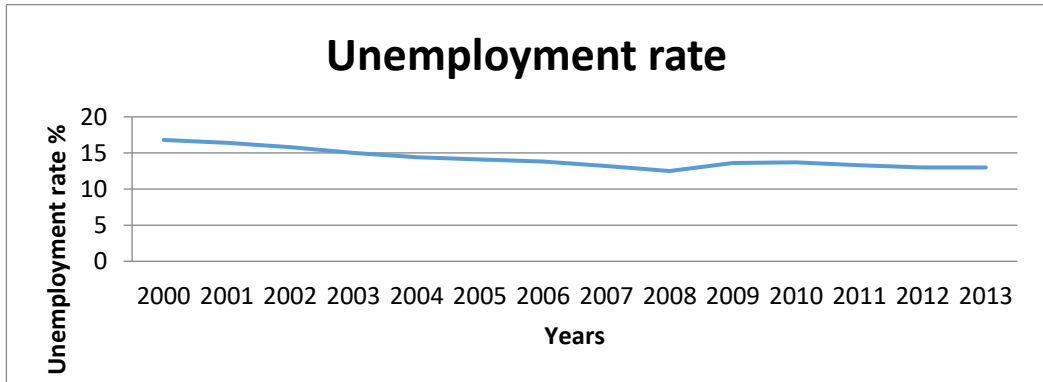
Source: INSTAT

According to the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) the unemployment rate of the Albania is not the real rate because of the main reason that is informality that means the number of the people currently working and not declared as employer. Also are some unemployed that do not declare themselves as unemployed. The other reason is that rural areas which are the poorest zones of the country are supposed with full employment since it has no one declared as unemployed. According to the CIA 58 percent of the labor force is concentrated in the agriculture, 27 percent in the service sector and only 15 percent in the industry. So a large labor force in the agriculture provides the 21.7 percent of GDP and zero unemployment making the unemployment rate no to be the real one.

Figure 2: Unemployment rate in Europe
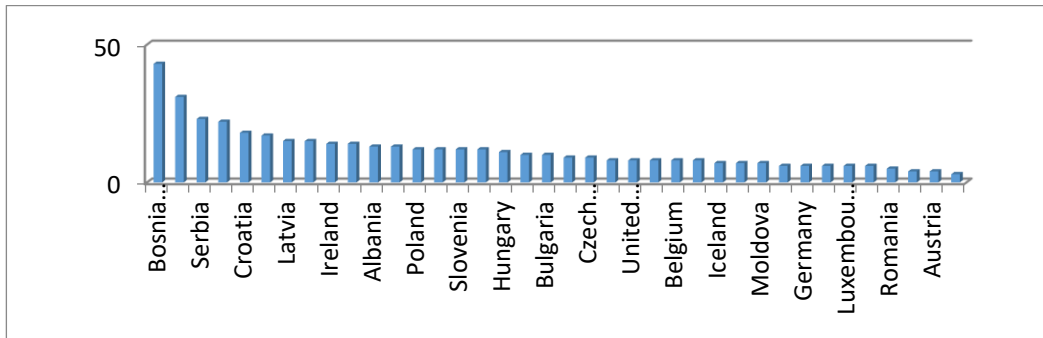
Source :World Bank

Now we will compare the unemployment rate of the Albania for the year 2011 with the unemployment rate of the other countries of the Europe some more developed and some less developed than Albania. Albania has experienced a transition for a long period so it is not a developed country. We see that the unemployment rate for the Albania in this year is approximately 13 percent, this rate is low comparing with the other European countries such AS Bosnia and Herzegovina with unemployment rate 42 percent also the level of the unemployment rate in Albania comparing with the other countries such as Serbia, Croatia or Latvia is lower .But is higher when comparing with developed countries such as United Kingdom, Bulgaria,Germany and the others. So even Albania has high level of unemployment there are some other countries of the region with higher level of the unemployment.

Unemployment is a phenomenon that has many disadvantages for a country but advantages as well. The unemployment may avert the inflation; this is based on the Philips curve theory. Two macroeconomics goals are the full employment and the price stability, with the reduction of the unemployment labor market begins to recover. Companies find difficulty in finding qualified workers so because of the high competition they are going to increase the salary. Thus low unemployment leads to the increasing of the wages generates a rise in prices and causing the inflation. There exits an inverse relationship between the inflation and the unemployment the low unemployment lead to higher inflation. This relationship is called the Philips curve, data found by this economist analyzed that wages can be stable at5,5 percent, when unemployment rate is near zero the level of inflation is extremely high.

Figure3: Inflation rate of the Albania annually in percentage.
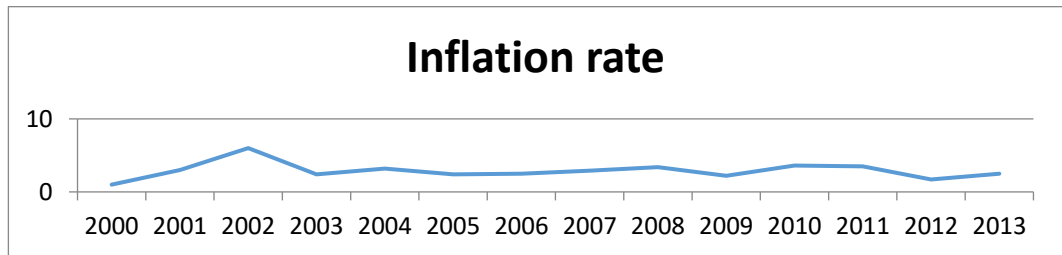
Source: Index Mundi and Trading Economics

To a zero level of inflation the unemployment is at its natural level and this can be seen in the year 1999.For low unemployment level prices increase and to a high level of unemployment prices tend to go down. That's the main benefit of the unemployment in a country. As we see in the figure 4 from 2000 to 2009 the level of inflation has changed. In 2000 the rate of inflation has been low and unemployment rate high, approximately 14 percent. In 2002 the inflation reached it maximum level and after that id drawn drastically and after that have been low changes. In 2009 the inflation rate was 3.4 percent regarding to the unemployment rate which was 12.5 percent. The government interaction is needed to keep in balance those two factors. It is important to interfere of the government to reduce the unemployment rate. Albanian government has taken some precautions to reduce the unemployment by opening new workplaces such as infrastructure. Also the government has raised the wages for many professions motivating in this manner the workers. The reforms in the fiscal system and the investment in the infrastructure and in the encouragement of the foreign investments are the important factors that have contributed in the economic growth and to the creation on new workplaces. As is mentioned before the unemployment is a process that happens in every country and it is inevitable. This phenomenon has negative effects such as social and economic effects and positive effect such as the prevention of the inflation.

 Unemployment is caused by the level of wages the technological level and the job supply. Although Albania's currently economic growth has reduce poverty level the unemployment rate is still high and Albania remains one of the countries with the highest unemployment rate. Anyway this rate has been changing and in 2009 it was 12, 5 percent it is the lowest level that Albania has had in the last ten years matching with the inflation level 3.4 percent in this year.

 A long period of unemployment may cause individual and social costs. Except the social negative effects that cause the unemployment results in loss of income and reduces the potential economy. The GDP becomes lower than it could be.sos all the whole economy and the society suffer from the unemployment. It has effect on the government expenditure, taxation and the level of government borrowing also. Tax revenue falls since the people aren't paying them because of not earning money themselves. This can result in an increase of the government deficit which than increases the risk that government will have.

Types of the unemployment:

- Frictional unemployment leaving a job and searching for another which may be better than first.
- Structural unemployment occurs due changes to demand and supply to work.
- Cyclical unemployment caused by a business cycle recession.
- Seasonal unemployment related to seasonal nature of the product or the service.
- Voluntary unemployment includes the people who don't want to work for different reasons.
- Hidden unemployment is unemployment that does not appear in the government statistics.

IV. Economic growth

Albania is a developing country but still remains one of the poorest countries in the region. Macroeconomic growth is 6 percent between 2004 and 2008 but in 2009 and 2011 declined by 3 percent and 0.5 percent in 2012. Inflation is low and stable. As we see in the GDP the main indicator of the economic growth the GDP has been high in the 1999 and it has many up and downs but with slow changes and in 2011 we see a decline of the GDP of the Albania which shows not a good situation for the economy of the Albania.

Figure4: GDP of the Albania.

GDP

GDP %

10 0

2000 2001 2002 2003 2004 2005 2006 2007 2008 2009 2010 2011 2012 2013

Years

Source: World Bank

In 2000 the Albanian economy has been good and the living standard as well. But in the upcoming years except the 2003 that noticed a increased moment, the economic growth of Albania slowed down. In the period of 2006 till 2008 the economy was growing up and every aspects of it were positive, the poverty started to reduce, the unemployment to fall, the increase of the wages, no government debts, the investments increase also the export and the improvement of the quality of life. In 2008 the business cycle brought the recession for many countries for the Albanian also and the GDP declined, staying in negative trend till in nowadays. In the 2009 there was a slight increase but it doesn't have any important effect to get out the economy from the bad period of time. After 2009 the economy declines again and now it has the slowest rate that is 2 percent for the last decade.

However Albanian economy has improved with large steps in the last decade, many reforms that were important for the country like the ones in infrastructure, property law or business administration. The financial crises of the 2008 and 2009 spared largely the country; from 2009 till 2011 the GDP has stopped but remains positive.

The main challenges of the economy of the Albania are the fiscal and budgetary environment and the crises in the neighboring countries like in the Greece and Italy which are the main trading countries. In 2011 the GDP had reached approximately $13 billion, the major contributions of GDP were services sector by 57.6 percent, agriculture by 20.3 percent, industry 11.3 percent and construction by 10.7 percent.

Remittances a significant catalyst for the economic growth meet declines over the last years after peaking in 2007.compared to 2009 in 2010 remittances fell by 16 percent and their share of GDP declined by 7.6 percent in 2010.

Albania is taking into consideration the foreign investment regime and the government is working to improve the infrastructure and the business climate also. Foreign direct investments has increased over the last years and in 2010 reached $ 1.1 billion. The government of Albania since in 2005 has invested $ 2 billion in the countries road and it has pledged to invest in transportation infrastructure.

Albania is an import oriented country and the export is small and undiversified and the import remains large. Albania imports 41 percent of the GDP and 15 percent of GDP. In 2011 trade volume increased by approximately 16 percent, the exports by 22.6 percent and the imports by 13.6 percent. The trade deficit worsens by 9 percent year by year. (CIA World Factbook, 2011)

The main trading partners of the Albania are the EU countries. They provide 64.1 percent of the imports and receive 72.5 percent of the exports the largest share of the EU are represented by the Italy and Greece with 41.1 percent of imports and the 58.3 percent of the exports for the 2011.some other major trading countries are the Turkey, China and Germany.

Figure5: Comparison of annual GDP and unemployment rate of Albania from 2000 to 2013

GDP & Unemployment rate
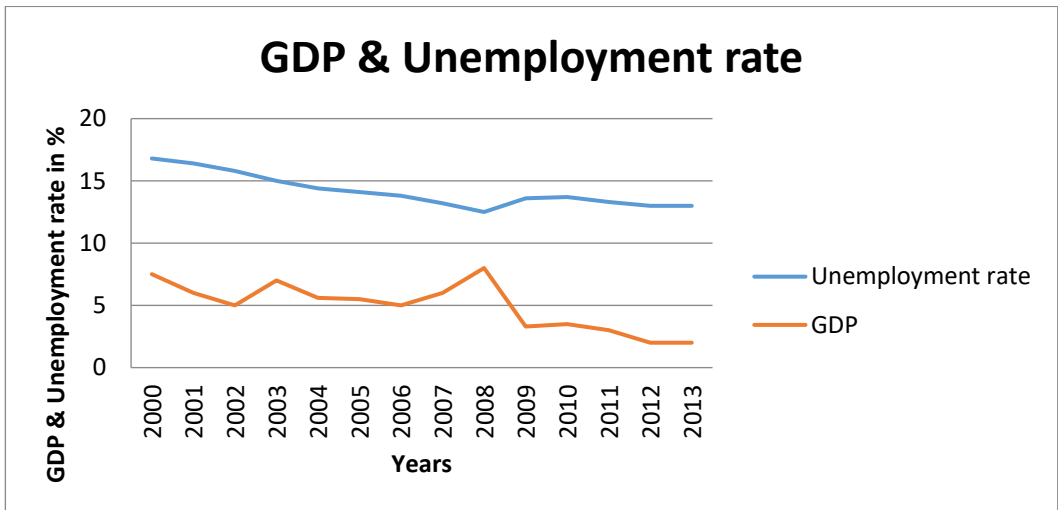
Source: Index Mundi and World Bank

This graph shows a not a regular relationship between the unemployment and the gross domestic product.

In the period 2000-2003 the economic growth of the Albania was low and the unemployment rate high. In the 2003 there is a slight increase in the economy which went up to 7 percent and a slight decrease in the unemployment rate.

In 2008 the gross domestic product reached the largest in Albania by 8 percent and the unemployment the lowest rate by 12.5 percent for the years 2000 to 2013.Then because of the international financial crises the economy of the Albania becomes poor and the GDP declines, affecting negatively the unemployment rate.

Based on this evidence it is difficult to conclude the link that exist between unemployment and the GDP in Albania.

Figure6 :GDP of Albania comparing to the other developing countries
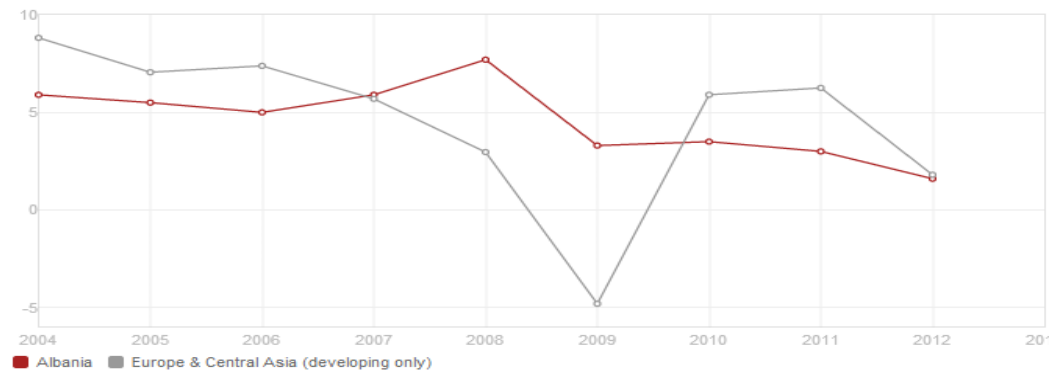
Source: World Bank

When comparison to the other developing country Albanian economy it is realized that has been lower than the other countries but again in a positive trend and only in 2008 because of the crises, the GDP of it felt immediately but it was higher than the economic growth of the other European and Asian countries which had a large decline in gross domestic product because of the recession which brought negative effect on the overall economy. From 2004 till in 2007 the annual average GDP has been approximately 6,5 percent and then the countries reached the same level in 2007 by 6 percent approximately. In 2007-2008 periods the Albanian economic growth went up to 8 percent.

However in 2008 the growth of the economy slowed down. In this year Albania had the largest GDP by 8 percent than it started declining. In the years 2008 and 2009 the GDP of Albania was larger in comparison to the some developing countries being part of the Europe and Central Asia. But in 2009 these countries increased very much and reached a level to approximately 6 percent. After this period of time the GDP of all these countries had a declining trend and again reaching the same level to 2 percent the lowest that Albania has had after 2000.

V. Methodology

In this thesis is studied the relationship between unemployment and the economic growth for the Albania. This relationship is observed by Arthur Okun and called Okun's law. This law suggested two classes of it, the first one is first-difference model and the second is "gap" model. The first model gives the relation of these two variables by using the given formula: $\frac{y_t - y_{t-1}}{y_{t-1}} = a + b(u_t - u_{t-1})$. Where a is the GDP growth and the b is the Okun's coefficient. This model is used in this methodology. The regression analysis is a simple regression with only two variables where the GDP is dependent and the unemployment rate independent. According to the Okun's law the unemployment rate affect the GDP with the report 1:3 that means 1 percent decrease in unemployment the GDP increases by 3 percent. Does this rapport exist also for Albania? What is the impact of the GDP in unemployment? By using the estimated model we will find a detailed answer.

V.IData

This study uses annual data to examine the correlation between unemployment rate and the gross domestic product in Albania for the years 1992 till 2012. Yearly data on unemployment and gross domestic product are collected from the World Bank (WB). Since the first model of Okun's law is used the data are the changes in the unemployment rate and the changes in the GDP.

GDP real growth is the dependent variable while unemployment rate is taken as independent. These variables are analyzed in their level form. Economic growth is measured by the gross domestic product while the unemployment rate is measured by annual unemployment rate. Data used in the regression in order to study empirically the effect that variables have to each other, and to proof of the Okun's law functions for the Albanian economy also. This study has 21 observation for the unemployment rate and 21 for the GDP of the Albania.

Figure 7: Linear Regression
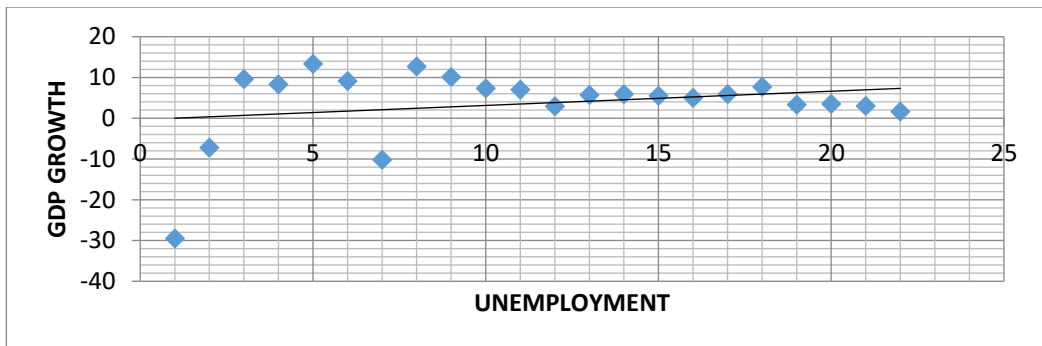
This scatter diagram illustrates the link between GDP growth and the unemployment rate in Albania over periods 1992 and 2012, from the figure is observed no clear systematic relationship between the variables.

In fact the dates of the GDP and unemployment show diverse relations in different years, where only in 2008 we can see a key negative link between GDP and the unemployment rate. From the year 1991 that this study takes into consideration the GDP started to increase and the unemployment had the same trend.

Since Albania was in transition the economy of it started to improve after 1990 but with low steps, this effected the employment but in negative sight so the employment decreases while GDP was increasing. This happens since there was

no more a central economy, the private businesses started creating, and people were free in their choices but this had not good impact in employment.

The number of unemployed increased because of the new political environment that came and firing lots of employees of the administration, so they didn't have the opportunity to work immediately anywhere.

V.II Regression Analysis

Here we test the first difference model of the Okun's law. By using the two variables unemployment and the GDP the model will be estimated and the result that shows the affect of them to each other will be found.

Table 1: Reggression Analysis

| View | Proc | Object | | Print | Name | Freeze | | Estimate | Forecast | Stats | Resids |

Dependent Variable: Y
Method: Least Squares
Date: 06/05/14   Time: 18:57
Sample: 1992 2012
Included observations: 21

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-4.269267	2.170325	-1.967109	0.0639
X	-1.118424	1.049409	-1.065765	0.2999

R-squared	0.056410	Mean dependent var		-4.195238
Adjusted R-squared	0.006747	S.D. dependent var		9.974291
S.E. of regression	9.940586	Akaike info criterion		7.521522
Sum squared resid	1877.490	Schwarz criterion		7.621000
Log likelihood	-76.97598	Hannan-Quinn criter.		7.543111
F-statistic	1.135856	Durbin-Watson stat		1.499509
Prob(F-statistic)	0.299886			

The Regression equation is:

$Y = B_0 + B_1x + u$

Where:

Y- is the depended variable, which is being predicted or explained, in this case the differences in real GDP.

B_0 - is the expected intercept parameter, equals the value of Y when the value of x=0.

B_1- is the expected slope, how much Y changes for each one-unit change in x.

x- is the independent or explanatory variable, in this case the differences in unemployment rate.

u- is the error term; the error in predicting the value of Y, given the value of x (it is not displayed in most regression equations).

To examine the relationship between the GDP and the unemployment rate the study specified the simple linear model:

$$Y = -4.26 - 1.11x$$

The above equation shows that one percent point decline in the unemployment rate would produce 1.11 percent growth in the GDP. If the unemployment rate remains constant the GDP decline by 4.26 percent this happens since implying the unemployment is not the only factor affecting the economic growth.

The Okun's coefficient varies from countries and from period of time. In 2012 the Okun's coefficient in industrial countries of Europe was – 4, in Japan -8 in Greece -4.2, in Macedonia - 3.8 and so on.

 For the statistical significance, t-statistics is going to be studied. t- Statistics = - 1.96 it means that the unemployment rate is statistically significant, furthermore, means that the independent variable or X, should be kept in the regression equation, since it has a statistically considerable relationship with the dependent variable that is unemployment rate.

  When R^2 is studied, that shows how much of the dependent variable is explained by the change of the independent variable. R^2 =0.056 that means approximately 6 percent for the change of GDP can be explained by a change in unemployment rate. There are many factors that affect the GDP of the Albania like the foreign direct investments,

population growth or technological innovations. In this analyze it is shown that economic growth and unemployment rate have a weak relation with each other.

This relation says that 5.6 percent of the economic growth is explained by the unemployment rate and the other 94.4 percent by the other factors. Table shows that this is a weak correlation. Although this is contrary to a priori expectation, the result is not surprising since the economy of Albania has experienced a decrease in the overall economy that's why the implication is that the GDP is insensitive from the unemployment rate.

We cannot have an exact correlation between this two important variables since the data of the Albania are not reliable and do not give us the opportunity to do right calculations.

VI. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study examines the relationship between the differences in the annual unemployment rate and the differences in the annual GDP of Albania for the period 1992 and 2012.the Okun's law states that one percent decrease of in unemployment rate the GDP increase by 3 percent, but this law varies from country and period of time. Okun's law holds for the economy of Albania over the period 1992-2012. The estimation results found that one percent reduce in the unemployment rate the GDP increases by 1.11 percent. The Okun's coefficient for Albania is sufficiently small since there is no competent labor and supply.

The data and the study do not show a specific and stable rapport since from years to year we can see different link between the GDP and the unemployment. This happens because of the situation in Albania, being a transition economy ,the crises that started at 2008 and still it continues and also the change in the government that affected the economy of Albania overall.

The economic growth in Albania it is unsatisfied even there have been 20 years of democratization. There is high unemployment and it is urgently needed development of employment politics. The economic growth must be oriented toward the sectors that can create more jobs, at the same time a balanced distribution of public investment in the country. Also a greater wage and the flexibility of labor market is important to increase the Okun's coefficient for Albania and the support of economic growth.

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Appendix

 Appendix A: Table of data used in the regression analysis

1992	− 36.7	3.9
1993	2.4	4.5
1994	−1.3	− 0.41
1995	5	− 0.5
1996	− 4.2	− 2.29
1997	−19.3	1.5
1998	− 22.9	− 1.71
1999	− 2.6	0.41
2000	− 2.8	− 6.2
2001	− 0.3	− 0.31
2002	− 4.1	− 0.5
2003	2.8	− 0.19
2004	0.2	− 0.11
2005	− 0.4	1.11
2006	− 0.5	− 0.5
2007	0.9	0.8
2008	1.8	0.39
2009	− 4.4	0.11
2010	0.2	0.39
2011	− 0.5	− 1.39
2012	− 1.4	− 0.39

Source:World Bank

Characteristics of the VAT in Albania

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Abstract

The value added tax (taxe sur la valeur ajoutee - TVA) was "invented" by a finance expert of France called "Maurice Laure" (1917-20 April 2001). The system of "Laure" is designed to April 10, 1954. He "invented" a tax on consumption, which was called the VAT (TVA). His idea was quickly adopted because it compels taxpayers at all levels of the production process, for self-management and self-calculating the tax, instead of putting the burden on sellers, or the tax authorities make the tax assessments. The tax legislation for the VAT in Albania has changed constantly . The VAT in Albania is regulated by the Law No. 7928 dated 27.04.1995 "On the VAT" . This law was amended to date from about 30 other laws . in the design of the fiscal policy of Albania , are taken into consideration the behavior of taxpayers and their ability to the tax evasion . Albanian state is trying to harmonize the fiscal legislation with those of the other countries of the European Union. This paper aims to show the main characteristics of the VAT in Albania . At the end of this paper, I will give my conclusions of the issue .

Keywords: vat, vat law, taxpayer.

Introduction

Value added tax (Taxe sur la valeur Ajoutee-TVA) is "invented" by a finance expert in France called "Maurice Laure" (1917-20 April 2001). in 1954, he "invented" a tax on consumption, which was called VAT (TVA). His idea was quickly adopted because it compels taxpayers at all levels of the production process for self-management and self-calculation of the tax, instead of putting the burden on the seller or require that the tax assessment be done by tax authorities.

The "Laure" system dates back to April 10, 1954 and initially affect only large enterprises. in I960 success of the VAT in France, urged EU countries to adopt the VAT replacing their systems of taxation. in 1967, amended Directives 1 and 2 including and adapting, the VAT to the taxation system of the European member states. Then, was implemented in Brazil in 1967 at all levels of transactions, extending over the years 1970 to 1980 in 63 countries. Since 1990, more than 130 industrialized countries and developing countries in the world, that apply value added tax, that pay about 4 billion people (customers), with a value $ 18 billion or 25% of total of tax revenue.

On 17 May 1967 adopted a law is unique and a general law for all EU countries, called Directive 6 (77/388/CEE). This directive has established unique rules about:

- Scope of application,

- Territory

- The taxable value

- Moment of supply

- Crediting.

The VAT in Albania currently is sanctioned by law no. 7928 dated 27.04.1995 "On Value Added Tax". Implementation of VAT and replacement of the turnover tax begins in July of 1996. Standard tax rate was 12.5% and subject to this tax, were, all taxpayers that realize an annual turnover greater than 2 million leks . Until June 1996, is applied the turnover tax, sanctioned by the Law no. 7676 dated 03.03.1993 "On the turnover tax." The turnover tax paid on all categories of production, imports and services. The turnover tax was 18%. The VAT law is subjected to continuous changes. Changes in VAT law began in October 1997 after the pyramid scheme crisis, with replacement of tax scale with 12.5% standard tax rate of 20%, which is in force today. in January 1998 the VAT registration threshold is made for those entities that realize an annual turnover greater than 5 million leks. From 1 January 2001, the VAT registration threshold becomes 8 million leks and again in February 2010 boundary changes, and decrease to 5 million leks. The aim was to increase the collection of

this type of tax base by expanding taxable activities. Also reduction in the VAT registration threshold introduces the concept of fair treatment of businesses and makes it more difficult to hide financial data helping at the junction of data to the TAX - CRM system. in Albania, currently, this tax rate has two levels; 0% for exports and international transport of passengers and goods and 20% for all other taxpayers.

The value added tax is an indirect consumption tax, which basically is levied on the "value added" to each economic phase of the chain of production-consumption. The tax base is the personal consumption of individuals, as measured by the price paid for goods and services. The VAT may be calculated through different methods: addition, sales-subtraction, and credit-invoice. in Albania is used the method of credit-invoice. Under the credit-invoice method, the taxpayer calculates the tax due within a tax period. This is the difference between the tax debit for taxable sales (the sum of the debit as stated in the invoices "output tax liability") minus the credit for taxable purchases ("input credits"). So, at the end of a reporting period, the albanian business calculates its tax liability by subtracting the cumulative amount of VAT stated on its purchase invoices from the cumulative amount of VAT stated on its sales invoices.

Characteristics of the VAT in Albania

The VAT is a tax on consumption. So, the VAT is carried to the consumer and it is the latter that pays this tax to the state budget. Therefore, this type of tax is included in the category of indirect taxes. VAT does not burden business. Tax on consumption means that the state taxes in fact, the final consumption of goods and services, while sellers of goods and services are themselves agents of collecting this tax from final consumers. So the real payers of VAT are the final consumers of goods and services. Following the movement of goods from the first link of the economic chain, which is the processor and producer of raw materials and to the retail trade network, it became very clear who is the real payer of this tax. All actors participating, from the manufacturer to the retailer have an obligation to calculate VAT on turnover made, but simultaneously calculate VAT for purchases made. Only the final consumer, is he pay the VAT to the extent of the tax rate, and just for the fact that he can not recover or be credited further, for the value of the tax credit.

The VAT is collected from taxpayers. The VAT is collected through a system of payment by businesses. The payable VAT is calculated as the difference of VAT on sales, the VAT on purchases. So VAT is a tax on the price difference (margin), which in fact, the final consumer pays.

 The VAT is a neutral tax. The neutrality has to do with the balance of this type of tax in the taxpayer's financial situation. On the one hand taxpayers collect VAT from their customers which represents one side of the balance sheet, and on the other side of the balance sheet, they pose the VAT paid and credited to their purchases and VAT to be paid on account state. Consequently inflow and outflow is the same. The only exceptional cases are those taxpayers that buy goods and services with VAT at a greater extent or smaller than the VAT they collect when sell these goods and services. Exceptional case in Albania are exporting entities that buy goods with VAT 20% and sell these goods abroad with 0% in pursuance of the VAT law. But even in this case VAT can win the quality of neutrality, if the VAT on the purchase of goods and services that respond to taxable supplies (exports) at 20% is reimbursed by the state. Another case in Albania (it was up in April 2014), for taxpayers (independent occupations and professions) which provide health services (dentists, laboratory technicians, etc.). As they buy goods with VAT at 20%, and sell services at the level of 20%. But even in this case VAT can win the quality of neutrality, if the VAT on the purchase of goods and services that respond to taxable supplies (exports) reimbursed to the extent of 10% by the state. Even in other cases when supplies are exempt from VAT, and the taxpayer, buys goods with VAT, the lawmaker has provided that in such cases, purchases with VAT, which serve to exempt supplies shall be considered as purchases exempt from VAT. Thereby losing the right to be credited, in this case, creates a kind of neutrality.

The VAT is a horizontal tax in Albania. Horizontal equity of the tax systems of those countries applying VAT, consists in that all taxpayers of certain categories in the same circumstances should have the same treatment. The VAT does not take into account the economic situation of the final consumer, so the VAT is not applied taking into account the income received by him or economic level of his family. The VAT is fixed and does not vary in relation to the implementation of customer revenue. Despite the disposable income, a final consumer, when presented in the market, it is before a price of a product that is the same for all clients or customers and applied VAT on these prices is the same.

The VAT is an indirect tax. The payment of this tax is done indirectly in the state budget. This tax is collected and paid by the "taxable persons", that are also the "legal payers" of this tax . So in some way they are taxpayers that pay VAT in the budget, that collect VAT from the final customers also called the "real payer". So, taxpayers are somehow "legal representative" of consumers for the declaration and payment of the VAT. Why such a way of paying the VAT? As it would

be impossible to manage the VAT payments of consumers through the bank counters and branches of taxes every day. Also it would be impossible to manage, control and monitor the accuracy of payments of the VAT for each final consumer.

The VAT is self-declarative. The method of declaration and payment of VAT is based on this principle. All VAT taxpayers, declare and pay the VAT, within the set deadline (In Albania, this term is up on 14 of the next month), all supplies (sales) of goods or services carried out for a taxable period (in Albania is calendar month). The declaration made by the free will of the taxpayer based on real supplies made by him. This makes it a modern tax versus other types of taxes. VAT promotes self-assessment. The taxpayer, who is a link in the long commerce chain, files a tax return at the tax office (or by mail), and sends his payment to the tax administration. Also, VAT promotes self-enforcement because "businesses can claim a credit against their tax bill only if another business has previously paid tax on the sale"

VAT is a general tax. It applies, in principle, to all commercial activities including production and distribution (marketing) of goods and services, unless the cases exempted by law.

VAT ensures transparency in an economic cirkuit, because every payment makes with tax bill.

The VAT in Albania and the legal framework

Referring to the VAT Law No. 7928, dt. 27.04.1995, undergo to the application of VAT:

1. Supplies of goods

2. Supply of services when they:

a) carried out against payment,

b) by a taxable person,

c) as part of the economic activity of a taxable person,

d) in the territory of the Republic of Albania,

3. Imports of goods in the territory of the Republic of Albania.

Who is a taxable person?

The term "taxable person", used in the Albanian law, shall mean the person who performs operations within his s economic activity within the scope of application of VAT. Taxable person may be:

1. The legal person

2. Physical person

3. Individual

4. Institution

5. Central public institution or local public institution.

In the sense of Article 2 of the law, taxable persons are those persons that:

- are required to be registered (Article 3-6) or

- are registered but have not yet been de-registered (Article 7).

Registration of taxable person.

Registration is mandatory. When?

The obligation to register as a taxable person (the VAT) is:

- for new enterprises, within 15 days from the date of commencement of its economic activity, when its circulation performed or will be performed is greater than the minimum limit of registration. It is currently 5 million leks.

- for existing enterprises, within 15 days after the end of the calendar year, if the turnover this year exceeded the minimum limit of registration.

- for importers does not matter limit of 5 million. They are obliged to register despite the turnover.

VAT registration threshold.

In Albania, the VAT registration threshold is a turnover of 5 million leks. Taxpayers, that, realize a turnover above this limit are obliged to register for the VAT regardless of their status.

Deregistration.

The person who does not meet with the conditions for being registered may request deregistration within 15 days after completion of its activities (Article 7). This thing happens with the:

- Completion of activity

- Reducing the turnover under 5 million leks

- Giving up of the right to be registered.

Each of the following changes require cancellation of existing registration:

- Closure of economic activity.

- Sale of economic activity.

- Union or amalgamation to perform an economic activity previously carried out by a taxable person.

Moment of supply (Article 13)

The Supply moment is considered the moment when it is mandatory to issue the tax invoice.

When will be issued the tax invoice of VAT? VAT invoice must be issued when:

• The goods are delivered

• Services are performed

• Exception to this rule is the case when the supplier of the goods or service collects a fee before that, of goods delivered or services are performed by him. in this case the supplier is obliged to issue a VAT invoice at the time when payment is made by him.

Importing goods is deemed accomplished at the time predicted that defines the customs code, so then where the import is deemed accomplished. "Release date" is the date when the goods 'released' by customs.

Place of supply

Thr place of supply of goods is where the goods are delivered or made available by suppliers. If the elaboration or the making available includes transportation of goods, the place of supply of goods is the palce where the transportation begins. So, the place is where:

o goods delivered

o made available by the supplier

o begins transporting goods.

The taxable value

The taxable value of a taxable supply, is the total amount in value or nature to be paid for supply, by any person. The total amount includes any tax and fees paid or payable for the supply, or because of supply, excluding the value added tax. It is the value on which the tax rate of VAT is applied.

Tax rate.

Albania applies two tax rate:

- The standard rate of 20%,

- The rate of 0%.

Standard rate applies to all supplies of goods and services and imports of goods.

Reduced tax rate of 0%, applies with respect to:

- Goods that are exported from the territory of the Republic of Albania;

- Supplies of services outside the territory of the Republic of Albania by a taxable person, the place of economic activity, of which, is in Albania;

- Supplies of goods and services in connection with the international transport of goods or passengers.

- Supplies of goods and services in relation to commercial or industrial activities in the sea.

Crediting of VAT

Crediting of VAT is the amount of VAT thst taxable person pays at the time he purchases goods or services within the country, and the amount of VAT he has paid for imports, with the the condition that, these supplies serve only to the taxable supplies, that will make the taxable person. Tax credit for a taxable period is the total of VAT applied in relation to:

- All taxable supplies made to a taxable person during the tax period by other taxable persons.

- All imports of goods made by a taxpayer during the the tax period.

Refund of VAT

Pursuant to Article 50 of Law No. 7928, dated 27.4.1995 "On value added tax" and Law No. 9920, dated 19.5.2008 "On Tax Procedures in RA", the taxable person shall be entitled to seek reimbursement of VAT, when he carried a refundable VAT over 3 (three) consecutive months (every month has resulted refundable VAT) and when this amount is greater than 400,000 ALL. When a taxpayer meets the above conditions, he completes the form "Request for Refund" and sends it to the respective Regional Tax Directorate. Refund of VAT, can be performed with the following three forms:

a) by transferring the amount overpaid to the account of the taxpayer.

b) by transferring the overpaid amount on account of payment of other obligations of taxpayer.

c) by transferring the amount overpaid, with the consent of the taxpayer, on account of payment of future tax liabilities.

Obligations of the taxable person.

A person, that with the his economic activity, included in the scope to VAT, should:

- register,

- issue the tax invoice for supplies made by him,

- keep records for the VAT,

- declare with the VAT form.

Tax assessments

Tax assessment is the calculation that makes tax administration, the amount of tax liability and administrative penalties and interest for late payment that a taxpayer is obliged to pay. Tax authorities have the right to assess the VAT when:

o a person does not make the statement in that form determined by law;

o a person requires that the amount of VAT shown as payable in a statement, should be changed because of a error or omission;

o estimate that the amount of VAT shown as payable to a statement made by a taxable person is less than the amount that should have been reflected as payable in that statement;

o appreciate that, for any reason the amount of VAT is payable by a person to the state, and is not paid.

Appeal procedure

Every person has the right to complain the results of tax assessment made by the tax authorities.

1. The first degree of appeal (administrative) is the Directortorate of Appeal, at the General Directorate of Taxation.

2. The second degree of appeal is the court.

Conclusions

The VAT has these features:

the VAT is a tax on consumption

the VAT is a neutral tax,

the VAT is a horizontal tax,

the VAT is self-declarative,

the VAT promotes self-enforcement.

Since, the VAT is a tax that contributes sufficiently to the Albanian budget, the VAT law should treat accurately and indisputably all issues related to the operation of this tax. As a result, the Albanian lawmaker should apply the reduced rates of the VAT for such categories.

The VAT law should not let space for equivocation.

The VAT law should take into account activities with importance for the community regarding the determination of the rate of the VAT, as is the case for example the food industry.

Since, Albania seeks to integrate in the EU, the VAT law should be changed in accordance with Directive 2006/112 / EC of the Council of Europe, dated 28 November 2006 "On the common system of value added tax".

The new draft law on the VAT is being drafted by the new albanian government in accordance with Directive 2006/112 / EC of the Council of Europe.

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Fiscal Evasion and Shadow Economy: Albanian Case

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Abstract

Shadow economy includes economic activities and the income obtained due to avoidance of taxes. Fiscal evasion is one of three main parts of shadow economy. It is a problem present almost in every country in the world. It is very largely people's desire to evade taxes that creates most of the shadow economy. First of all, this thesis focuses on the factors which affect informal economy and different forms in which it is seen. Second part of this study is about fiscal evasion and shadow economy in Albania. It is analyzed the factors which have helped in developing of informal economy in my country, by using evidences from different sources. in Albania section, it is also included a sub-section which focuses on the different ways that needs to be followed in order to fight against fiscal evasion. Shadow economy and fiscal evasion, cannot be completed eliminated, but all the countries should fight in order to reduce fiscal evasion, thus reducing the size of informal economy.

Introduction

Shadow economy is a major problem found in every country of the world, with different levels. in developing countries it gives a significant help to a more rapid economic growth. The shadow economy is greater in the Southern European countries than in other OECD countries (Hart, 1994). There exist different definitions about the shadow economy. According to Kelly, shadow economy refers to those economic activities that are not reported or not taxed (Schneider & Friedrich, 2007) One of the definitions which is widely used and accepted by most of the people around the world is that shadow economy gives a relationship between unofficial (unreported) income and the measured income which is reported to tax authorities. According to this definition shadow economy includes all those activities which are unrecorded and provide a value for the economy of a country that should be present in the gross national product (GNP).

Shadow economy can be divided into three main parts:

Tax Evasion (Legally performed economic activities, but tax are not paid)

Black Economy (Legal activities are illegally performed)

Criminal Activities (Illegal activities)

Fiscal evasion is the use of illegal tactics to avoid financial liabilities. There are different ways to engage in fiscal evasion. The most common one is hiding or not declaring the incomes, thus resulting in reduction or avoidance of taxes. This allows people to keep more money for their purposes. Other ways to engage in fiscal evasion are reporting more expenses than really incurred, falsifying the accounts and not obeying the rules found on the article of the "Income-Tax Act". Such unethical practices often create problems for the tax evaders. Tax evaders are punished with different penalties like fines, prison or even the persecution of their belongings. There should be made a clear distinction between tax avoidance and tax evasion. Tax avoidance means performing the economic activities in a way that reduces taxes. Tax avoidance is legal, while tax evasion is illegal and as mentioned above it is punished. in order to prove the legality of tax avoidance the case is usually send to a court. As it is illegal those engaged in this activity have several reason to seek to conceal what they are doing. The formal economic theory of tax evasion can be dated at 1972, with the publication of the article "Income Tax Evasion", a theoretical analysis made by Allingham and Sandmo. (Allingham & Sandmo, 1972).

According to Yitzhaki (1974) an increase in the tax rate increases the amount of reported income, and he also found in his research that the fine which will be paid by the tax evader will be proportional to the amount of evaded taxes. This model of Yitzhaki was not realistic, because all other researches were finding that when tax rate increase the amount of evaded taxes will be increased, too (Yitzhaki, 1974). Yitzhaki (1987) reworded this theory by arguing that the probability of being caught is positively related to the amount of unreported taxes. He concluded that an increase in tax rates increases tax evasion. Many other authors – like Gordon (1989); Klepper, Nagin, and Spurr (1991); Lee (2001); and Panades (2001) have conducted their searches in order to explain the contradiction between finding from the studies and theories.

The presence of an underground sector is simply a reflection of individual's incentives to hide their economic activities, either because these activities would be less rewarding if practiced in the formal sector, or else because the activities are illegal to begin with. Understanding what factors might influence such incentives is an important subject of my thesis. By its nature, the shadow economy is difficult to study empirically. Whilst different approaches yield different estimates, the general conclusion is that the extent of informal economy is substantial. (SCHNEIDER & ENSTE, 2002). The underground economy in Egypt, Thailand, and Nigeria, during 1998-1999 was estimated to be 69, 70, and 77 percent of official GDP, respectively. Amongst the developed countries, Greece and Italy have the largest shadow economies, estimated to be in the region of 27-29 percent of GDP during 1989-1999. The key factors that influence the underground economy have been related to aspects of public policy and public administration. Included among these are the burdens of taxation and social security contributions, the complexity of the tax system, the extent of bureaucracy and regulations. Functioning of financial markets has an important role to play in determining informal behavior. The recent studies about this are; First by Dabla-Norris and Feltenstein (2005) reports a significant negative correlation between measures of financial development and the size of shadow economy (Norris & Feltenstein, 2005). The second study is by Straub (2005) that provides evidence of a significant positive effect of credit market efficiency on the degree of business formality.

Evidences of shadow economy in Albania were first seen in the years of transition to the market economy. This transition found Albanian economy with a significant level of lack of capital stock, and Albanians were seeking to change this situation as soon as possible. The collapse of pyramid schemes in 1996-1997 left a big gap between the real economy growth rate and institutional one.

Evolution of Tax Structure

Scholars of the historical evolution of tax structure like Hinrichs (1966) and Musgrave (1969) have stressed the importance of tax administration issues. They note that modern tax structure development has generally been characterized by a shift from excise, customs, and property taxes to corporate income and progressive individual income taxes. This shift has been made possible by the expansion of the market sector and relative decline of the rural sector, the concentration in larger establishments, and the growing literacy of the population. Changes in the technology of tax administration, including globalization financial innovation may shift from progressive income taxes toward tax system that rely more on broad-based consumption taxes such as value-added tax (VAT) and flatter rate structures for income taxation. Alt's (1983) treatment of the evolution of tax structure stresses the role of administrative costs. He argues that it has become easy to collect taxes from organized business rather than from households. Consideration of evasion, avoidance, and administration is essential to the positive and normative analysis of taxation. It is tax policy in action that determines how much the taxpayer must pay, and the effects of the payment. Knowledge of the statute is only a start in knowing a tax system. The interpretations placed on language by administrators and courts, the simplicity and understandability of tax reforms, and the competence of audit influence the amount of revenue collected and the economic effects of the tax.

Evasion, Avoidance, and Real Substitution Response

The distinguishing characteristic of evasion is illegality. Evasion is concerned with concealing or misrepresenting the nature of transaction, when avoidance takes place the facts of the transaction are admitted but they have been arranged in such a way that the resulting tax treatment differs from that intended by the relevant legislation (Fagbemi, Uadile, & Noah, 2010). At times we will refer to real substitution responses, as those responses which come about because the tax law changes the relative price of different activities, and that induce taxpayers to respond by choosing a different consumption basket. Substitution responses are efforts to reduce one's tax liability without altering one's consumption basket, which we will refer to as avoidance. This definition covers a broad range of behaviors.

One example is to pay a tax professional to alert one to the tax deductibility of activities already undertaken.

Another example is to change a legal form of a given behavior, such as reorganizing a business from A corporation to a B corporation.

A third example is tax arbitrage, when economically equivalent, but differentially taxed.

Literature Review

The concept of the informal economy was first introduced during an empirical study conducted regarding urban labor markets in Ghana (Hart, 1973) by ILO since then it has frequently been used by ILO in other studies and by World Bank reports in studies regarding poverty in developing countries (Sethuraham 1981, Mazumdar 1981). Term of "informal economy" was firstly used as a way of describing dualistic economic structure found in developing countries. There have been used different terms to refer to informal economy. It has been called irregular economy (Ferman, 1973), black economy (Dilnot and Morris, 1981), shadow economy (Frey, Weck and Pommerehne, 1982; Cassel & Cichy, 1986).

At ILC held in 2002, the term of "informal economy" refer to economic activities which are not legal and not recognized from the law, it also refers to revenues collected from unpaid or lucrative work. Schneider's definition of informal economy (2012) : "the shadow economy includes all market-based legal production of goods and services that are hidden from public authorities in order to avoid payment of income taxes (VAT or other taxes), to not pay social security, to avoid dealing with some bureaucratic procedures, such as completing statistical questionnaires or other administrative forms" .

The relation between corruption and shadow economy has been studied by many authors. They see these two elements as either complements or substitutes of each other. Both Johnson and Hidricks see corruption and shadow economy as complements of each other. According to Hidricks this happens in the cases where the tax payer agrees or corrupts the responsible person in of tax authorities to under report tax liabilities.

This relationship differs from countries with high income level and those with a low income level. in high income countries corruption is low. Corruption can be seen in case it is desired to benefit from an activity that makes the work easier, e.g. wining a contract from a public authority, getting a license.

In low income countries, we expect different situation. in these countries companies are almost fully engaged in informal activity. These can be restaurants, bars and even bigger production companies. The public goods provided by the official sector are in many developing countries less efficient as compared to high income countries.

Schneider in 2007 has stated that the informal economy is low in countries where the income level is high, while in countries with a lower income level informal economy is higher due to a larger percentage of corruption. in the first one there exists a substation effect between these two indicators, while in the second case these indicators are complement of each other.

Fiscal evasion was firstly studied by Allingham and Sandmo in 1972 (Allingham & Sandmo, 1972). in their "portfolio" model the individual behaves in a way that takes the highest satisfaction from evading taxes, makes a balance of benefits of this action and the probability of being caught and then punished, and after this confrontation decides to pay the taxes fully or partially because is afraid of being detected. in their study they observed that the factors that affect tax evasion directly or indirectly affect the shadow economy as well, even though there is no congruence between fiscal evasion and shadow economy.

The model of tax evasion by Sandmo, Allingham and Yitzhaki assumes that tax payers decide how much to evade according to their income level, tax rate, probability of detection and penalty rate (Sandmo, 2005). According to an audit of TCMP (Taxpayer Compliance Measurement Program), in USA 1998, was found that the amount of unreported income from workers, working in someone else company, is lower than unreported income from self-employed ones. Another issue that arises from the analysis of fiscal evasion is the level of non-compliance income class. (Fiorio & D'Amuri, 2005)

Tax evasion and trust in the institution are inversely related, the higher the trust in the institution the lower amount of taxes evaded. (Gërxhani, 2004).

In the process of paying taxes free-rider effect can be found. A tax payer will be more willing to pay the taxes1) if it is believed that others will do the same, 2) if it is believed that government will keep its promises. As the trust in government institution and in other citizens' fall, tax evasion increases. The willingness to pay drops to zero or only the amount they believe can be detected and punished is being paid.

An increase in taxes increases the level of underground economy, thus increasing fiscal evasion. The influence of tax growth in informal economy has been emphasized by a number of empirical studies made by Schneider (1994) and Johnson (1998). This strong influence of tax growth in underground economy has been proven with the Austrian and Scandinavian cases. From studies that have been made it is found that when tax rate is increased the willingness to pay the taxes is decreased. (Clotfelter, 1983)

Perception of audit rates is another factor that affects the compliance of taxes, indirectly the level of shadow economy. Individuals appear to underestimate the probability of audits to be conducted. If a taxpayer believes that probability if an audit to happen is high, then the level of evasion will be decreased, due to fear of being caught .When audit rates increase

by 10% the amount of reported income increase by 1% or even 2% (Witte and Woodbury, 1985; Dubin, Graetz, and Wilde, 1990). Fiscal evasion is sometimes ethical (Nasadyuk & McGee, 2007). A study regarding this hypothesis was made in Ukraine by Irina Nasadyuk and Robert W. McGee. They conducted a survey and found that the view that tax evasion is somewhat ethical is prevalent for 17 out of 18 statements. Several psychological studies have concluded that tax evasion is found as ethical depending on the circumstances. According to Robert Pennock tax evasion is seen as ethical in case the country where this evasion takes place is in an unfair war. Empirical studies conducted in Argentina ,Bosnia & Herzegovina, China, Germany, Guatemala, Poland, where the respondents were asked about the ethics of fiscal evasion, reached a common conclusion that tax evasion is justified depending in the circumstances. As study of Mexican migrant workers found that when people are somewhat rewarded for paying taxes, the probability of tax evasion to incur is lower.

Methodology and Data

This thesis is an analysis of fiscal evasion and shadow economy in Albania for 2000-2010. Data for this analysis are taken form Bank of Albania, World Bank, IMF, INSTAT and other national and international organizations.

As the scope of the project is very broad, there have been used different methods to better analyze the problem. One of them is the survey research. This method is important if we want to test the hypothesis stated below.

Hypothesis

Tax growth increases tax evasion.

Tax evasion will be higher when government is perceived to be corrupt.

Tax evasion is sometimes ethical

According to Spector (1981) and Denscombe (2003), by conducting a survey we can collect information from a large number of people and use this information to establish statistical significance. Since the study is about tax evasion population of the study was comprised of tax payers, business owners, sample was randomly selected. It is used the surveys made by different national and international organization, regarding informal economy in Albania.

For the aim of comparison of shadow economy and fiscal evasion in different countries it's used data from statistical institutions and international organization like: IMF (International Monetary Fund), World Bank, EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction & Development).

In order to measure the fiscal evasion, direct and indirect methods were used. These include: Auditing by tax authorities, which yield an estimate of the person real income, thus allowing them to better understand the level of fiscal evasion. An indirect way of measuring fiscal evasion is making a comparison of one's reported income and their expenditures, in budget surveys or in national income accounts. The data for measuring fiscal evasion were taken from other studies made before, but in the case of Albania the data were obtained from INSTAT, IMF etc

Albanian Case

The size of informal economy is a serious problem in Albania. It is seen as one of the main factors which prevent economical and political development of the country, as well as integration of Albania in European Union.

In the beginning of 1990's Albania left Communism system. This system had destroyed country's economy. in this period informal economy grew too much, due to lack of state structures and law. Informal sector helps economy grow in the short run, but is very dangerous in the long run. That is what happened to Albania.

Factors of informal economy in Albania

I am going to analyze the main factors which have affected the growth of informal economy in Albania.

Labor Market

Non-Declaration of Income

Corruption

Taxation System

Cash Economy

Labor Market

 Informal works as a labor market category. The Dual Labor Market Theory (Doeringer & Piore 1971; Sant-Paul 1997) provides one approach to understanding the place of informal work within the labor market. It divides the labor market into four categories: primary, secondary, informal, and illegal. The authors argue that that these categories reflect the class, racial, and gender stratification in our society. The primary sector is regular, where wage jobs are taxed and regulated. The secondary sector is composed of jobs that have less security than primary work and are not well regulated, where I can mention lower wage jobs in the service sector. The Dual Labor Market Theory argues that the informal sector is composed of people who are not able to access primary or secondary work. Informal work includes people who operate their own small business in cash only or unregulated arrangement. The forth category is illegal work and that includes all criminal activity that is revenue generating.

Diagram 1: Labor Market Categories

Primary Sector	Secondary Sector	Informal Sector	Illegal sector
High wage	Low wage	Self-employment	Criminal
High security	Low security	Casual labor	Unregulated
Well regulated	Poorly regulated	Unregulated	

Source: Cross & Johnson, 2000

One problem with this typology is that it assumes discrete categories based on class, race or gender. Other research has found that many people who have easy access to the primary sector make the choice to engage in the informal economy, either as their primary source of income or as a means to generate supplemental income.

 Labor market in Albania has undergone significant changes after 1990's. After 1990 a large group of people migrated to the western countries. Development of private sector goes uniformly with the development of informal economy. The working age population (15 and over) makes up approximately 88% of total population (INSTAT: Albanian Institute of Statistics, 2013).

In 2004 OECD conducted a research in Albania regarding the level of informal economy. They found out from their analysis that informal production in small enterprise sector was dominant over formal production. in the sectors of manufacturing, trade, transportation, construction, retailing and other service sectors the level of the informality is about 40% larger than the formal production. in other sectors such as public administration the scope for informal production is much more limited.

From the analysis made by OECD was measured that over the half (51%) of value-added generated from the above sectors is informal.

Unemployment

 in the end of 2011 unemployment rate was 13.1 %, by the end of 2012 it has reduced to 12.8%. The highest percentage of unemployment is comprised of youth unemployment. According to INSTAT data, 64% of head of families are jobless. This is a critical point, as unemployment means less income per family, becoming a burden for the state. Because of this situation people engage in illegal activities, resulting in an increase of the size of informal economy. When applying for a job, most of organizations do not take their decisions on the basis of meritocracy; instead they use "references" from their friends or relatives. Even after 20 years of transition, unemployment remains one of the main factors of informal economy.

Table1: Unemployment Rate

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012
Nr. of unemployed people	143340	143040	142950	141755
Unemployment rate	13.6	13.8	13.1	12.8

Source: INSTAT

Illegal employment is seen more in the following economic sectors:

Construction Sector

Small and medium size manufacture sector

Service Sector

Transportation

Trade

Private Fishing activity

Non declaration of income

Non-declaration of income is a wide spread phenomenon in Albania. Finding data about this topic is very difficult, as it is an informal activity.

Table2. Level of informal economy

Year	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	1st half 2004
Checked Entities	2421	33616	28988	40850	34117	1669
Number of employees found	9176	104119	101966	117943	115216	16943
Illegal employees found	3372	28060	22384	22564	18236	3798
% of Illegality	36.7%	26.9%	21.9%	19.2%	20.1%	22.4%
% Informal Economy		32.2%	27.5%	28%	18.3%	9.5%

Source: Trade-unions Research Institute Albania (2004)

From the above table we can see that the phenomenon of non-declaration of income is wide spread in Albania. Non-declaration or under-declaration of income is positively related with the level of informal economy.

For example, in the 1st half of 2006 of 1669 checked entities the number of illegal employees was 3798 or 22.4 %.

There exists an under-declaration of wages and salaries in Albania. Companies usually under-declare wage levels, thus under-paying social securities. Employees working in these kinds of organization claim that it is better for them an immediate direct cash payment and neglect the future benefits of paying social securities.

Table3: Number of the registered economic activities and the number of declared employees

from 2000 to the 1st half of 2008.

Year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	1st half 2008
Registered in SLI	20564	26039	32132	40454	30408	30418	32541	33248	30232
Declared employees	74511	92257	81121	75984	79897	82457	85467	86750	43177

Source: INSTAT

From an inspection made on the construction sector over years, illegality is found to be about 20-25%, while informality at about 7-9%. in SM manufacturing sector, it is found to be at a rate of 10%- 15%.

Corruption

Corruption is one of the biggest issues that Albanian government has to deal with. It is seen in different forms, like: giving gifts public officials, abusing with tenders, faulty privatization etc. Corruption is also related with organized crime. Because of corruption Albania's progress development has been hindered.

Table4. Estimates of corruption level in Albania

	% of firms expected to give gifts to public official to "get thing done"	% of firms expected to give gifts in meeting with tax officials	% of firms expected to give gifts to secure government contracts	% of firms expected to give gifts to get an operating license	% of firms expected to give gifts to get an import license
Albania(2007)	57.7	22.4	30.5	10.9	21.8

Source: INSTAT 2007

The need for a better treatment explains why the public officials mostly paid are the doctors. According to different surveys that have been undertaken the 71 % of the citizens that pay bribes pay to the doctors, where 47% to the nurses and 14 % to the police officers. There are some reasons that push the citizens to make payments such as need to speed up a procedure, to receive a better treatment or to avoid a fine. From ten Albanian citizens eight interact at some point during the year with the public administration.

This type of corruption is seen more in rural areas than in suburban ones. Women are those who pay most of the bribes. These bribes are mostly paid on cash. in most of the cases 30% of bribes are paid by citizens themselves, 15% are given as a result of a request made by a third party for the public official. However, Albania has made a significant progress in the controlling of corruption.

Taxation system

Another very important factor affecting informal economy in a country is the taxation system. After 1997 Albania has undergone significant reforms in the taxation system. in Albania women tend to evade taxes less than men do (Gerxhani & Kuiper, 2004). According to the results a survey, in Tirana 80% of the interviewed people do not pay any state taxes,

only a few pay the social security payments in their formal employment. The payment of only one-third of this amount was provided by informal sector activities.

Level of tax evasion compared to a decade ago has been improved. Nowadays, tax evasion levels comprise mainly of non-payment of taxes and duties, but also of unpaid insurance. (Mema & Preci, 2003). There is a tax of only 10 percent on duties from income in my country. Despite this low tax rate there is still a high level of informality in Albania.

A major problem seen in the taxation system is the failure to declare the financial system. Companies manipulate their asset values in balance sheet.

According to a study conducted by ACER (Albanian Center for Economic Research) in 1999 in Albania, which was made to find the level of tax evasion in domestic and foreign companies operating in Albania, found that out of 87 respondents: (ACER: Albanian Center for Economic Research, 1999)

• 75% of companies admitted that tax evasion is a widely used practice.

• 73% of companies admitted that they do not report their real profit level.

Another problem that shows malfunction of taxation system is the failure to collect incomes.

The fault for this malfunction fall both on the tax-payers and tax authorities. Tax-payers have lost the faith on tax authorities, as a result of the briberies paid to them. They consider it unfair for them to pay the taxes, while others by giving some gifts to public officials avoid paying taxes. What is important for well functioning of tax system is a well-qualified staff. An informal sector 30% above of GDP implies negative consequences for collection of tax revenues.

Cash economy

Albania is a cash economy. Credit cards are rarely used in Albania. They are usually accepted at major hotels in Tirana, large shopping centers, and at some international airline offices. Checks also are rarely used, but they can be changed at banks, but only in large cities. The use of cash helps increase the level of informal economy in the country. The mentality of the people has also helped in favoring cash economy. People think that by using cash, their money is safer, than using credit cards when making a transaction. One of the problems that arise from the use of cash in every transaction is money laundering. People prefer to use cash in their transactions because they want to avoid the frustrating long procedures and controls by authorities. This way the origin of the money cannot be proved. Banking infrastructure is another factor that has favored the use of cash. Most of the banks are concentrated in the larger cities.

How to fight fiscal evasion

I believe that there are several ways to combat fiscal evasion in Albania. First of all the quality of audits need to be increased. This can be done through an improvement in tax audit methodologies and existing topics, creating a unique database with the results of inspections made on businesses and individuals. Strengthening of financial control may also help in the reduction in the size of informal economy. We should develop business management tools for a more precise control or a database including taxpayer's taxpaying habits.

Fiscal evasion can be reduced also by the improvement of enforcement procedures.

In order to control tax evasion government should:

Build business- friendly policies

Abolish repressive practices against business and fiscal arbitrariness

Increase cooperation between different state agencies

Increase the capacity and professionalism of customs and tax administration

Dr. Preci argues that in order to improve the control of fiscal evasion in the labor market it is required the education of both employees and employers; strengthening the legal and financial penalties for individuals and companies who manipulate company balance sheets.

Conclusions

This paper has explored a number of issues regarding shadow economy and fiscal evasion. Although in different levels and ways, shadow economy is present in every country. Tax evasion is an important and significant phenomenon that affects both developed and developing economies. Size of the informal economy and fiscal evasion associated with it should be clearly understood, in order to forecast the appropriate policies to deal with these issues. As it is mentioned above size of underground economy changes from country to country, even in developed countries like US or UK it comprises 10 percent of the measured economy. in less developed or developing countries, it goes up to 30-40 percent.

In this paper also is analyzed the relationship between corruption and the shadow economy. It is stated that informal economy and corruption are substitutes in countries with high income level. in countries which a have a low income level, corruption and informal economy are complements of each other.

I have also studied the relationship between tax rate, tax growth and the level of tax evasion. Generally countries with low tax rate, tend to have less fiscal evasion. However, Albania is an exception, since it has a low tax rate, but fiscal evasion is still a major problem. As the tax rate increase, the probability of evading taxes increases, too.

In the study about fiscal evasion I concluded, based on some researches, that fiscal evasion is somewhat ethical. It is seen as ethical in different situations like the case when human rights are abused, etc.

Fiscal evasion and size of informal economy is expected to increase if government is perceived as corrupted. Tax payers lack trust on governmental institution, so they evade taxes or pay only the amount they believe they can be caught.

An important part of the thesis was the relation between the income level and the compliance of taxes. There exists a positive relationship between these two factors. As income falls the under-reported income level also falls.

As a conclusion, I would say that shadow economy and fiscal evasion, cannot be completely eliminated, but all the countries should fight in order to reduce fiscal evasion, thus reducing the size of informal economy.

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Towards Establishing Financial and Budget Indicators for Municipalities: Theoretical Approach

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Abstract

Currently, one of the main problems that municipalities and other stakeholders face is having some objective indicators related to the finances and particularly the budget of municipalities in the Republic of Macedonia. Considering the nature of local government finances of the municipalities and consulting various previous studies carried in similar countries like Macedonia, it is possible to generate some representative financial or budget indicators that could apply to municipalities in the country. These indicators would serve as the basis on which municipalities could be ranked within a year or through various years dependent on the availability of the data aiming at analyzing their relative performance and positioning. This paper aims at consulting the literature about generating these indicators and analyzing their applicability in the case of municipalities in Macedonia. The output of this study is a set of financial or budget indicators related to revenues and expenditures in municipalities of Macedonia. Definitely, this is a pioneering study for the country and the region. It would contribute to the existing research about evaluating the financial relative performance and financial conditions of municipalities not only in Macedonia, but also in the region.

Keywords: Financial Indicators, Budget Indicators, Municipalities,

Introduction

The existing literature review will serve the purpose of identifying the most representative indicators that can measure the performance of local government units. As such, it starts with the definition, characteristics and approaches to indicators and their development into a system of indicators. Furthermore, it offers a framework that can be applied in the context of the financial performance of local government units in Macedonia.

Developing a System of Indicators

Before generating a system of indicators used to assess certain performance it is important to go through some basic definitions and characteristics of the term "indicator". Then, one can easily go through a process of generating a whole system of indicators.

Generally, when developing certain indicators it is very important to consider a multidimensional approach so that these indicators become the most representative in measuring or assessing the situation or problem for which they are designed. This multidimensional approach then, it is adapted to the context of the situation that they are going to measure. This is the guiding principle in moving towards establishing the financial and mainly budget indicators that could be used to measure the relative performance of municipalities (LGUs) in the Republic of Macedonia.

Defining Indicators

Defining the indicators gives the starting of understanding the importance of indicators in assessing a certain context. Their definition is complete if it is offered with indicators' various characteristics. It is important to note that most of the definitions regarding the term indicator come from practitioners reports produced for the purpose of evaluating a program or a project. However, such definition is backed by those given in the scholarly literature.

Indicators may be quantitative or qualitative benchmarks that provide a simple and reliable basis for assessing achievement, change or performance (Church & Rogers, p. 44). Quantitative indicators are expressed with sums or quantities, while quantitative indicators are expressed through people's judgements or perceptions about what is measured. They represent means of analyzing and monitoring the characteristics of operations, services and processes, and their implementation. in addition, they can also be used to measure, monitor, evaluate and improve performance (IOM, 2008, p. 8); (SFCG, p. 6); (MDF, 2005, p. 1). However, in line with 'qualitative/quantitative' debate, indicators can be defined for the so-called qualitative aspect; because there is always a way of measuring quality if it is clearly defined (Martin & Sauvageot,

2011, p. 31). for example, one can measure the quality of spending in an LGU, by specifying its meaning. If it means that expenditures of an LGU are prioritised than spending on X type of expenditure category can be assigned with a certain weight. Ultimately, both types of indicators are very important, especially when they are combined, because qualitative indicators quite often provide more appealing information on how something happens and why it happens (SFCG, p. 7); (Mujeri, p. 3). Another related concept of indicators, considered from a managerial approach though, is given by Victoria (2010) in the form of Key Performance Indicators which are quantitative and qualitative measures used to review an organisation's progress against its goals, extracted in form of targets for achievement by departments and individuals.

An indicator can be a number, an observation or a signal that gives us a reliable and unbiased understanding about an object, a situation, a phenomenon, a happening, a motion, a development process, etc. (UNESCO, 2000). On the other hand, indicators are imperfect and vary in validity and reliability (Church & Rogers, p. 44).

An indicator is not raw data, meaning that a budget report at the end of the year is not a list of indicators that can be used to evaluate the financial status of an LGU. in contrast, indicator (s) represents a synthesis or composition of data in the form of percentages, ratios and indices. in the case of LGU finances it could be the ration of own revenues to the total revenues generated at the end of an ending budgetary year. Additionally, an indicator is different from an objective. It is rather converted from an objective, which is logical because an indicator has to serve a purpose or specifically an objective on which it is attached (Martin & Sauvageot, 2011, p. 35).

An indicator is synonymous with measuring meaning it can be in the form of a value, characteristic used to monitor the performance of a program, service, organization, or access a condition (NPMAC, 2010, p. 45).

An indicator is a factor or variable that provides a simple and reliable means to reflect changes. An indicator enables us to perceive the differences, improvements or developments relating to a desired change (output, objective, and goal). The term indicator is compatible with such terms as performance indicator, performance measure, indicator of success, and indicator of change. (SFCG, p. 4).

Characteristics of Indicators

The various characteristics of indicators would provide insight in understanding the nature and use of indicators themselves. in addition, they can provide a platform of criteria that can be used to assess the validity of a chosen indicator.

An indicator can be applied in various contexts and fields (SFCG, p. 4). Therefore, there can be social indicators, political indicators, economic indicators, development indicators, education indicators, performance indicators, financial indicators, local government indicators, local government financing indicators, budgetary indicators, and so on. Whenever, there is a study measuring performance in the above-mentioned contexts and areas, there is a high likelihood of using their respective indicators.

An indicator is created for a purpose depending for which it is developed. (Martin & Sauvageot, 2011). Indicators are not methodological tools, but they are generated from the general overview of the system that they are supposed to measure. in other words, deciding on which indicators you will use it is quite political before it becomes methodological. in case of analysing the budgets of LGUs one purpose could be to determine the ability of an LGU to generate its own sources. However, such an indicator should have the commitment of the Mayor, due to its sensitive nature in judging the Mayor's success.

Depending on the availability of the data, the indicators can be direct, meaning they describe the subject that is measured (the number of employees in a municipality) or indirect requiring to choose a proxy instead. in the case of local government units, it is difficult to find data collected for each of the specific services of municipalities for all LGUs in Macedonia. Therefore, there is a tremendous need for using proxy. for example, instead of having as an indicator of LGUs service the number of people who do not have water 24 hours per day and knowing that more or less all inhabitants of a municipality more or less share the same level of service in terms of its quality, then the number of inhabitants in the municipality could be taken as a proxy indicator.

SMART Indicators. Related to the common formula used in management related to objectives, goals, targets and even indicators, it is important that our concerned indicators be SMART. More specifically and in the context of their financial nature of LGUs, they should be specific, measurable, attainable, results-oriented and time-framed. Indicators should be specific enough to refer to a particular budgetary item or service provision and its extent, including quality if possible. This can be referred as "validity". Indicators can be measured quantitative or qualitative and data should either exist, or can be collected. in addition, measurability means that indicators should not be ambiguous. Attainable (Achievable/Feasible) indicators are realistically possible to achieve the determined performance target and they can be collected. Results-

oriented (relevant) indicators should reflect the status of performance and yet allow for progress judgement achievement until 100%. in other words, they must provide effective information for programmes objectives. Time-framed (time-bound/time-framed) indicators should reflect sense of time, over which the targets are expected to be met. Collection and reporting of the indictors should be in the right time. The above SMART components fit into the approaches followed by (UNDP, 2002); (MDF, 2005); (UNICEF); (MLE, 2013); (IOM, 2008, p. 17); (AC4SC, 2011, pp. 4-5); (MDF, 2005, p. 5)

SPICED Indicators. Another similar formula for defining indicators is SPICED for Subjective, Participatory, Interpreted, Communicable and Empowering, Cross-checked and Compared, and Disaggregated and Diverse. Subjective indictor means using informants for their unique insight, which becomes critical data because others see it as anecdotal. Participatory indicators are the ones that are developed with the input of those that will assess and use them. Interpreted and Communicable indicators need further explanation to other stakeholders. Cross-checked and Compared indicators allow for comparing different indicators and progress and use various informants, methods, or researchers. Indicators should be Empowering in their nature so that their users reflect critically on their changing context. (AC4SC, 2011, pp. 5-6); (SFCG, p. 10); (MDF, 2005, p. 5)

The difference between SMART and SPICED indicators is that the first describes the properties of the indicators themselves, while SPICED relates more to how indicators should be used (SFCG, p. 4). Additionally, SPICED approach due its highly qualitative and descriptive nature is best used for participatory monitoring and evaluation, while SMART approach is used mainly in measuring due to their quantitative nature. However, for indicators to be mostly representative and valid, they should comply to both of the above formulas. Other studies give a long list on the characteristics of indicators which exhaust these formulas such as Public Record Office of Victoria guideline in establishing KPIs (Victoria, 2010).

To summarize, indicators are inevitable to establish a performance assessment. They are applied in various areas, meaning they are not exhaustive to a particular are. However, they have certain characteristics and various contexts of applications which serve as a guideline to choose a particular indicator over the other.

Various approaches to developing indicators

Depending on the nature of the process, for which one designs a certain number of indicators, one may follow a variety of approaches. It is very important to note all of the approaches have something in common. They reflect the whole process but with a different number of phases. One may have a 5-step approach; another one may have a 10-steps approach, depending on the detailed information and the level up to which there is a representing category of indicators.

Indicators in the project or programme cycle. The function of such indicators would be used along the various phases (identification, formulation, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation) of the project or programme (MDF, 2005, pp. 2-3) and as such it is expected that they would differ. Typically, one would have indicators for identification phase such as indicators for analysing the budget statement items related to the other LGUs. An example could be whether the Head of Commission for Finance within the Municipality Council provides information for budget statement by comparing it with other like municipalities.

Indicators can be used in relation to the baseline (Church & Rogers, p. 45) (efficiency and effectiveness) and to the financial execution (outputs, result and outcomes) (DGFARD, 2006, p. 7). Baseline indicators may be objective related when they are linked with the wider objectives or aims of the programme/project, or they may be context related if they offer information on the particular aspects of the general context on which the programme/project is developed.

Steps in formulating indictors profoundly should answer questions like: What, How Much, Who, Where, and When. (MDF, 2005). What means generating variables of the subject matter during which a minimum standard should be considered. in the context of LGU finances these questions would take the form of: What would be the definition of financial or budgetary performance indicators used to evaluate municipality performance? How much would refer the magnitude of change expected to be achieved. Who refers do defining the target group involved in the assessment. Where - defines further the specific information on the intervention area. When would be related to defining the timeframe of the assessment itself.

A ten-step approach in developing an indicator system by (Martin & Sauvageot, 2011, p. 31) consists of (1) identifying objectives; (2) creating a policy list based on these objectives; (3) developing a list of indicators; (4) listing the data required to calculate the indicators; (5) locating the data sources available; (6) Calculate the indicators; (7) verify the results; (8) analysing the indicators; (9) selecting the final indicators for the system; and, (10) selecting the layout of the indicator system document.

Another approach to developing indicators pertaining more to the financial performance is a multi-step approach that starts (1) convening of an expert panel that would further (2) select the dimensions of the financial performance. Then this would

be combined with (3) the review of the literature on this aspect of performance, followed by (4) selection of the indicators. These (5) indicators later are defined and (6) data are assigned to them. Last steps allow for (7) analysing the data and (8) providing results.

Diagram 1: A Model for Analysing the LGUs Financial Performance

I. Needs Performance Assessment	II. Consult the Literature	III. Specifying the Indicators and the assigned Data	IV. Analyze the Indicators and Findings
• Performance Problem / Need • Performance Objectives • Performance Dimension	• Definitions of Indicators • Types of Indicators • Various Approaches into Developing a System of	• Specify the nature and list of Indicators • Assign the data	• Specify the list of Indicators • Assign the data

Source: Own work

Financial Indicators for LGUs

This section will elaborate further in the steps of the generated model (see Diagram 1) of developing a system of indicators for measuring the financial (mainly budgetary) performance of LGUs in Macedonia. Therefore it will give the particularities or the context of the need to develop indicators in the first place. Then it will follow with the additional part of literature review of defining indicators, showing their main characteristics and some approaches to their development, which started in the first section of this paper. This extended literature will provide the foundation out of which the financial indicators may be extracted. The final part of the paper shows the list of the specific indicators that later on (in another paper) will be assigned with their related data and provide an assessment of LGUs financial performance.

The Context of financial indicators

The context of financial indicators is determined by the nature of the performance assessment in the first place. Therefore, one cannot generate a list of indicators unless the context of their application is specified. in this case, it is of a paramount importance to identify the principle based on which the budget performance is evaluated. By referring to the recommended budget practices outlined by GFOA (USA) there are four principles which serves as a framework for improving budgeting at both, central and local government level (GFOA, 2000):

Principle I – Establish Broad Goals To Guide Government Decision Making

Principle II – Develop Approaches to Achieve Goals

Principle III – Develop a Budget with Approaches to Achieve Goals

Principle IV – Evaluate Performance and Make Adjustments

The fourth principle stresses the need for program and financial performance that should be continually evaluated, and the need for adjustments to encourage progress toward achieving goals. (GFOA, 2000). The general practices that come out of this element of the fourth principle include monitoring, measuring and evaluating performance, budgetary performance, financial condition, external factors and capital program implementation.

Furthermore, the budgetary performance assessment can be either for the central government or local government budgets. in this case the interest is on the LGUs financial performance. Therefore the indicators have to be extracted mainly by the financial statements (mainly budget) of LGUs in Macedonia. The list of indicators will represent all of the LGUs because all of them has the same preparation of the budget and same reporting methods.

Classification of performance indicators

In general, there are two groups of performance indicators: financial and non-financial indicators (Wilson, 1999) pg 50). The first category of indicators measures the costs of offering the services, while the second category measures the quality of delivering public services. The first group can measure: total costs per LGU employee, total costs per a Council Member, total costs per a pupil, etc. The second group can measure: percentage of people legalizing their property, percentage change of pupil yearly average grade, percentage change of people complaining about cutting water supply, etc.

According to (Wilson, 1999, p. 171); (Liu, Chen, Mingers, & Q Li, 2009); (Jackson, 2012) and other public finance and management books, 'Value for money' (VFM) is achieved when one organization has reached its maximum value within a given structure of resources, or, if it has succeeded in the 'three 3 Es' – Economy, efficiency and effectiveness. Economy refers to rational use of resources in terms of saving expenses, time or efforts. Efficiency implies reaching the same level of output or services for less input - expenses, time or efforts. in other words, it means 'doing things in the right way'. Effectiveness refers to delivering better level of output or services for the same level of input - expenses, time or efforts. in other words it means 'doing the right things'. Currently, the forth E – equity – should be taken in account, as well. Equity refers to fairness and justice of processes and outcomes for all.

(Jorge, Camoes, Carvalho, & Fernandes, 2006) summarise public sector management indicators, according to their criteria of classification (see Table 1) in relation to nature, the object to be measured, the information needed and according to their scope, which overlap with the previous classification of the indicators, above. Related to the VFM indicators, Jorge, et. al (2006) adds the fourth and fifth Es – Equity and Excellence, with the last referring to fairness and justice of processes and outcomes for all.Table 1 Classification of Public Sector Management Indicators

Table 1 – Classification of Public Sector Management Indicators	
Classification Criteria	**Categories**
According to their nature	Economy
	Effectiveness
	Efficiency
	Equity
	Excellence
According to the object to be measured	Result
	Process
	Structure
	Strategy
According to the information offered	Budgetary
	Accounting (Financial Statements)
	Organisational
	Social
	Envelopment and Impact
According to their scope	Internal
	External

Source: (Jorge, Camoes, Carvalho, & Fernandes, 2006)

Diagram 2: Modelling local sector production process
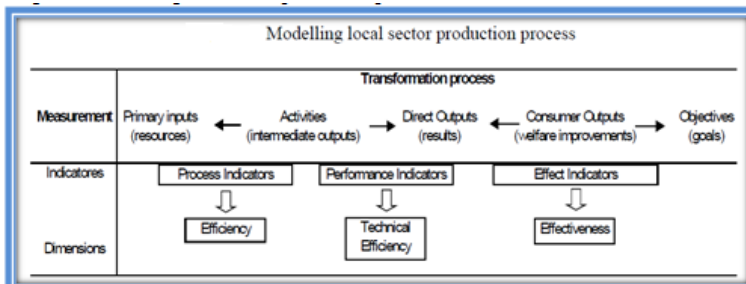
Source: (Afonso & Fernandes, Efficiency of Local Government Spending: Evidence from Lisbon Region, 2003)

Author (s)	Country	Input Indicators	Output Indicators
Worthington (2000)	Australia	Number of full-time equivalent employees, other physical expenses, financial	Population, properties receiving domestic waste management services, sewerage services and water services, length of urban and rural roads
De Borger and Kerstens (1996a)	Belgium	Total expenditures	Number of beneficiaries of minimal subsistence grants and students enlisted in local primary schools, surface of public recreation facilities,
Geys and Moesen (2009)	Flemish LGs	Total Current expenditures	Number of subsistence grants and students in local primary schools, surface of public recreational facilities,
Vanden Eeckaut et al. (1993)	Flemish LGs	Total expenditures	Length of municipal roads, Number of subsistence grants and students in local primary schools, total population,
Sampaio de Sousa and Ramos (1999)	Brazil	Current spending	Total resident population, domiciles with access to safe water, domiciles served by garbage collection, illiterate population, enrolment in primary and secondary
Sampaio de Sousa and Stosic (2005)	Brazil	Current spending, number of teachers, rate on infant mortality	Total and literate population, enrolment per school, student attendance per school, students who get promoted to the next grade per school
Loikkanen and Susiluoto (2005)	Finland	Sum of the net operating costs of providing health and social services, culture and education (evaluated at 1995 prices)	Children's day care centers, children's family day care, open basic health care
Athanassopoulus and Triantis (1998)	Greece	Operating costs (expenditures on services, salaries, maintenance and material)	Actual households, average house area, heavy industrial use area
Tanaka (2006)	Korea	Sum of labour, capital and non-personnel costs	social assistance spending per household, children per nursery school, teacher-student ratio
Afonso & Fernandes (2006)	Portugal	Total per-capita expenditures	Calculation of a single municipal performance indicator from several municipal services
Afonso and Fernandes (2008)	Portugal	Total per-capita expenditures	Calculation of a single municipal performance indicator from several municipal services
Balaguer-Coll and Prior (2009)	Spain	Total expenditures	Number of lighting points, population, waste collected
Benito et al. (2010)	Spain	Costs of personnel, current consumptions, current transfers	Different output indicators for the following areas of public good provision: police, culture, sports, green areas, refuse collection and water supply
Jorge et al 2006	Portugal	Total Expenditure; Personnel expenditure, Expenditure of goods and services, capital expenditures	Local inhabitants with 15 or less years old. Local inhabitants with 65 or more years old. Number of basic or elementary schools
Monkam 2011	South Africa	Total operating or current expenditure	the number of consumer units receiving water, the number of consumer units receiving sewerage and sanitation,
Van der Westhizen and Dollery 2008	South Africa	the value of staff costs and total operational income	the total number of households receiving water, sanitation, electricity and refuse removal

Related to the Value for money and 3-5Es concept of evaluation framework, Afonso, et. Al (2003) offers a model or matrix of local production process conceptualising the whole process according to process, performance, and effect indicators.

Another approach to identifying the nature of indicators along the process itself, it is by categorizing the indicators as either input or output indicators. Input indicators usually represent the resources used in order to generate a certain level of output. in the case of LGUs, they can be in the form of various levels of expenditure for a category or a specific municipal service (personnel expenditure, expenditure of goods & services, capital expenditure), while output can be any indicator that reflects the level of any service offered by LGUs (number of people receiving water and sanitation, the number of students enrolled in primary education, etc). There are plenty of studies that show various input or output indicators in their particular municipal contest and availability of data (Jorge, Camoes, Carvalho, & Fernandes, 2006); (Maria T. Balaguer-Coll D. P.-J.-B., 2002); (Karbowniki & Kula).

Referring to the above, the context of our assessment requires a list of indicators that refer to the efficient use of the municipal resources, meaning their relationship input-output. in a number of studies related to the performance assessment of LGUs or municipalities there is a great list of indicators that could be applied (see Table 1). However, their usage is directly dependent on the availability of the data.

Table 1: List of Input and Output Indicators used in Efficiency Performance of LGUs

Source: Combination from various studies especially (Kalb, Geys, & Heinemann, 2010, p. 8)

The list of financial indicators for LGUs

From the literature and the context of performance in the case of LGUs performance in Macedonia the following indicators can be used in order to judge and rank municipalities financial performance.

Diagram 3 A List of Financial Indicators for LGUs in Macedonia

LGU Indicators		
5 Synthetic/composed indicators: Tax revenues to Total revenues; Non-Tax revenues to Total revenues; Capital Income to Total revenues; Transfers and Donations to Total revenues; Total Grants to Total Revenues	**5 Analytical indicators of revenues:** Total Revenues per capita; Tax Revenue per capita; Non-tax revenue per capita; Capital income per capita; Transfers and donations per capita	**10 Analytical indicators of expenditures –** Total Expenditures per capita; Total Wages and Salaries and contributions per capita; Total Goods and services per capita; Total Capital Expenditures per capita; Total Reserves and Other Expenditures per capita; Total Social Benefits per capita; Total Wages and Salaries and contributions per employee; Total Goods and services per employee; Total Wages and Salaries and contributions of the mayor; Total Expenditures per Municipal Council Member

Conclusion

This paper attempts to show a more detailed approach towards establishing a system of indicators (financial) indicators that can be used to evaluate the (financial) performance of local government units in the Republic of Macedonia. Most of the studies focused on evaluating performance do not give an extended foundation on which the system of indicator is generated. Therefore, this study contributed in this aspect. However, it is important to note that the first part of the literature review is based mainly in the reports and analysis of indicators proving a framework for performance assessment, while

the second part is focused on various studies carried by scholars and writers of the field of financial performance analysis, mainly those evaluating the efficiency performance of municipalities across the world.

This paper should raise further research to those that are interested in using indicators for evaluating certain performance, and additionally, it should serve as a pushing factor to all local government stakeholders, especially government officials for the need of collecting data and provide them to the public regarding their financial performance.

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Overview of the Romanian Rural Development Policy: 2007-2013

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Abstract

Since 2007, Romania was given the chance to develop a system for implementing development projects by attracting substantial external funding. in the period 2007-2013 the financial intervention in the rural areas, as part of the European Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), was a very consistent one (more than 10 billion euro). National Program for Rural Development 2007-2013 (NRDP) represents the strategy which presents the main characteristics of the financial support addressed to rural areas. The paper has two objectives: to explore the main problems NPRD 2007-2013 occurred and to discuss about its matching to the socio-economic reality of Romania. It consists in a desk-research, using secondary analysis on statistical reports and official documents as the methodological background. The data sources used are: Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Interim report of National Rural Development Programme; Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development – General Directorate for Rural Development, The situation of the NPRD projects, recorded in monitoring tables; The National Rural Development Programme 2007-2013 (consolidated version, December, 2013). Main results show important differences among NRDP interventions (measures). Some of them are in a good situation, but, in the same time, parts of them are delayed, facing huge difficulties from various reasons. On the other hand, our findings show that there is not a perfect match between the financial support programs and the Romanian rural reality. for the next period, in order to maximize the impact of the public intervention, Romanian authorities have to reconsider some key aspects of the programs, according more importance to the local characteristics of the rural areas.

Keywords: rural development, Common Agricultural Policy, National Rural Development Programme

Introduction

After 1990 Romanian society has been radically modified. The socio-economical situation of the rural areas has been changed as part of the reformist processes. Thus, a new reality emerged, based on a new configuration of the social and economical relations. The state farms collapsed in a short period of time, the employment decreased rapidly and traditional agriculture became the dominant economic area. in this way, the rural areas confronted with poverty, both on personal and community levels, low employment and a lot of social problems which have emerged from the new economic characteristics of the villages.

In the '90s the main concern of the Romanian authorities, regarding the rural areas, was to assure the legal framework for the property reform. The process of land privatization has generated in Romania two major structural problems: too many small farms and too many old farmers (NRDP, 2013). As a result of the land privatization process and economical struggles of the '90s, almost half of the Romanian farms were subsistence holdings. in fact, these holdings were playing a very active role in the economic subsistence of the poorest categories of the rural population. The sector of the productive agriculture was confronting with deficient agricultural technology, poor access to the markets and high dependency for the climate events (NRDP, 2013).

Excluding the process of land privatization, no other significant policies were adopted in Romania in the '90s. No other fields of public intervention were considered a priority for the policy makers. The result of the lack of preoccupation for the real problems of the rural areas was a continuous degradation of the living conditions in villages and a permanent increase of the connections between rural population and the traditional agriculture practices. At the end of the '90s, when Romanian economy stared to recover, the situation of the rural economical life improved slightly. in the next years, the number of the rural population which was employed in the agricultural sector slightly decreased and the general conditions of the rural life become more favorable. However, in this period, the Romanian authorities did not have a clear strategy for what means rural development and what priorities Romania must have. There were not been promoted any efficient development policies or any strategic directions for this kind of programs. Thus, for the period of the first 17 years from 1990 we can assume that the Romanian hand not a rural development policy.

This situation was changed after the year 2007 when Romania became an EU member. At this moment, as a result of the EU regulations, Romania adopted National Rural Development Programme (NRDP). It had two main objectives: to support the agricultural sector through direct payments and to contribute to the development of the rural areas. This strategy represents the first consistent policy for the rural areas which was adopted in Romania after 1990. in terms of priorities for the rural areas, NRDP emphasizes the importance of supporting the agricultural sector and developing of the non-agricultural economic sector. in the same time, a top priority of the strategy was to increase of the quality of the life in the rural areas, focusing on investments in basic utilities and services for the rural population.

NRDP intervention was structured in four axes:

Axis 1 ("Increasing the competitiveness of the agri-food and forestry sector") aims to transform semi-subsistence Romanian farms into family holdings. A second objective is to transfer the agricultural holdings from older farmers to a new category of farmers, represented by the young persons from the rural areas. Other objectives of the axis 1 were to improve the labour force structure, to improve the management of the farms and to encourage land consolidation processes.

The second axis called "The improvement of the environment and of the rural areas" moves the accent of the public intervention from the farms and people to the environment and the quality of the natural areas. The strategy considers that a sustainable economic development model can be reached only with the preservation of the environment and with an efficient management of the natural resources. The objective of this axis is to avoid environmental problems in the process of modernization of the agriculture. The disadvantaged areas are granted with a continuous concern for biodiversity, water and soil quality, environmental preservation.

Axis 3 ("Improving the quality o life in rural areas and the diversification of the rural economy") is putting the social dimension of the rural life firs. According with this perspective the main targets of the public intervention were: to increase the access to education, to increase the institutional capacity and the ability of promoting community development initiatives, to invest in health facilities in order to grant a better quality of the medical services and to develop the rural infrastructure (roads, public utilities and facilities).

Axis 4 LEADER "The launching of the local development initiatives" plans to transfer the initiatives of local development to the local actors. The first step in this action was to create and implement integrated strategies for the sustainable development of the rural areas. Local actions groups (LAGs) are the central element in this program, being responsible for the implementation of the local development plans.

Method

This paper uses secondary analysis in exploring Romania's rural development policy in the period 2007-2013. The main objective of the research is to explore the framework of the National Rural Development Programme, focusing on the rural development initiatives. Secondary analysis is the practice of research based on analyzing data sets that have already gathered from a primary source. The specific of the secondary analysis consists in using these data for a new research, with different objectives, based on a new methodological perspective.

The data I use for this paper are the ones reported by the Payment Agency for Rural Development and Fishery (PARDF). The most important objective of the Agency is to implement the financial scheme of the European Fund for Rural Development and Agriculture (EFRDA). I line with this objective, PARDF provides the statistical data regarding the implementation of the Common Agricultural Policy in Romani and offers full access to a vast category of information.

Results

From the analysis of the date we can conclude that National Rural Development Programme offers a great opportunity for rural transformation in Romania, being the only efficient instrument of intervention in the rural areas. The financial support which is in the middle of the NRDP represents a very important tool for promoting the rural development initiatives. Although Romania has not succeeded to absorb properly the entire amount of money in the first years, after 2012 the absorption degree has significantly increased. This aspects show that Romania has a good chance to use the biggest

part of 10 billion euro by the end of 2015, when the National Rural Development Programme 2007-2013 ends.

Until March 2013 almost 50 percent of the total amount of money was distributed to the beneficiaries. The biggest problem for the beneficiaries was the bureaucracy and the standardization. Accessing the financial support involves many

procedures, being a very complex process form most o f the Romanian farmers or entities. in these conditions, many of the possible beneficiaries were not able to develop a viable project. Another issue which had a negatively influence was the lack of expertise of the public structures which were involved in the project evaluation and control. This issue was obvious especially in the period 2007-2010 when the new created institution started the specific activities. in time, this aspect seems to be solved or it is radically improved.

A structural problem which is persisting from the beginning of the NRDP implementation is the impossibility for the beneficiaries to co-finance the projects. This barrier is mainly a problem of the banking system. It is very difficult for a farmer or an entrepreneur to access a credit for financing a project in the rural areas according to the actual banking procedures. The majority of the banks are reticent in supporting this type of investments because they are not protected in case of failure.

 Every of the NRDP axes are directing the financial support to the beneficiaries through some specific instruments, called "measure". in the table below it is presented the situation of those measures as it is reported for the moment of March 2013. The higher absorption degrees were reported for M 322 ("Village renewal and development"), M121 ("Modernization of agricultural holdings"), M 125 ("Improving and developing infrastructure related to development of agriculture and forestry") and M 141 ("Supporting semi-subsistence agricultural farms"). These financial instruments were dedicated to local authorities and to small farmers. These two categories were the most active because the NRDP was the single efficient form of public support dedicated to them. On the other hand, the statistics below show that there were some significant problems with two other different categories of measures. First, there was some delay in implementing the programs for professional training and setting up the producer groups. Secondary, the measures which are consisting the axis 4 (LEADER) have started only recently, more late than it was initially decided.

Table 1. Situation of NRDP projects (03.2013)

Measure	Public contribution (mil. euro)	Applications	Selected Projects	Value (mil. Euro)
111 "Professional training, information and dissemination of knowledge"	119		12	16
112 "Setting up young farmers"	337	22494	9522	211
121 "Modernization of agricultural holdings"	913	7851	1995	756
123 "Adding value to agricultural and forestry products"	999	1762	572	534
125 "Improving and developing infrastructure related to development of agriculture and forestry"	483	1701	462	511
141 "Supporting semi-subsistence agricultural farms"	476	88846	46872	352
142 "Setting up producer groups"	138	60	42	7
143 "Supplying counselling and consultancy for agriculturists"	158		7	12
211 "Support for disadvantaged mountain areas"	607			513
212 "Support for disadvantaged areas, other than mountain areas"	493			275
214 "Agri-environment"	996			956
312 "Support for the creation and development of micro enterprises"	358	9499	2838	205

313 "Encouragement of tourism activities"	543	3703	955	154
322 "Village renewal and development"	1570	3225	789	1710
431 "The functioning of Local Action Groups, developing skills and animating the territory"	235	606	229	6
431.1 "Building public-private partnerships"		112	109	6
431.2 "The functioning of Local Action Groups (GAL), developing skills and animating the territory"			139	60
511 "Technical assistance"	376			6
611 "Direct complementary payments"	625			
TOTAL	10.097	140.808	56.127	4.810

Source: Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development, Payment Agency for Rural Development and Fishery

Discussion

According to its potential, rural areas must play a central role for the Romania economy. The dimension of the rural population shows that rural areas presents an important human capital (more than 45 per cent of the total population is living in rural areas - National Statistical Institute, 2012). Although the vast majority of the rural areas are underdeveloped, the last years have brought slightly improvement for the rural areas and for the rural population. The recent implementation of the National Program for Rural Development represented the most important factor for the progress of the rural areas. This program, consisting in direct payments and investments in rural development, has generated forms of social change and created some new economic relations, being the seed which can radically change the Romanian villages at a medium horizon of time.

Major opportunities for the rural areas arise from continuing the process of rural reorganization. The agricultural sector must be sustained for a deeper reformation of the economic relations. in the next years, the priority of the public intervention has to be focus on sustaining the associative forms of the small landowners. The biggest problem of the Romanian agriculture is the persistence of the land fragmentation, which negatively interferes with the productivity of this sector. in this context, Romania has to support the process of land consolidation, according with the landmarks of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). The National Program for Rural Development 2007-2013 has created the institutional context for this process. It is important that the next period to consolidate this initiative through the system of the direct payments.

Rural development, financed by the second pillar of the CAP, must continue after the year 2014. The progresses in this direction are important, but it is necessary to be sustained through new investments. Romania still has to do steps forward for a better quality of life in the rural areas. in the period 2007-2013 more than 800 communities obtained financial support for increase the level of the rural infrastructure. in the same time, National Program for Rural Development supported many other entrepreneurial projects in the rural areas.

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The sustainability of social enterprises1

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Abstract

During recent years we have witnessed a growing interest in Romania for social economy, as a result of the increasing interest of EU towards the field and the financing lines as SOP HRD 2007-2013, and as well for developing a legal framework on social economy. In Romania, many of the social economy organizations are dependent on these sources of funding, which is a major obstacle to long term sustainability of the sector. In this context, the paper aims to analyse the strategies of social enterprises established under the Priority Axis 6 of SOP HRD to ensure sustainability, on the assumption that once the funding ends they face significant risks and adopt different strategies in order to develop. The sustainability of social enterprises will be explored from three perspectives: (1) financial, seeking to identify the strategies of social enterprises to attract new funding, (2) in terms of consistency of the social enterprise with its initial objectives and principles and (3) from the point of view of the social enterprises' impact on vulnerable groups and the community. The analysis will be based on data from sociological researches on social economy entities in Romania, carried out between 2009 and 2014.

Keywords: Sustainability, Social economy, Social enterprise

Introduction

The interest for social economy has increased over the past few years, both in terms of research and public policy initiatives. The concept of social economy is subject of a growing number of recent publications and is increasingly present in public debates. In Western Europe the support for the social economy comes mainly from government and the European Union. EU is a major player in research on the social economy and it was the factor that boosted the interest for the field in Romania through funding. The social economy has enjoyed high visibility within the Sectoral Operational Programme Human Resources Development 2007-2013, in particular through Priority Axis 6, Major intervention areas 6.1., "Developing social economy", and 6.2. "Improving the access and participation of vulnerable groups on the labour market". In terms of submitted projects under the priority axes of SOPHRD, the priority axis 6 "Promoting the social inclusion" has met the highest level of interest from beneficiaries, with 2619 projects submitted until December 31, 2012 (25.23% of total), followed by the priority axis 5 "Promoting active employment measures", with 2373 projects, representing 22.86% of the total. During 2012 applications were launched only under priority axis 6 and were submitted 149 projects (RAI, 2012).

Many of the social economy organizations are dependent of external funding sources, such as SOP HRD, and this is a major obstacle to long term sustainability of the enterprises and even for the development of the sector. According to a study conducted in 2013 by Cult Market Research, and ordered by Petrom, the most important problems faced by NGOs in Romania include the lack of funds (74%), the lack of interest from state institutions (36%) and delayed European funding (34%). The same study shows that social entrepreneurship is the main solution identified by the surveyed organizations (88%) for development and self- support.

The researches dedicated to social economy gained momentum in recent years and focused on issues such as awareness of the concept (studies from early phases of EU funding), the characteristics of social economy organizations and their history, the challenges they face, the directions of development or legislative issues. Within SOP HRD projects 11 social economy structures were established in 2009, 73 in 2010, 144 in 2011 and 261 in 2012 (RAI 2012). According to the Annual Implementation Report (RAI) 2012, the number of established social economy structures and the number of jobs they've created are success indicators of the program. Thus, it is said that in 2012 were recorded "significant achievements" for these input indicators: the number of established social economy structures increased about 1.81 times

and the number of jobs created by these structures increased approximately 17.09 times, the latter exceeding the envisaged target for 2012.

Without denying the relevance of these indicators and their rises, the project aims to highlight the value of a different approach, focused on the development of these newly created structures and on how these achievements, numerically quantified in the evaluation reports, can be found at community level in the changes experienced by target groups and other community members and in the strategies the social enterprises adopt in order to achieve their social purpose.

Social enterprises have developed in response to growing social problems, such as unemployment or inefficient public policies since the late 70's, when they were not yet known under this name. NESsT defines social enterprises as "businesses created to promote a social purpose in a financially sustainable manner" (Varga, 2012). Most discourses on sustainability are focused on financial aspects and define a social enterprise as sustainable when it is no longer dependent on grant funding. But sustainability is not confined only to the financial dimension, especially for social enterprises for which the social impact is essential.

The importance of sustainability was highlighted by Jutta Steinruck, member of European Parliament (MEP) and rapporteur of the EU on the Employment and Social Innovation Program in a debate held in February 2014. Steinruck emphasized that evaluations should not be exclusively based on quantitative criteria: for example, in the employment field it is not important only the number of jobs created, but also the durability and the quality of those jobs (Social Platform, 2014).

With regard to ESF funding, Varga (2012) identified a number of negative consequences thereof: increasing reliance on funding, the availability only for large and powerful organizations, the predominance of short- term thinking, the focus on administrative goals rather than on generating social impact, as well as long-term negative effects on strengthening the social economy sector due to inappropriate selection of applicants. The recommendations made by NESsT to EU policies in this area include the direct support for social enterprises, instead of subsidizing the program costs and beneficiaries, and long term incentives in order to develop sustainable social enterprises.

Within the SOP HRD, the evaluation of project applications is performed in two steps: checking the eligibility of the applicant and the eligibility of the project. Regarding the project, the technical evaluation is based on four main criteria: relevance – to which is given a maximum of 30 points out of 100, methodology (maximum 25 points), sustainability (maximum 15 points) and cost-effectiveness (maximum 30 points). Within the applicant's guide, the sustainability is defined as "the clear presentation of how to continue the project or its effects after the end of funding; the presentation of current or future measures to ensure that the progress and benefits for target groups will be guaranteed in the future" (POSDRU, 2013). The sub-criteria related to sustainability are: transferability, integrated approach, financial sustainability and institutional sustainability. The transferability refers to how the activities and results of the project can be transferred to other target groups and other sectors. The integrated approach refers to ways of incorporating the results and experience gained in the project within the organization's strategies or those of partners or other local, regional or national strategies or policies. The financial sustainability focuses on the sources of funding necessary for continuing the project or its results after the grant ends and the institutional sustainability describes the operating modes of the structures created by the project upon the completion of funding.

The authors of MFE report 2013 have identified a number of projects for vulnerable groups that have potential to be called best practices regarding mainstreaming equal opportunities principle. For the selection of the best practices the authors have used the following set of criteria: innovativeness, external and internal consistency, efficiency, effectiveness, involvement in partnerships, transferability and sustainability. The latter was defined, according to the applicant's guide, as "the detailed analysis of how the results will be sustained after the grant" (MFE, 2013: 225). The main ways of ensuring sustainability of the identified projects were the allocation of resources to continue the activity from public authorities (local or county level councils) or private companies and partnerships with various organizations. Given the risks associated with the dependence on grants and the definition of the economic sustainability, we can state that the allocation of resources by local authorities is not an effective strategy for long-term sustainability of the organization, due to high instability.

This paper is part of a larger research project that aims to analyse the sustainability of social enterprises established under SOP HRD based on the assumption that with the end of funding they will face significant risks and will adopt different strategies for development. One of the main objectives of the project is to identify the strategies that social enterprises apply to ensure business continuity and to generate social impact. The sustainability of the social enterprises will be analysed from three perspectives: (1) financial, seeking to identify the strategies of the social enterprises to attract new funding; (2) in terms of consistency of the social enterprise with its initial objectives and principles and (3) from the point of view of the impact that social enterprises have on vulnerable groups and the community. This paper presents an early

stage of the above mentioned project and it focuses on analyzing the perceptions of the social economy organization representatives on sustainability and future of the domain. The paper aims to point out the importance of the social enterprises' sustainability in terms of efficiency in funding allocation and in the context of the scarcity of nationwide analysis on the topic.

Preliminary analysis

To achieve the research objectives of the project and to provide a thorough analysis of the topic a mix of qualitative and quantitative methods will be used. This paper however presents the first phases of the project, namely the literature review and secondary data analysis. The analysis was carried out on databases from researches on the supply of social economy conducted between 2010 and 2013 at regional or national level. The first research was carried out by the Research Institute for Quality of Life in 2010-2011 within the project "Integrat – Resources for socially excluded Women and Roma groups"[1] that had a major research component dedicated to the supply of social economy. Within this research a questionnaire was applied to representatives of NGOs, cooperatives and mutual associations from two development regions of Romania: Bucharest-Ilfov and South East. The questionnaires were differentiated by organization type but had a similar structure with items on the activities carried out by the organization, budget, sources of funding, human resources etc.

The second research was carried out in 2013 within the project "Inclusive–Active–Efficient"[2] which also had a component focused on the social economy organizations. Within this research one questionnaire was applied to all organizations, regardless of their specific and it aimed at identifying the perceptions on social economy and having at the same time an important section dedicated to the description of the organizations and its activities. The paper also presents qualitative data, collected within this research through interviews and focus-groups with representatives of social economy organizations and experts in social economy field.

Based on the secondary analysis of data, we've identified the perceptions of the representatives of the social economy organizations about the sustainability and future of the field. Secondly, it was examined the financial sustainability component through an analysis regarding the organization's budget. Data analysis shows that non-reimbursable funding and other sources of funding (sponsorship, subsidies from public authorities, other funders etc.) play an important role in the budget of an NGO: in 2010 in Bucharest-Ilfov region, economic activities of the NGO represented 31% of its budget compared to 19% in South East, resources from other funders 36% versus 16%, and sponsorship 60% versus 54%. The grants constituted a larger percentage of the budget of an NGO in Bucharest-Ilfov region than in the South East (42% compared to 18%), the organizations in the first region having a higher capacity to access funding. Accordingly, the NGOs from South East region relied more on subsidies from the authorities than those in Bucharest-Ilfov (30% compared to 24% in Bucharest-Ilfov). Data from the same research shows that the NGOs were supported to a greater extent by the public authorities or international institutions against mutual associations and cooperatives. The most frequent forms of support were non-reimbursable funding, grants, free consulting and reductions or exemptions from taxes (Integrat). Other analysis also shows that the NGOs are the most active organizations in accessing funding opportunities: from 113 social economy projects financed by SOP HRD in the first three years of funding, 67 had NGOs as beneficiaries, 40 public institutions, one trade union and five companies (Lambru& Petrescu, 2012).

The NGO representatives interviewed within "Inclusive-Active-Efficient" research have placed the diversification of funding among the most important issues for the activity of social economy organizations (48.9%), but after creating jobs (62.2%), meeting the needs of the beneficiaries (56.9%), and involving the community (53.7%). The perceptions of the respondents from the same research project regarding the sustainability of social enterprises are rather pessimistic. The respondents have identified a series of negative effects of non-reimbursable funding, mainly from their direct experience, including the lack of overall vision on the development of social economy. According to the respondents, the work on projects and the focus on indicators are important obstacles to sustainability, as demonstrated by the limited results achieved with large amounts of money. One NGO representative stated that once "the project ends, the social economy ends as well because it's not sustainable" and another one pointed out that "so much money is being wasted with no result". The problem is not entirely related with the specific of project based activity, but also with the fact that once the project ends the activities cannot be continued, often because of the lack of resources: "When you invest in something you can

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[1] http://www.integrat.org.ro/Integrat-english_language/
[2] http://inclusivactiv.ro/en/

see the changes and at some point there are no funding lines or there is no room or the state considers that is not important anymore…that's how it gets destroyed the work of years in a moment" (NGO representative).

Discussion

As previously stated, the sustainability of the social enterprises is not confined only to the financial dimension since the social impact plays a crucial role. For a social enterprise, the two components, the financial and the social one, are interconnected. The financial sustainability is understood as identifying and attracting various sources of funding and it is the factor that allows the generation of adequate resources in order to meet the development needs of the organization and the investment in its social goals. On the other hand, fulfilling a social goal is not sufficient to long-term sustainability of the organization, so we can talk about a vicious circle in which the organization's capacity to attract funding is linked to its potential for self-support and development.

Several studies, including our preliminary analysis, have shown that the NGOs are the most active organizations in accessing funding opportunities, which allows them to achieve the social goals and develop in a sustainable manner. But the NGOs activity takes place mainly in urban areas, rather rich, so we can assume that a consistent volume of funding goes to such communities, and not to those in need, who have the lowest capacity to access funding and implement local development projects or to promote the social economy. Thus, the allocation of funds rather deepens development gaps, instead of reducing them. In this context and given the fact that the financial factor is not the only determinant but plays a major role, the sustainability of the social enterprises becomes a sensitive issue.

Taking into account that labour integration of vulnerable groups is the most commonly stated aim of the social enterprises and one of the most important aspects of a social enterprise according to the respondents, elements regarding creating jobs in the community will be pursued in the following phase of the research, along with an analysis of the dynamic of these jobs since the establishment of the organization in order to determine their quality and durability. Another aspect that the future phases of the project will take into account is the analysis of how the studied enterprises comply over time the defining principles of a social enterprise (entrepreneurial dimension, social purpose, limited distribution of profit, the involvement of stakeholders at community level etc.). In this approach we start from the premises that, after the end of funding, some social enterprises will resort to compromises or turn into businesses in an attempt to generate revenue and survive.

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The Content of Peer Helping Program

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Abstract

   With the study, which is a collection of the overall literature, the aim is to explain the concept of peer helping and its content. It is also our aim to enlighten people who are interested in the topic about where and how peer helping programs might be used. Peer helping concept consists of the idea that peers advise each other spontenaously and while doing this, active listening, problem solving skills, mental health and human development knowledge are naturally used. Peer helping is a system of counseling in which peers who are at the same age and status might help each other (Birol, 2005). The study aims to provide sufficient knowledge for the ones who are in the arena about what and how to establish a qualified peer helping program and of its principles. Additionally, how to choose peer helpers and the methods are partly discussed. It is known that the election of peer helpers has various applications. One way is applying for it voluntarily (Baginsky, 2004), second is being a nominee by others (Cartwright 2005), third is choosing a selective course (Myrick ve Folk:1991), fourth is interviews (Birol;2005) or applying some tests. The interview method has its own standards and also in the study the characteristics of peer helpers are examined as they have to be qualified and able to conduct the counseling sessions in an appropriate way. The study also mentions about the aim of peer helping. It presents us a brief information about the relation between peer helping and preventional guidance. Peer helping is a useful method for it is used in various fields and it facilitates people who work in the arena to reach many individuals at schools or other educational institutions.

Key Words: Peer Helping, Peer Helping Programs, Preventional Guidance

Peer helping derives from the idea that peers spontaneously grant their opinions about what should be done when their friend is in need (Cowie, 2000) . It is the counseling of the people who are at the same age and status, and who own the same knowledge. It could also be stated that while peer counseling, active listening, problem solving, human development and mental health knowledge are utilized. Peer helping is both a philosophy and a method. It has been used in various situations and found to be very beneficial since the late 1960s (Brown, 1974; Huolston & Smith, 2009, Salovey, 1996; Turner, 1999). It is also mentioned that peer helping is supposed to be a bridge in the arena (Dorosin, D., D'andrea, V.& Jacks, R, 1996). in the literature, various terms or jargon refer to peer helping. These are peer helper, peer counselor, peer tuitor, peer facilitator, peer support worker, peer assistant and peer trainer. Aladag (2007) defines peer helping as 'the role of the peers during the lifetime development' since children appeal to their friends for their problems or when in need (Geldard &Patton, 2007). Peer helping could be more beneficial and effective when peers are more cooperative, care eachother more, lend assistance as quickly as possible, and support moral values as well. It could be in vain if peer helping obtains a hierarchical structure in mutual relations (Cowie and Sharp, 1996).

Another definition for peer helping comes from Baginsky (2004) and Rider (2000). According to Baginsky (2004), peer helping is an aid with positive effects to self- esteem when children face difficulties and when they endeavor to solve their problems. in order to increase to find the solutions to the problems the individuals face in a secure and satisfactory ways, the applications in the arena are improved especially in Canada and America at the beginning of 1970s. in Europe, it was mostly applied in educational arena in the middle of 1980s. Afterwards it expanded all over the World (Cartwright, 2005).

Peer helping programs are appealing to those in the international arena, who are willing to use the knowledge and the skills the peers obtain (Houlston, C., Smith, P., & Jessel, J, 2009; Tierney & Venegas, 2006). Although the effect of peer helping programs increases, the lack of knowledge and the prejudices of the parents and the professionals lead misjudgements (Hatcher, 1995). Some believe that mental health services should be provided only by professionals (Kurpius, 2002). Since many people need support in mental health, peer helping programs might be really supportive and useful in traditional mental health services (Varenhorst, 1974). Moreover, the peer helping program facilitates the decrease of the problems for people in obtaining the services which are provided by mental health practices.

Young people naturally are highly supportive to each other. Listening to each other, peers decrease their stress and the pain they own and they share similar feelings. However, in most of the cases peers lack true knowledge and right methods about supporting the ones who suffer from mental health problems. With the help of the peer help program, young people are acknowledged about the subject (Turner, 1999). As a result, students who are in need of peer support might immediately

get assistance. Peer problems might be solved without getting bigger. Misleading the students might be prevented. On this bases, peer helping might provide a functional use in order to prevent problems (Hatcher, S., Walsh, L., Reynolds, M., Sullivan, J., 1995). Peer helping is thought to be beneficial in three ways. First, it helps solve the problems before they become complicated. Second, it provides support and information in the cases with the help of the peer counselor and the last is its assistance in supporting the students in crisis and following them (Rosenroll & Dey, 1990).

 How peer helping program ought to be conducted is a matter of mutual agreement, sharing the responsibilities and respect which constitute the basic principles of the system (Mead, S., Hilton, D. & Curtis, L., 2008). Peers advise each other before the puberty and they are able to allogate time to each other more than the professionals could do. Peers are more enthusiastic, responsive and empathetic as they lead similar lives and experiences. The point of the view of the peers facilitates a contented atmosphere for the client (Hatcher, 1995). The findings of the studies Show that peers are more preferred to teachers when counseling is taken into consideration (Erhard, 1999).

 Peer helper is the person who has learned how to practically aid the individual who has a social or a personal problem and who has been trained about communicative skills. in other words, the peer helper is a person who values the others and dedicate his/her time to listen to the problems of the individuals (Sturkie & Gibson, 1989). It has to be taken into consideration that while peer helping, there are basic principles to be followed. Sturkie and Gibson (1992) states that the principles are as follows: Do not advise, do not judge, Be empathetic, not to take any responsibilities for the problems of the individuals, to focus on 'Now and Here', not to dispute orally or non-orally, comprehending the embedded meanings while listening, being affectionate and sincere, prioritise the feelings, preserving the privacy and being an important member of the care web. Peer helping program might be applied to all from the young to the old and the adolescent (Cowie, 1999). The role of the peer helper is not to solve the problem of the individual on behalf of him/her but to help them find the appropriate solution fort he individuals. Peer helpers do not advise the clients as 'you should do' or 'you should not do'. They do not comment on the situation or define the problem (Salovey, 1996). The studies show that females are more enthusiastic about peer helping than males (Baginsky, 2004: 6). It has been found that with the participation of the students in the peer helping system, counseling services at schools are said to be more effective (Hurst, 2001). It can also be stated that peer helping has positive effects on education process. However, because of its misuse in practise, negative consequences might be occasionally seen (Baginsky, 2004). At the same time, peer helping programs facilitate peer helpers to be a role-model for their peers (Hurst, 2001). While young people are working for their friends, they eventually develop socially and learn academically. So the potentials of young people are improved during the program (Cartwright, 2005).

Peer helping programs has its start when there is a need and when the need is noticed. Also, the individuals should be eager to solve the problem (Turner, 1999). The first thing to do is having a need analysis. There are three reasons for the need analysis. Comprending the problem is the first reason. It consists of reaching the appropriate sources and understanding the possible difficulties during the process. Including the others such as teachers, families, and the people who are in the peer support service is the second reason. The third one is supporting the students (Cowie, 2000: 49-64).

 After having need analysis, the priority is to get the support of the others. The most important of all is to obtain the administrative support. Teachers and the school staff support has no less importance than the others. Another step is that students should be aware of the program in order to run the process in a healthy way. The program might be anounced with the presentations or bulletins. The student factor is a salient factor in the acceptance of the program. Additionally, families should be informed about the program and its content (Myrick& Folk, 1991: 10).

 in peer helping, the relationship between the peer helper and the client should be on the honesty policy. in order to succeed a healthy relation between the peer helper and the client there should be role definitions and trust before the start. Additionally, both sides should be aware of the boundaries they have (Sturkie & Gibson, 1992: 17). Peer helping programs have three- stage-standards.

 The most important part in peer helping program is the election of the people who are going to be included in the program. The people who are going to be the participants of the peer program should not be defined. in some programs, while each applicants are being accepted, the others are choosen after a selection. Schools use an official form for the elections (Cowie & Sharp, 1996: 44). Peer helpers are elected in various forms at schools. It might be both voluntarily (Baginsky, 2004; Cowie, H., Naylor P.,Talamelli, L., Chauhan, P.,& Smith, P., 2002: 454) and the participants might be nominated by others (Cartwright, 2005) or having the course as credited (Kurpius, 2002), or selective (Myrick & Folk; 1991: 6). The nominees should be sensitive about suggestions and being organized. So, instead of using the tests in order to choose the peer helpers, it is also suggested to hold interviews and the nominees should be evaluated after the training sessions (Giddan & Austin, 1982: 13). Peer helpers might also be selected by the suggestions of the peers and the school staff,

advertisements which seek fort he volenteers, using tests or holding interviews or by direct applications (Albayrak- Kaymak, D., 1998).

The interview is generally held after the nominee has applied officially. There are some criteria to be taken into consideration for the elections of the peer helpers. The nominee is voted by a student who has participated in a project, a teacher and the school staff. The desicion of the peer helper nominee whether s/he is ready for working as a peer helper is discussed by the selection commitee (Kurpius, 2002). Peer helpers are not choosen only from the good and the successful students. The studies show that in many schools the peer helpers consist mostly of the female students. The training in peer helping program should be appropriate for the problems to be solved. While practising, a good observation should be done and an interactive environment should be settled among all the members of the school (Baginsky, 2004). But before this, the ones who have good communicative skills, listening ability and the problem-solving skill should be elected as a peer helper (Cowie, 2000: 49).

The selection and the training of the peer helpers are very important. Peer helpers are generally trained on the basis of the need-inclined, goal-targeted and applied training. The peer support programs might be formal or informal. Peer helpers should be active listeners, have communicative and problem-solving skills as well as having a skill for solving social and emotional difficulties of the individual. S/he should be empathetic and supportive voluntarily when in need (Cowie, H., Naylor P.,Talamelli, L., Chauhan, P.,& Smith, P., 2002). Besides the peer helper ought not to have a similar problem which is related to the choosen subject (Turner, 1999).

The target group of the peer counseling is really comprehensive. Peer helping programs might be used for all age groups (Myrick, R., Highland, W. & Sabella, R, 1995) and for all their needs (Scott & Warner, 1974: 229). However, peer helping program is not recommended for the age groups which are smaller than the kindergarden students (Myrick & Folk, 1991: 9).

Among the student guidance services, peer helping programs have an increasingly salient role. Peer helping programs might be applied to career counseling and student activities (Giddan & Austin, 1982: 1). Peer helping might be used in the intervention of the crisis using telephones (Kalafat & Schulman, 1982), career counseling (Reardon, R., Minor, C., & Burkhart, M., 1982), academic counseling (Bonar, 1982), helping those who are addicted to drugs (Bassin,1982; De Voult & Atienza: 1991), and women rights (Tyler, 1982). It is also used in coping with the solitude, problems caused by families (Turner,1995) providing aid for students from different cultures (Frisz, 1999: 515), and for children from divorced parents (Sprinthall, N. & Hall, J., 1992).

in addition to these, peer helping programs might be used as a source in order to increase the success and improve oneself on social, emotional and health issues (Cartwright, 2005; Rider, 2000; Scott & Warner, 1974). Generally speaking it might be true to state that peer helping system is used for a better quality life (Cowie & Hutson, 2005). It also supports the personal and social development of the individuals (Hurst; 2001). Peer helping training takes place in every stage of the educatinal institutions using in general aid programs, preventive medicine, personal aid groups and well-being of individuals (Salovey, 1996). It is widely used in medicine (Brunier, G. & Graydon J., Rothman, B. Charline S. 2002), preventing AIDS (Wong & Pereira, 1996), giving up smoking (Campell, R., Starkey, F., Holliday J., Auder S. & Bloor M., 2008; Malchodi, C., Oncken C., Dormelas, E., Caramanica, L., Gregonis, E., & Curry, S., 2003; Szilagyi, 2002), treating eating disorders and drug addiction (Zeilasko, J., Paulson, P., Nwankwo, R., Stewart, G. & Hoppe, K., 1995). Peer helping is becoming a popular system in secondary education against bullying (Boulton, 2005; Cowie & Hutson, 2005; Hurst, 2001; Houlston & Smith, 2009).

in peer helping programs it is mostly observed that there are positive effects of the application of the program on the health of the young people who are included in such programs. These are self- esteem, self-efficacy and the locus of control (Turner, 1999). It also has applications in problems such as commiting suicide, self-esteem, child abuse, family problems, coping with deaths and loses, eating disorders, school problems, bullying and adolescent pregnancy (Sturkie & Gibson, 1992: 42).

At the schools which have peer helping programs, 87% of the students have reported that they are content of the peer helping services. The results illustrate that peer helping programs might be beneficial and acceptable. in the same study, the students have reported that they felt relieved when they had peer help when in need. According to these students, there are great similarities between peer helping and getting advice from friends (Cowie, H., Naylor P.,Talamelli, L., Chauhan, P.,& Smith, P., 2002).

Turner (1995) states that peer help plays a salient role and is a bridge in prevention. Using peer helping programs means reaching more and more students (Albayrak-Kaymak, 2008; Birol, 2011; Whiston & Sexton, 1998). Peer helping is an appropriate strategy for the preventional training. It might be used in various projects and in different roles. These projects

could be directly about the school curriculum or academic topics. Also, preventional studies such as alcohol and drug addiction, homelessness, environmental pollution, risky situations and abnormal families might be included in these topics (Myrick & Folk, 1991: 22-23).

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Croatia and its entry into the Atlantic Alliance

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Abstract:

This article aims to analyze the various steps that have led to the accession of Croatia to the Atlantic Alliance. In fact, 2009 was a historic year for NATO: on one side was celebrated the sixtieth year of the Alliance born in Washington after the end of the II World War and, on the other hand, the entry of Croatia and Albania. With the entry of the two Balkan states, the number of member increased to twenty. This enlargement of NATO has completed the sixth round of enlargement after those who, in different times and contexts geostrategic, had seen the euro-Atlantic community to include Greece and Turkey (1952), Germany (1955), Spain and Portugal (1985), Hungary, Poland, Czech Republic (1999), Slovenia, Slovakia, Romania, Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania (2004). For Croatia joining NATO has closed the door to a difficult and turbulent past. The country has become a producer of security on a global scale, changing itself from threat to opportunity for Europe and the Euro-Atlantic institutions of the XXI century.

Keywords: NATO, Croatia, enlargement, Euro-Atlantic

1. Introduzione

La Croazia è stata invitata a diventare membro della NATO al Summit di Bucarest dell'3 aprile 2008, in cui si è inoltre sottolineato che l'unione della Croazia e dell'Albania avrebbe permesso l'inizio di un nuovo capitolo per lo sviluppo dei Balcani occidentali.

Pochi mesi dopo il Summit di Bucarest, l'allora presidente americano Bush, dichiarò in una visita ufficiale a Zagabria "*se in futuro il vostro popolo sarà minacciato da qualsiasi pericolo, l'America e la Nato saranno al vostro fianco. E nessuno potrà togliervi la libertà*" [1].

La Croazia è diventata membro effettivo un anno dopo, l'1 aprile 2009, divenendo il 27° membro, in occasione della sessione di giubileo del Patto Nord Atlantico, evento importante per il Paese balcanico anche per il fatto che l'ingresso nella NATO è stato visto come una possibilità di avvicinamento all'ingresso nell'Unione Europea.

Si può comunque dire che la Croazia è da sempre stata profondamente implicata nei piani di sicurezza e di cooperazione con l'UE e la NATO.

L'adesione della Croazia nella NATO è stato un evento molto significativo, infatti, una regione stabile e pienamente integrata nelle istituzioni euro-atlantiche, contribuisce alla sicurezza internazionale e il suo ingresso nel Patto Atlantico è garante della stabilità di un'area martoriata dalla scissione interna alla Yugoslavia nel corso degli anni '90.

I trascorsi storici della Croazia e di tutto il territorio circostante non vanno assolutamente trascurati poiché la guerra nella ex Jugoslavia è stata la più sanguinosa combattuta sul suolo europeo dopo la Seconda Guerra Mondiale scaturita dal crollo del blocco sovietico. Nel 1992 la Bosnia Erzegovina dichiarò la sua indipendenza dall'ex Repubblica Socialista Federale di Jugoslavia (RSF), alla quale appartenevano anche Croazia, Montenegro, Macedonia, Serbia. Dalle ceneri dell'RSF il primo Paese che ottenne l'indipendenza fu la Slovenia mentre, Serbia e Montenegro si fusero in un'unica nazione, creando la Repubblica di Serbia e Montenegro, le aspirazioni all'indipendenza determinarono un grave conflitto tra le varie etnie presenti nel territorio che sconvolse l'intera regione per un decennio. In Croazia periodi di pace si alternarono a periodi di guerra, la situazione più complicata fu invece in Bosnia dove erano presenti tre etnie diverse ed in cui l'esercito serbo di supporto alla minoranza Serbo Bosniaca, condusse uno sterminio sistematico delle etnie avversarie, portando avanti una politica di pulizia etnica in cui dal '92 al '95 persero la vita circa 94.000 persone.

La guerra si concluse con la Conferenza di Pace di Dayton nel 1995. Secondo gli Accordi di Dayton, la Bosnia-Erzegovina è uno stato composto da due entità: Federazione bosnjak-croata e Republica Srpska. Queste entità hanno ampia autonomia, con la possibilità di siglare accordi su "rapporti speciali" con i paesi confinanti della ex Jugoslavia. La pace in

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[1] A tutta NATO in www.osservatoriobalcani.org, aprile 2008.

quel territorio già martoriato non fu purtroppo permanente infatti, nella primavera del 1998 la situazione si fece tesa tra gli abitanti della zona del Kosovo e la Repubblica di Serbia e Montenegro a causa dell'etnia dei kosovari (musulmani e albanesi) che chiedevano l'indipendenza da Belgrado. La comunità internazionale, NATO, Russia e Cina si impegnò sin dall'inizio a trovare una soluzione, un compromesso che mettesse d'accordo i serbi con i kosovari, i negoziati iniziarono il 6 febbraio 1999 e il 18 marzo la diplomazia riuscì a trovare un apparente sbocco pacifico alla crisi, gli Stati Uniti riuscirono infatti a far firmare alle parti in causa un documento in cui veniva formalmente garantita l'autonomia del Kosovo ma non la sua piena indipendenza. Gli USA imposero inoltre alla Serbia la presenza di 30.000 uomini della NATO al fine di mantenere l'ordine. Questa proposta non venne accettato dalla Serbia e di conseguenza iniziarono le operazioni militari della Kosovo Force (il nome dato al contingente NATO che bombardò la regione), per la prima volta dopo la Seconda Guerra Mondiale, l'Alleanza Atlantica bombardò uno stato europeo. Alla fine del conflitto la risoluzione 1244 del consiglio di sicurezza delle Nazioni Unite ha sottoposto il Kosovo all'amministrazione dell'ONU affidando la sicurezza alla Nato e ha delineato un quadro costituzionale per il futuro del territorio.

Il 17 febbraio 2008 il Kosovo ha proclamato l'indipendenza dalla Serbia anche se Belgrado continua a considerare illegale tale dichiarazione. La comunità internazionale, invece, si è divisa tra le nazioni che ne riconoscono l'indipendenza (come gli Stati Uniti e le principali nazioni europee) e la Russia che continua a bloccare l'ingresso del Kosovo nelle Nazioni Unite.

L'ingresso della Croazia nella NATO è stato visto quindi come un aiuto nel mantenimento della stabilità in questa regione, soprattutto, riguardo alcune questioni irrisolte come lo status del Kosovo e la posizione costituzionale della Bosnia-Erzegovina.

Lo stesso Ministro degli Esteri croato, Gordan Jandrokovic, nel Forum del Consiglio di Sicurezza della Nato nel 2009 ha dichiarato che "*sicurezza, stabilità e prosperità nel sud-est Europeo sono una responsabilità che la Croazia condivide con gli alleati della NATO e altri partner nella comunità euro-atlantica delle nazioni.*"[1] La priorità del governo croato secondo Jandrokovic era la creazione di un sistema di difesa collettivo in grado di salvaguardare l'unità e la stabilità del Paese.

A livello politico, c'è stato sin da subito grande consenso all'adesione del Paese nella Nato da parte di quasi tutte le fazioni. La maggior parte della coalizione di governo, guidata dal partito Unione Democratica Croata (HDZ), ha fortemente supportato l'ingresso del paese alla Nato, un partito, inoltre che a partire dal 2000 si è trasformato, da partito nazionalista in partito democraticamente orientato (con l'introduzione di una nuova e moderna Costituzione) e promotore di una europeizzazione della nazione.

Anche l'opposizione, il Partito Social Democratico (SPH), ha supportato l'ingresso nel Patto Atlantico. Importante è stato anche il sostegno da parte dell'opinione pubblica, nel 2007 il 43% dei cittadini si dichiarava favorevole all'ingresso della Croazia nella NATO mentre, nel corso del 2008 tale percentuale ha raggiunto il 67%; un simile aumento di consensi in un periodo così breve è stato spiegato dagli analisti con la paura dei croati per l'instabile e potenzialmente esplosivo ambiente circostante, dovuto principalmente alla proclamazione di indipendenza del Kosovo.

Anche il Generale Drago Lovric, rappresentante militare della Repubblica croata presso la NATO, ha espresso la sua soddisfazione per l'ingresso della sua nazione nel patto Atlantico: "*in questo momento storico la Croazia sta diventando un buon e credibile alleato, sia nel bene che nel male*"[2]. Parole che hanno trovato conferma in quelle espresse dal Generale Karl-Heinz Lather in qualità di Capo dello staff SHAPE, (Supreme Headquarters Allied Powers Europe) *"l'allargamento ha accresciuto l'influenza globale dell'alleanza, ha portato una maggiore legittimità nelle azioni promosse e ha accresciuto la democrazia in tutto il continente europeo che conduce ad una idea di Europa intera e libera. Le nazioni che sono entrate nella NATO oggi, si sono unite ai Paesi fondatori in una comunità di democrazia costruita su valori, ideali, condivisione ed impegno nella sicurezza collettiva*"[3].

L'adesione alla Nato garantisce di conseguenza alla Croazia la sicurezza che la possibile instabilità negli stati vicini non oltrepasserà i suoi confini.

Il percorso della Croazia verso la NATO

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[1] Goran Jandrocovic, 2009, Croatia and Southeast Europe in NATO, Discorso del Ministro degli esteri croato all'Atlantic Council Forum 12/09/2009, in www.acus.org

[2] Albania and Croatia welcomed into NATO at Accession Cermony, in www.aco.nato.int, aprile 2009.

[3] Ibidem

Il lungo cammino per l'ingresso nella Nato è iniziato già nel 2000 quando, un team di esperti Nato ha visitato il Paese e, insieme con la visita dell'allora Segretario Generale della NATO, Lord Robertson, ha accelerato l'invito alla partecipazione croata al Partenariato per la Pace (Partnership for Peace PfP), ufficializzato nel maggio 2000 e che ha segnato la prima partecipazione formale nell'integrazione nella sicurezza euro-atlantica. Nel 2001 la Croazia ha presentato l'Individual Partnership Programme (Programma di Partenariato Individuale IPP) che si è concentrato su alcune priorità quali: consultazione, comando e controllo che includevano anche sistemi di comunicazione e informazione, politiche di difesa e strategia, formazione linguistica ed educazione, formazione e dottrina militare. Nel 2001 ha coordinato il Planning and Review Process (PARP), un ciclo biennale per le consultazioni sulla difesa, bilaterali e multilaterali, anche con l'istituzione di un set di Partnership Goal (PG) con l'obiettivo di creare cooperazione tra le forze croate (CAF) e le forze NATO. L'intero processo di riforma a livello militare è avvenuto attraverso workshop e consultazioni con i Paesi Nato.

La prospettiva di un ingresso nel breve periodo divenne chiaro durante il vertice di Bratislava dei Membership Action Plan (MAP) quando la Croazia entrò nel cosiddetto "Vilnius Group", che rappresentava nove aspiranti paesi NATO che divennero Paesi del MAP durante il vertice di Washington in cui la Croazia fu inclusa.

L'adesione alla linea imposta dal MAP, ha portato alla definizione di una serie di leggi sulla difesa, la strategia, la sicurezza e la difesa nazionale che erano necessarie per la compatibilità con la NATO e con la trasparenza delle politiche di difesa in modo da soddisfare tutte le condizioni per entrare nel MAP nel quale entrò ufficialmente il 15 maggio 2002 al vertice di Reykjavik, anno in cui ha cominciato a prendere parte alle operazioni militari in Afghanistan a fianco delle truppe NATO. La membership alla NATO è stata determinata da alcuni criteri che ciascun paese doveva rispettare quali: difesa dell'alleanza e forze militari in grado di farlo e soprattutto forze nazionali in grado di poter collaborare con le forze NATO. I potenziali nuovi membri avevano dei requisiti inoltre da rispettare quali, il criterio di democrazia, i diritti umani entro i propri confini e il rispetto della sovranità fuori dai propri confini. I criteri che hanno portato all'ingresso della Croazia sono stati lo stato delle riforme politiche ed economiche (generalmente considerate molto buone), il supporto pubblico per la membership, i progressi compiuti nel campo della difesa e l'abilità a contribuire alle missioni alleate. Importanti riforme sono state compiute in campo giudiziario e nel contrasto alla corruzione. Tra i criteri da soddisfare vi era anche quello secondo cui le forze militari avrebbero dovuto essere sotto democratico controllo civile, criterio che è stato soddisfatto dopo i cambiamenti apportati nella Costituzione nel 2000 che, oltre ad aver cercato di istituire un governo realmente democratico, successivo al periodo caratterizzato dall'assolutismo di Tudjman, ha dato inizio a un periodo di tripla coabitazione tra le maggiori forze politiche (Presidente della Repubblica, Governo e Camera), ha stabilito opportune verifiche ed equilibri tra le tre istituzioni chiavi: il Presidente, il Governo e il Parlamento; sono state dunque introdotte varie misure istituzionali per garantire la supervisione civile e il controllo democratico dei militari. In questo modo, il Presidente è il Comandante Supremo, il gabinetto dirige e gestisce l'esercito attraverso il Ministero della Difesa e il Parlamento ha funzioni di controllo attraverso i suoi comitati. Nello stesso anno, con le elezioni che portarono al potere il centro sinistra, si è avviato un costante processo di trasformazione economica e politica e di apertura nei confronti della Comunità internazionale. Si diede inizio inoltre, ad un lento processo di riforme militari poiché durante gli anni in cui Franjo Tudjman fu al potere, soprattutto a partire dal 1995, le forze di sicurezza, furono fortemente politicizzate, rendendo, la Croazia, un paese definito "parzialmente libero" sino al cambio di governo avvenuto dopo la sua morte nel 2000. Tudjman, l'eroe della guerra contro la Serbia, fu sempre supportato da un esercito forte. Dopo la guerra degli anni '90, abusò dell'immagine eroica dei militari e creò una rete complicata tra loro e il suo partito (HDZ) a supporto di un'idea nazionalista in cui egli, oltre ad essere a capo dello Stato comandava anche le forze armate in qualità di Comandante Supremo. Le forze armate furono quindi completamente assoggettate al suo potere per ciò che riguardava tutte le questioni legate alla sicurezza e ai servizi segreti. Un regime dunque che con il suo assolutismo, la corruzione e il nazionalismo è rimasto isolato politicamente ed economicamente sino alla fine degli anni '90.

Le forze armate e il loro ruolo nella Nato

Dal punto di vista delle forze militari, la Croazia, nei primi anni 2000, era l'unico Paese che avesse forze militari professionali, in secondo luogo, le forze militari croate hanno veramente combattuto fianco a fianco con quelle NATO durante la guerra nei Balcani. Nello stesso periodo la Croazia prese parte a numerose attività e operazioni in cui partecipò anche con le proprie truppe.

La Croazia ha inoltre avuto un ruolo rilevante anche nelle operazioni di peacekeeping delle Nazioni Unite con contingenti presenti in Sierra Leone, Etiopia ed Eritrea, India e Pakistan, Liberia e Afghanistan. Queste operazioni suggeriscono la volontà di promuovere la sicurezza anche fuori dai confini del Paese stesso, con il plauso da parte degli Stati Uniti e di varie nazioni europee.

Nel piano di difesa a lungo termine 2006-2015 del Ministero della Difesa Croato la spesa militare doveva essere incrementata del 1.8% del PIL nel 2008, per essere portato a 2% nel 2010 come suggerito dalla Nato. Infatti nel 2008 il budget per la difesa è ammontato a 962 milioni di Dollari, 100 milioni in più rispetto all'anno precedente. Comunque a causa della crisi economica che ha investito quasi tutto il mondo la spesa militare del 2011 è stata pari al 1.5% del PIL. [1]

Le Forze Armate croate sono composte da 18.600 soldati effettivi e 21.000 soldati in riserva. Nel 2010, 650 soldati croati hanno partecipato alle missioni all'estero, di cui circa la metà presenti in Afghanistan, nello stesso anno l'8% delle forze di terra sono state impiegate nelle forze internazionali, con un investimento, inoltre, del 2% del PIL nella difesa.

Un chiaro segnale del forte interesse in ambito militare del governo croato, si è notato anche nel programma Strategic Defense Review (SDR), ideato come proposta di un nuovo sistema di difesa, il lavoro su di esso è cominciato nell'ottobre 2003 con l'instaurazione di un consiglio che comprendeva membri militari, il Ministro degli Esteri, quello delle Finanze e i rappresentanti del Governo e dell'ufficio del Presidente; il lavoro del consiglio era inoltre coadiuvato da un comitato di sviluppo, non vi erano comunque membri della società civile ma le consultazioni avvenivano di continuo con gli esperti NATO in visita nel Paese. Le conclusioni a cui la SDR è giunta è che i maggiori cambiamenti sono avvenuti nella percezione della sicurezza della Croazia e dell'intera regione dopo, soprattutto, gli eventi storici che hanno interessato l'area[2].

Gli interessi maggiori della NATO riguardano la stabilizzazione del sud est Europa, questa è una delle priorità della Croazia che offre un terreno comune ideale per un'ulteriore cooperazione e relazioni durature. Inoltre, gli sviluppi storici recenti, hanno creato trattati di sicurezza transnazionali e sfide come il terrorismo e il crimine internazionale e la proliferazione di armi di distruzione di massa. Il Governo croato pone particolare attenzione ai problemi regionali che influenzano la sicurezza del Paese anche nel contesto dell'ampliamento dell'alleanza. In questo contesto, si menziona soprattutto la necessità di implementare il controllo delle armi e combattere contro il crimine organizzato soprattutto nel campo del traffico di essere umani e commercio di stupefacenti e armi in modo da continuare la cooperazione tra gli stati come parte del Regional Arms Control verification and Implementation Assistance Centre (RACVIAC), come forum per lo scambio di esperienze con attenzione alla lotta contro il crimine organizzato transnazionale, soprattutto il traffico di esseri umani e il commercio di droga e armi.

Nessuna nazione può fare questo da sé, c'è la necessità di cooperare tra nazioni che condividono gli stessi valori democratici. La Croazia ha dimostrato di essere senza dubbio una di quelle nazioni che contribuisce visibilmente alla coalizione internazionale contro il terrorismo dimostrando che anche un piccolo paese può essere estremamente utile quando esiste la cooperazione internazionale.

Alla luce di quanto visto sopra, l'ingresso della Croazia nella Nato ha determinato importanti benefici quali ad esempio, una maggior sicurezza nella regione, con la Croazia nella NATO infatti, la zona del mar Adriatico si trasforma in un zona stabile che può dare allo stesso tempo sicurezza all'Italia e alla Slovenia e provvedere alla creazione di una continuità territoriale ininterrotta dal Mediterraneo al Baltico. L'espansione della stabilità dell'area automaticamente diminuisce il rischio di situazioni di conflitto all'interno della zona e a livello geo-strategico la Croazia è un paese centrale, mediterraneo e danubiano, in connessione naturale tra l'Europa occidentale e i Balcani e tra il Mediterraneo e l'Europa centrale.

Per ciò che concerne l'integrazione europea della Croazia, a partire dal 2002 i sondaggi indicarono come l'adesione alla UE iniziasse ad essere ben vista dalla maggioranza del popolo croato, contemporaneamente ad una apertura del governo Račan e del nuovo presidente Stipe Mesic (ex braccio destro di Tudjman gradualmente allontanatosi dalle posizioni nazionaliste del partito) che diedero un contributo importante allo sviluppo pacifico e alla cooperazione regionale nei Balcani occidentali insieme ad una apertura a collaborare alle richieste del Tribunale Internazionale dell'Aja riguardo possibili estradizioni per crimini di guerra, determinante per permettere alla Croazia di agganciarsi all'UE; possibilità che è stata colta nel 2003 con la presentazione della richiesta di adesione nell'Unione Europea.

Alcune importanti questioni legate alle guerre nella ex Jugoslavia hanno avuto seguiti nel corso dei primi anni del XXI secolo tra cui il trattamento discriminatorio nei confronti delle minoranze serbe sfollate e l'adempimento degli obblighi con il Tribunale penale internazionale per l'ex Jugoslavia, questioni alla cui risoluzione, il nuovo governo teneva particolarmente.

Importante fu la reintegrazione delle minoranze serbe per dimostrare di aver risolto la questione razziale e per ottenere dunque lo status di paese candidato; le politiche adottate in questa materia, hanno contribuito al ritorno di circa 150.000

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[1] Croatian Ministry of Defence, Long term planning and long term defense strategy, in http://www.morh.hr
[2] Croatian Ministry of Defence, Strategic Defence Review, Zagreb, November, 10, 2005

rifugiati serbi nelle loro case, misure che hanno avuto lo scopo di sottolineare, come la Croazia sia riuscita nell'arco di un decennio a mettersi alle spalle l'era Tudjman e le reminescenze nazionaliste.

Nel luglio 2004, dopo le elezioni del 2003 in cui vinse l'HDZ con a capo il moderato Ivo Sanader, il Consiglio d'Europa deliberò la nomina della Croazia a paese candidato ponendo il nullaosta sull'iter di adesione che si concretizzò nell'ottobre 2005 con i relativi negoziati. Nel marzo dello stesso anno, però, l'UE rimandò l'inizio delle trattative per l'adesione, a causa di una mancanza di collaborazione con il Tribunale dell'Aja, soprattutto nella ricerca del Generale Gotovina, artefice dell'Operazione Tempesta (la campagna militare che nel 1995 portò al crollo della separatista Repubblica della Krajina serba e alla fuga di centinaia di migliaia di serbi) ricercato per crimini di guerra ma considerato da molti croati un eroe nazionale. Questo momento di stallo avvenne esattamente ad un anno di distanza dal vertice di Istanbul in cui anche la NATO aveva rimandato la membership della Croazia nell'alleanza e quel rifiuto significò un altro fallimento nelle ambizioni euro-atlantiche del Paese balcanico.

Nell'ottobre 2005, come è stato detto sopra, nonostante la sospensione di ogni trattativa avvenuta alcuni mesi prima, la Croazia riuscì ad ottenere lo status di Paese Candidato grazie alla collaborazione del Presidente Sanader nella ricerca del Generale Gotovina e alla sua conseguente cattura nel mese di dicembre; questo episodio ha spinto il Procuratore Capo del Tribunale Penale Internazionale per l'ex-Jugoslavia Carla Del Ponte a dichiarare grande riconoscimento alla Croazia per la cooperazione. La notizia dell'arresto di Gotovina è arrivata a Bruxelles proprio quando era in corso la conferenza sull'integrazione dei Balcani in Europa ed è stata commentata anche dal commissario Ue all'allargamento, Olli Rehn come "una buonissima notizia per la riconciliazione nei Balcani occidentali e per il Tribunale penale internazionale per i crimini di guerra nella ex Jugoslavia che corona con il successo il suo lavoro. Ora è molto importante che tutti i ricercati siano assicurati alla giustizia"[1].

Un fattore chiave per decretare la stabilità politica, la sicurezza e la prosperità economica e che va nel migliore interesse di tutti i Balcani occidentali, è sicuramente lo sviluppo della cooperazione regionale, ciò corrisponde con l'impegno assunto dai paesi della regione al vertice di Zagabria nel 2000 e a Salonicco nel 2003 la cooperazione regionale è inoltre un requisito specifico negli accordi di stabilizzazione e associazione che la Croazia ha sottoscritto con l'Unione Europea. La Croazia ormai è consapevole che i Paesi dei Balcani occidentali hanno delle sfide e delle responsabilità comuni molte delle quali, di natura transfrontaliera, in questo contesto la cooperazione regionale è una pietra angolare del quadro politico dell'Unione Europea per i Balcani occidentali.

Gli sforzi dei Balcani occidentali in materia di cooperazione regionale, sono stati apprezzati dai vertici europei e ad esempio, il Commissario Europeo per l'allargamento Olli Rehn ha espresso riconoscimento per i risultati ottenuti *"per quanto riguarda la cooperazione nelle aree del commercio, dell'energia e dei trasporti ma ulteriori sforzi sono necessari per accrescere la fiducia e rafforzare la cooperazione regionale nel settore della giustizia e degli affari interni. Estendere la cooperazione regionale all'Europa sud orientale è un fattore essenziale a prescindere dal diverso stadio di integrazione dei vari paesi ed è un criterio importante per il percorso europeo dei Balcani occidentali perché la cooperazione regionale porta in sé la stabilità, la prosperità e la sicurezza nella regione e questi sono dei criteri significativi per l'UE "*[2] . L'importanza della cooperazione è stata enfatizzata anche dal Presidente croato Josipovic in un discorso pubblico pronunciato l'11 febbraio 2010 presso la Harvard Kennedy School, "*venti anni dopo la guerra dei Balcani, 15 dopo gli accordi di Dayton, ora dobbiamo chiederci dove ci troviamo. Siamo nello stato di conflitto congelato o dobbiamo avere la forza di spingere i nostri Paesi verso nuove relazioni, relazioni aperte per amicizia, cooperazione e per un comune futuro europeo, dobbiamo costruire la fiducia nella regione e questo significa che dobbiamo affrontare la nostra storia e cercare di trovare una storia comune […] avremo differenze, questo è normale ma dobbiamo avere gli stessi valori e promuovere i nostri Paesi alla luce di queste differenze, la Croazia può servire come ponte tra i Paesi dell'Europa orientale e il resto d'Europa*"[3].

Inoltre, la Croazia partecipa attivamente a numerose iniziative regionali e progetti, come le iniziative con l'Europa Centrale, il quadrilatero con l'Italia la Slovenia, l'Ungheria, le comunità di lavoro Alpi-Adriatico e l'iniziativa Adriatico-Ionica. Particolarmente importante è il contributo della Croazia al Patto di Stabilità per l'Europa sud-orientale dove presiede il Tavolo di lavoro sulle questioni di sicurezza al South Eastern European Initiative (SEEI) insieme con attività e programmi correlati.

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[1] European Commission, EU Commissioner Rehn welcomes news of Gotovina arrest. 8/12/2005, in http://www.eu-un.europa.eu

[2] Eropean Commission, "Regional cooperation in the Western Balcans, a policy priority for the European Union", Dicembre 2006.

[3] "Regional cooperation part of Croatia's path to Europe" Intervento del Presidente croato Ivo Josipovic in Political Science Summer School, settembre 2010.

La Croazia, nel percorso verso l'adesione all'Unione, ha ottenuto importanti garanzie lo scorso mese di luglio quando il Consiglio Europeo ha sancito che l'ingresso del Paese balcanico avverrà l'1 luglio 2013, una data certa dunque anche grazie alla trasformazione della società croata avvenuta negli ultimi anni anche per ciò che concerne il funzionamento della democrazia, del sistema giudiziario, il campo delle riforme economiche e la lotta alla corruzione, obiettivi importanti da raggiungere, soprattutto per una giovane democrazia e che sicuramente non si fermeranno il 1° luglio 2013.

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Indicele de transnaţionalitate în analiza familiilor transnaţionale

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Abstract

During the studies of multinational companies it was proposed transnationality index, because there are extraverted companies (with 80% rate of index) or introverted (under 30% rate of index). Why not have the same index in the case of transnational families? It is calculated as the arithmetic mean of the following three ratios (where "foreign" means outside of the corporation's home country): the ratio of foreign assets to total assets, the ratio of foreign sales to total sales, the ratio of foreign employment to total employment. What are the indexes that we should take in consideration in studying transnational families? In scientific literature there are revealed certain characteristics of transnational families. The same characteristics can be used as indicatory which can provide an index of establishing the rate of transnationality.Considering the situation of transnational families from Romania, I bring to you the following percent:interdependence relational indicator: daily relation through Internet or telephone (5%), every two-three days (10%), weekly (15%), monthly (20%), sporadic relationship, more than two months (25%); gender indicator: if the missing person from the family is children's mother, then we should add 5% more; children's age indicator: starting from 18 years bellow, we should put 2% for each year; the indicatory of implication in taking decisions considering family life: very much (5%), a lot (10%), moderated (15%), few (20%) or not at all (25%); the last percent shows, actually, the total absent, psychological speaking, from family life; the time indicator: 5% in which the reintegration can be possible within 6 months, 10% for reintegration between 6 to 12 months, 15% if the immigrated person is coming back home after more than one year. All these indicators should be doubled if both parents are gone away from the family. Establishing these transnationality indexes can be useful not only for sociologists, but also for teachers, psychologists and social assistance institutes, for adapt remedial programs.[1]

Keywords: transnational families, transnationality index, indicator, relation, characteristics

În studierea companiilor multinaţionale s-a propus indicele de transnaţionalitate, pentru că există firme extravertite (cu indicele peste 80%) sau introvertite (sub 30%). Oare de ce nu am avea acest indice şi în cazul familiilor transnaţionale? În stabilirea indicelui, din punct de vedere economic, sunt avute mai mulţi indicatori. (Ivan, Iacovoium, 2008, p.78) Care ar fi însă indicatorii avuţi în vedere în cazul familiilor?

Un prim aspect al problemei este dat de feminizarea migraţiei. Conform estimărilor fundaţiei SOROS, 34% (prin extrapolare, la nivelul ţării, aproximativ 12.000) din copiii cu ambii părinţi plecaţi în străinătate trăiesc în grija altor persoane cel puţin doi ani, iar 54% (respectiv 19.000) de mai puţin de un an. Cei mai mulţi din aceşti copii rămân în grija familiei extinse, în special a bunicilor (UNICEF România, 2008, p.45), dar este de remarcat că şi în cazul plecării mamei, doar 54% din copii rămân în grija tatălui, copiii rămânând în grija bunicilor sau a altor rude şi prieteni. În ceea ce priveşte efectul plecării părinţilor asupra sănătăţii psihice ni se spune că „copiii cu ambii părinţi plecaţi sau doar cu mama plecată au raportat în mai mare măsură prezenţa frecventă a unor sentimente de deprimare" (Toth şi Toth, 2007, p.24), deci absenţa mamei creează mai multe probleme decât cea a tatălui.

Mamele migrante din timpul acesta păstrează intimitatea familială „virtuală", comunicând regulat cu cei de acasă (zilnic cel mai des, până la săptămânal cel mai rar) (Parreñas, 2005b, Wilding, 2006; Vertovec, 2004, 2006, 2009). Astfel, femeile migrante atribuie sarcini de la distanţă, verifică îndeplinirea lor şi oferă recompense, cea mai mare parte fiind materiale. De câţiva ani, Internetul este cel mai utilizat în această comunicare, mai ales că România se află în topul ţărilor, în ce priveşte viteza de internet şi tarifele reduse. Dincolo de comunicarea regulată care devine ca un ritual în familie - oră exactă şi / sau de zile pentru comunicare – şi telefonul mobil este un accesoriu obligatoriu al celor de acasă şi a femeilor migrante.

Studiul comunicării mediate de calculator în general şi a celei realizate prin Internet, în special, este un domeniu de frontieră ca linie de studiu recunoscută în domeniul comunicării.(Urs, 2011, p.16). Iniţial, atât timp cât încă Internetul nu era utilizat în masă, comunicarea mediată de calculator a fost văzută ca o simplă comunicare interpersonală (Morris, Ogan, 1996,

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p.42), fără a lua în considerare idiosincraziile noului mediu. Avântul tehnologic dar şi penetrarea Internetul în toate ţările la un nivel de neconceput în anii 90, a făcut ca Internetul să fie azi văzut ca o utilitate de bază, doar că, de cele mai multe ori, ea vine „la pachet": fie împreună cu cablul, cu factura la telefonie mobilă sau, pur şi simplu, gratis (în zonele free din diferite localităţi).

Comunicarea mediată de calculator are, în plus, mai multe atribute ce pot deveni importante. În primul rând, evoluţiile tehnologice moderne ar trebui să rescrie denumirea acestui tip de comunicare. Se numeşte comunicare mediată de calculator, dar calculatoarele sunt de multe tipuri (desktop, laptop), apoi există tablete cu funcţii similare (mai ales în ceea ce priveşte comunicarea), smartphon-urile sunt şi ele tot mai sofisticate, preluând funcţionalităţile calculatoarelor, există e-reader, ochelari digitali, televizoare inteligente, computere de bord ultrasofisticate şi cine ştie ce se va mai inventa. De aceea, în acest context, termenul de calculator are puţin de-a face cu definiţia acceptată (aceea de computer personal), ci reprezintă dispozitivul electronic care oferă o platformă sistemului de operare şi aplicaţiilor software necesare pentru realizarea transmisiunilor în reţea.

În al doilea rând, lasă „urme" ce pot fi vizibile de alte persoane „interesate" de depistarea lor (nu doar de serviciile secrete, ci de orice persoană pricepută), cum ar fi history (la Messenger sau Skype), stocarea discuţiilor pe forumuri, bloguri sau păstrarea mesajelor neşterse de la crearea mail-ului. Reţelele de comunicare sunt şi mai puţin „intime".

O a treia caracteristică este că această comunicare, în acest timp, este cea mai ieftină. Conversaţiile transfrontaliere nu sunt limitate de costuri adiţionale. Dacă anumite conexiuni în perioada de început (gen dial-up) erau limitate ca şi trafic, acum în România majoritatea reţelelor fixe au Internet nelimitat. Reţelele mobile încă mai au restricţii de trafic, dar nici ele nu vor mai ţinea mult.

Nu se poate ignora un alt aspect care nu a mai existat în istoria omenirii până acum: crearea unei comunităţi în afara unui areal geografic, de unde şi termenul de comunitate virtuală. Prin comunitatea virtuală înţelegem acea grupare de oameni care inter-relaţionează reciproc prin intermediul sistemelor de informare şi comunicare, realizând schimburi simbolic valorice, în anumite domenii de interes, ce ele-însele construiesc şi menţin astfel de apartenenţe. Modul de comunicare şi precum şi conţinuturile adiacente coagulează, întreţin şi dau consistenţă mediului formator astfel născut. Acest tip de comunitate se defineşte prin cooperarea şi schimbul permanent de informaţii. Avem de a face cu o comunitate epistemică, ce structurează o noosferă, scop şi referenţial al întemeierii ei.(Cucoş, 2010, p.120).

Un aspect ce ţine de transnaţionalitate, pe care Parrenas (2001) îl analizează este impactul emoţional al distanţei şi modalităţile de gestionare, dar aici se include şi perspectiva copiilor. Aceştia sunt în conflict cu părinţii pe trei planuri: copiii nu sunt de acord că bunurile materiale ar înlocui dragostea, au impresia că părinţii nu sunt conştienţi de eforturile depuse de ei pentru a menţine integritatea familiei şi le reproşează mamelor vizitele prea rare (petrec împreună cam două luni la patru ani). Unii copii preţuiesc apropierea de mama lor mai mult decât beneficiile materiale, şi le privesc ca excluzându-se reciproc.

În ce priveşte rezultatele şcolare, Toth şi Toth (2007) arată că mai mult de 80% dintre copii vorbesc cu părinţii plecaţi cel puţin săptămânal, despre rezultatele şcolare ale copiilor, relaţiile intrafamiliale şi diverse dorinţe ale copiilor. Mai mult de 70% dintre copiii care au părinţi plecaţi la muncă descriu relaţia lor cu părinţii ca fiind foarte bună însă plecarea unui părinte este asociată cu o relaţie de calitate mai slabă cu părintele rămas. Mai multe cercetări au arătat că plecarea părinţilor la muncă are efecte negative asupra notelor copiilor (Bădescu, Stoian şi Tănase, 2009; Tufiş, 2007)

P.A. Gongla şi E.H. Thompson (Apud Preda M., 1999) au alcătuit o tipologie a familiilor monoparentale şi biparentale pe baza dimensiunilor specifice ale unei familii: structurală (referitor numărul şi calitatea familiilor în cadrul structurii relaţiei de rudenie), interactivă (referitor la procesele de comunicare şi contact între membri) şi psihologică (include particularităţile fiecărui membru dar şi sentimentul ataşamentului şi identităţii comune). În această tipologie (vezi figura 1), interacţiunea dintre membrii familiei are un rol determinant, fie că vorbim de familie monoparentală sau biparentală, interacţiune ce poate avea un rol foarte important în determinarea transnaţionalităţii.

De asemenea, un indicator care multă vreme nu a fost preocuparea teoriile migraţiei internaţionale este cel asupra relaţiilor de gen. Femeile au fost implicit considerate dependente de bărbaţi în procesele de migraţie. În ultimii ani, genul a penetrat discuţiile despre migraţie, iar femeile au început să fie analizate ca principali protagonişti. Declinul conceptelor de 'comunitate' sau 'grup social', cât şi reconfigurări globale ale proceselor de producţie şi consum au lăsat loc abordărilor situaţionale ale migraţiei, în strânsă legătură cu abilitatea femeilor sau a bărbaţilor de a-şi menţine propriile proiecte de migraţie. Femeile migrante sunt considerate din ce în ce mai active în susţinerea financiară a familiilor lor prin remitenţe sau ca agenţi ai schimbărilor sociale în comunităţile de origine sau destinaţie. În plus, migraţia femeilor şi rolul principal pe care acestea le joacă în procesele de migraţie permit o examinare critică a transformărilor familiei.

Aceste atribute ale familiei transnaţionale se pot constitui în indicatori ce pot fi avuţi în vedere în stabilirea indicelui de transnaţionalitate. Propunerea mea este:

indicatorul interdependenţă relaţională: relaţie zilnică prin Internet sau telefon (5%), relaţie la două-trei zile (10%), relaţie săptămânală (15%), relaţie lunară (20%), relaţie sporadică, la distanţe de luni de zile (25%); indicatorul gen să aducă un plus de 5% în cazul în care persoana plecată este mama; indicatorul vârsta copiilor: de la 18 ani în jos, câte 2% se adaugă pentru fiecare an; indicatorul rezultate şcolare: câte 5% pentru fiecare medie sub cele obţinute când părintele era în ţară; indicatorul implicare în luarea deciziilor familiale şi în viaţa familiei: foarte mult (5%), mult (10%), potrivit (15%), puţin (20%) sau deloc (25); acest ultim procent arată, practic, absenţa din cadrul familiei din punct de vedere psihologic; indicatorul „timp": 5% pentru cazul în care reîntregirea familiei se face în maxim 6 luni, 10% pentru timp de întregire între 6-12 luni, 15% pentru revenirea migrantului într-un interval de timp de peste 1 an.

Toţi aceşti indicatori ar trebui dublaţi în cazul în care ambii părinţi sunt plecaţi în străinătate.

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Fig.1. Tipologia familiilor

TIPOLOGIA FAMILIILOR MONO ŞI BI-PARENTALE					
STRUCTURAL					
DOI PĂRINŢI			PĂRINTE SINGUR		
Interacţional			Interacţional		
Psihologic	Prezenţă	Absenţă	Psihologic	Prezenţă	Absenţă
Prezenţă			Prezenţă		
	A	B		E	F
Absenţă			Absenţă		
	C	D		G	H

Social Basis and Function of Religious Education in Turkish Educational System

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Abstract

Religion is one of the prominent facts of social life. in daily life, intensively presence of situations and events related to religion has been indicated that the religion is a social phenomenon. The relation between religion and human being has always been exist from early historical times to present and religious education as a transmission of religious principles from generations to others is also an ancient event like the relation between religion-human being. Religion in Turkey's national unity and the protection can be provided, in contributing to social peace, social ethics and values as the most important factor in granting still stands before us. This function of religion in religious education in a healthy way to fulfill a task is very important respect. On the other hand, religious education has been a debated issue in Turkey for many years. State and religion relation can also be considered in this context. But it can't be ignored that religious education has so many functions in Turkish educational system such as cultural, religious, moral and social. in this paper, the theoretical basis of religion education and social functions of religious education in Turkish educational system will be discussed. in the study, like "the social functions of religious education are?" etc. questions will be answered by investigating text books, curriculums and other documents.

Keywords: Religion, Religious Education, Social Basis and Function, Turkish Educational System

Giriş

Din, insanlığın mutluluk ve huzurunu amaçlar. İnsanın mutlu olması da ancak içinde yaşadığı toplumun huzurlu ve mutlu olmasıyla mümkün olabilir. Toplumun yaşamını sağlıklı sürdürebilmesi için birey her yönü ile dengeli bir beslenme içinde olmalıdır. Bu bakımdan bireyin manevi dünyasının sağlıklı ve dengeli olabilmesi açısından, dini duygu ve düşüncelerinin geliştirilmesi önem arz etmektedir. Bireyin teorik ve pratik din duygusu, toplumun din duygusunu etkilemektedir. Toplumun ihtiyaç ve beklentileri çok yönlüdür ve bunların karşılanması toplumun devam ve huzurunda önemlidir. Eğitimin en belirgin özelliği toplumsal yönünün olmasıdır (Aslan, 2001: 28). Bu nedenle eğitim toplum için vazgeçilmezdir. Ancak eğitimin de gerçekleşebilmesi için mutlaka bir toplumsal zemine ihtiyacı vardır. Toplum kavramı incelenirken eğitim, eğitim kavramı incelenirken de toplum kavramı sürekli başvurulan bir ölçü, hatta bir kontrol mekanizması olarak kabul edilmiştir (Akyüz, 1992: 12).

Eğitim ve toplum kavramlarını salt kendi başlarına ele almak pek mümkün görünmemektedir. Çünkü eğitime toplum içinde bir sınır çizmek oldukça zordur. Eğitim-toplum etkileşimi hem eğitimin varlığının hem de toplumun varlığının sağlıklı devamını sağlar. Eğitim bir yandan toplumu ve bu toplumu meydana getiren çeşitli unsurları işleyerek birbirlerine bağlarken, diğer yandan da yine kendisinin işlediği unsurlardan etkilenerek kendini şekillendirir (Akyüz, 1992: 12).

Eğitim olayının toplumsal yönünün üzerinde durulmaya ve konuşulmaya ihtiyacı vardır. Çünkü eğitim faaliyetlerinin ancak bir toplumsal zemin üzerinde ortaya çıkabilecek ve yürütülebilecek olması eğitime yaklaşımda toplumsal amaçların önemini göstermektedir. Bu noktada eğitimin varlığı doğrudan toplumun varlığına bağlıdır. Toplumun amaç ve ortamından kendini soyutlamış bir eğitim tarihte var olmamıştır. Eğitim açısından toplum bir ana kucağı gibidir. Bu anlamda toplum fertten önce gelen ve onun üstünde bir varlığa sahiptir (Günay, 1992: 33).

Her toplumun yapısının temelinde bir inanç vardır (Özakpınar, 1998: 19). Yani toplum denilen birliktelik yalnızca maddi çıkar ve amaçlarla oluşturulmuş bir beraberlik değildir. Toplum, ortak manevi değerler, inançlar ve kültürün zemininde teşekkül etmiştir. İşte toplumun temelini oluşturan bu manevi unsurların en başında din ve dine bağlı değerler gelmektedir.

Toplumun yapısı, ihtiyaçları ve amaçları eğitimin fonksiyonunda belirleyicidir (Celkan, 1989: 45). Din eğitimi ve öğretimi Türk halkının önemli bir isteği ve ihtiyacıdır (Tosun, 2005: 159). Bu ihtiyacın doğru ve yeterli şekilde karşılanması, karşılığını toplumsal istikrar, hoşgörü ve birlik-beraberlik olarak geri dönüşümünü sağlayacaktır.

Her dinin eğitim yönü bulunmaktadır. Çünkü dinlerin varlıklarını devam ettirebilmeleri yapılacak bir din eğitimi ile mümkündür. Öyleyse bu anlamda eğitim de din de insanı eğitmek ister. Din, insanın yaratılıştan gelen üstün özelliklerinin farkında olarak kendini tanımasını ister. Eğitim, kendi başına kültürel ve manevi değerler oluşturamaz, yalnızca toplumda hazır bulduğu bu unsurları işleyerek kullanmaktadır.

Eğitimin toplum içinde başarılı şekilde sürdürülebilmesi toplumun özelliklerinin dikkate alınmasıyla mümkün olabilecektir. Toplumun yapısının eğitim sistemi ve anlayışı üzerinde etkisi, öğretim programlarında kendini göstermektedir (Aslan, 1998: 28).

1. Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programları

Öğretim programı, okul ya da okul dışında bireye kazandırılması planlanan bir dersin öğretimiyle ilgili tüm faaliyetleri içeren yaşantılar düzeneğidir. Öğretim programı, bir eğitim basamağında çeşitli sınıf ve derslerde ele alınacak konularla ilgili bütün öğretim faaliyetlerini barındırmaktadır (Demirel, 2003: 6). Bir dersin öğretim programında öğrencilere kazandırılacak davranışların neler olduğu belirlendikten sonra bunlardan hangilerinin birlikte, birbirine benzer etkinlikler içinde öğretilebileceği ele alınır ve program hazırlanır. Öğretim programında yer alan hedef, içerik, eğitim durumu ve sınama süreçleri; öğretim sürecini, öğretim etkinliklerini ve öğretmen davranışlarını etkilemektedir.

İlk ve Ortaöğretim Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programlarında son 30 yıl içerisinde birtakım değişiklikler yapılmıştır. Talim Terbiye Kurulu'nun 08.12.1981 gün ve 213 sayılı kararı ile "Din ve Ahlak Bilgisi Dersi" olarak birleştirilen ve 21.10.1982 tarih ve 139 sayılı karar ile adı "Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi" olarak değiştirilen dersin programı 28 Mart 1982 tarihli Tebliğler Dergisinde yayınlanarak yürürlüğe girmiştir. 1982'den sonra dersin programındaki ilk ciddi değişiklik, Talim Terbiye Kurulu'nun 28.02.1992 tarih ve 47 sayılı kararı ile gerçekleşmiş, İlk ve Ortaöğretim Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programları yenilenmiştir. 2000 yılına gelindiğinde ise İlköğretim Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programı kurulun 373 sayılı kararı gereğince tekrar değiştirilmiş ve 2000-2001 eğitim-öğretim yılından itibaren uygulamaya konulmuştur. Bu tarihten sonra İlköğretim Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programı 28.12.2006 tarih ve 410 sayılı karar ile tekrar değiştirilmiştir. Ortaöğretim Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programı ise 1992'den yaklaşık 13 yıl sonra kurulun 31.03.2005 tarih ve 16 sayılı kararıyla değiştirilmiştir (Kaymakcan, 2009: 33). Şuan uygulama olan İlköğretim Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programı Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu'nun 30.12.2010 gün ve 328 sayılı kararı ile Ortaöğretim Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programı ise kurulun 30.12.2010 gün ve 329 sayılı kararı ile 2011-2012 öğretim yılında uygulanmaya başlanmıştır.

Programlarda din öğretiminin amacı; "yetişmekte olan nesle din hakkında doğru bilgi vermek, gençleri bilinçlendirmek, gençlerin, özellikle inanç ve hayat konusundaki tercihlerini özgür olarak yapabilmelerini sağlamak" şeklinde ifade edilmektedir. Bu amaca uygun olarak din öğretiminin, "öğrencinin akıl yürütme gücünü kullanarak varlıklar içindeki konumunu belirlemesine katkıda bulunacağı" söylenmektedir (MEB, 2010: 3; MEB, 2010a: 5). Din öğretiminde öncelikle dikkat edilmesi gereken hususların insana, düşünceye, hürriyete, ahlaki olana ve kültürel mirasa saygı temelinde olacağı vurgulanmaktadır. Bu beş temelin gereği olarak din öğretiminin ezberletici ve nakilci bir yaklaşımla yapılmasının mümkün olmadığı, dünya ve insanın değişmekte olduğu ifade edilerek, din öğretiminde öğrencinin dini bilincinin gelişmesini sağlayacak şartları oluşturma ve öğrenciye hayatın problemlerini çözebilmesinde yardımcı olacak yolları gösterme" yaklaşımı benimsenmiştir (MEB, 2010: 5; MEB, 2010a: 6).

Sosyal açıdan öğretim programlarına baktığımızda din öğretiminin birtakım sosyal temellerinin olduğu öğretim programlarında ifade edilmektedir. Örneğin ilköğretim din kültürü ve ahlak bilgisi dersi öğretim programında din öğretimin toplumsal temeli şu şekilde açıklanmaktadır: "İnsan toplumsal bir varlıktır. Eğitimden beklenen vazgeçilmez görevlerden birisi de nesilleri sosyalleştirmesidir. Sosyalleştirme kısaca, "bireylerin içinde yaşadıkları topluma uyumlarını sağlama" şeklinde tanımlanabilir. Hangi görevde ve sosyal faaliyette bulunursak bulunalım, arkadaşlık ve komşuluk ilişkilerinde bile davranışlarımıza yön veren inanışlarımızı karşılıklı tanımak ve onları hesaba katmak durumundayız. Bu bakımdan sadece kendi inandığımız dini değil, çevremizdeki dinleri, dinî anlayış ve yaşayış şekillerini de tanımak ve göz önünde bulundurmamız gerekir (MEB, 2010: 6)."

Diğer taraftan ortaöğretim din kültürü ve ahlak bilgisi dersi öğretim programında ise din öğretiminin sosyal temeli şu şekilde ifade edilmektedir: "Eğitimin toplumsal temeli veya amacı, davranışlarımızla sorumlu veya davranışlarını tanımak durumunda olduğumuz toplumsal çevreye, İslam ahlakı yolu ile yaklaşabilmektir. Hangi görevde ve sosyal faaliyette bulunursak bulunalım, arkadaşlık ve komşuluk ilişkilerinde bile davranışlarımıza yön veren inanışlarımızı karşılıklı tanımak ve onları hesaba katmak durumundayız. Bu bakımdan sadece kendi inandığımız dini değil, çevremizdeki dinleri, dini anlayış ve yaşayış şekillerini de tanımak ve göz önünde bulundurmak durumundayız (MEB, 2010a: 8)."

2. Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretim Programlarının Sosyal Amaçları

İlk ve ortaöğretim din kültürü ve ahlak bilgisi dersi öğretim programlarında bir takım sosyal amaçlar belirlenmiştir. İlköğretim din kültürü ve ahlak bilgisi dersi öğretim programı öğrencilerin; (1) toplumsal olarak yaşanan dini ve ahlaki davranışları

tanımalarını, (2) toplumdaki farklı dini anlayış ve yaşayışların sosyal bir olgu olduğu bilincine varmalarını, (3) başkalarının inanç ve yaşayışlarına hoşgörü ile yaklaşmalarını, (4) toplum içindeki hurafelere dayalı sağlıksız dini oluşumları ayırt etmelerini, (5) fiziki ve toplumsal çevreyi koruma bilincine ulaşmalarını hedeflemektedir (MEB, 2010: 13).

Ortaöğretim din kültürü ve ahlak bilgisi dersi öğretim programı ise öğrencilerin; (1) evrensel barış kültürünün yerleşmesinde ve hoşgörü ortamının oluşturulmasında dinin katkıda bulunabileceğini benimsemelerini, (2) toplumdaki farklı dini anlayış ve yaşayışların sosyal bir olgu olduğunun bilincine varmalarını, (3) toplumdaki dini ve ahlaki davranışları tanımalarını, (4) dinin, kültürü oluşturan unsurlardan biri ve diğer unsurlar üzerinde etkili olduğunu fark etmelerini, (5) küreselleşen dünyada dinin birleştirici bir rolünün olduğunu kavramalarını hedeflemektedir (MEB, 2010a: 13).

3. Türkiye'de Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretiminin Örtük Sosyal Amaçları

3.1. Dini Sosyalleşme

İnsan sosyal bir varlıktır. İnsanın varlığı ancak sosyal bir yaşam içinde anlamlı olmaktadır. Toplumsal yaşama uyma, toplumsallaşma ve toplumsal kültürü içselleştirme eğitimin temel fonksiyonlarındandır. İnsan öncelikle aile içinde dil öğretimi ile başlayan sosyalleşmesi, daha sonra toplum içinde farklı kurum ve gruplarla devam etmektedir.

Sosyalleşme, bireyin içinde yaşadığı grubun, toplumun, kültürün ve medeniyetin inançları, bilgileri, değerleri, modelleri ve sembolleri gibi o gruba, topluma, kültüre ve medeniyetine mahsus duyuş, düşünüş, yapış ve inanış biçimlerini alması ve bunları kendi içinde içselleştirerek şahsiyetine mal etmesi ve böylece çevresine uyum sağlama süreci olarak değerlendirilmektedir (Günay, 1981: 193). Bu anlamda sosyalleşme, insanın kültürel hayatı öğrenmesi ve ona uyum sağlaması yönü ile bir eğitim ve öğretim meselesidir.

Dini sosyalleşme, sosyalleşme kavramının din eğitimine aktarılmasından ortaya çıkmıştır. Dini sosyalleşme, dini olanla şekillenmiş davranış tarzının benimsenmesini ifade etmektedir (Fraas, 2002: 237).

Din eğitiminin insanın toplumsallaşmasında, iki önemli yardım sağlaması beklenebilir. Bunlardan birincisi, dini etkinliklere katılmak isteyenlere gerekli davranışları öğreterek hazırlık sağlanmasıdır. İkincisi ise toplumda dini eğitime sahip olmadığı için, ritüeller başta olmak üzere çeşitli dini etkinlikleri yapamayan ve bu yüzden sıkıntıya düşen yanlış uygulamalara kapılan ve hatta başkalarının istismarına maruz kalan insanlara yardımcı olmaktır (Tosun, 2005: 97-98).

3.2. Dini Kültürleme

Sahip olunan maddi ve manevi kültürel değerlerin yeni nesillere aktarılıp benimsetilmesi ve bunları ilerletecek kabiliyet ve ideallerin kazandırılmasına kültürleme denir (Tosun, 2005: 98). Kültür bir toplumun yapısı hakkında önemli bilgiler verir. Toplumun maddi ve manevi değerleri kültür içinde kendini gösterir. Öyle ki toplumda genel olarak kültürü oluşturan baskın unsurlar; manevi değerler, temel inançlar, ahlaki değerler ve yargılar, örf ve adetlerdir.

Eğitimin amaçları arasında bireyin yaşadığı toplumun kültürel unsurlarını fark edip tanıyarak onların geleceğe taşınmasının sağlanması bulunmaktadır. Geçmişin büyük kültürel geleneğini taşıyan dinin eğitim yolu ile günümüze aktarılması, din eğitiminin bir kültürleme rolü olduğunu göstermektedir. Geçmişin zengin mirasının bu şekilde bireylere aktarılması bazı yanlış anlama ve kabullerin ortaya çıkmasına engel olmaktadır. Çünkü din eğitiminin görevi yalnızca bu kültürlemeyi sağlamak değil, sorgulayarak neyin din temelli ve neyin sosyo¬kültürel temelli olduğu gerçeğini fark etmesini sağlamak olmalıdır (Akyürek, 2004: 182).

Eğitim belli bir kültür ortamında gerçekleşir. Türk kültürüne kaynaşmış İslami kültürel unsurların tanıtılıp ve eğitim yolu ile aktarılmasında din eğitiminin yapabileceği görevler vardır. Din eğitimi de din kültürünün verilmesi, dini kişiliğin kazandırılması olduğu için dini kültürlenmenin uygun ve dengeli bir şekilde gerçekleşmesi öncelikle din eğitimi ile mümkün olabilir.

3.3. Sosyal Uyum ve Bütünleşmeye Katkı Sağlama

Toplum, içinde menfaat iştirakleri bulunan aynı ruha ve gayeye yönelmiş insan topluluğudur. Toplum kavramı birlik, beraberlik ve bütünleşme gibi olumlu anlamları barındırmaktadır. Yani toplum olmanın doğal bir sonucu olarak toplumda kurum ve grupların uyumu beklenmektedir.

Toplumların devamı, toplumun uyum ve beraberliği ile mümkündür. Bu nokta da öncelikle ele alınması gereken konu sosyal bütünleşmedir. Sosyal bütünleşme, bir toplum ve sosyal grup içinde hâkim olan kültürel değerlerin toplumu meydana getiren

fertler tarafından alınarak, kendilerine mal edilmesi ve böylece fertlerin toplumun sosyo-kültürel değerlerini kazanarak onunla uyumlu bir şekilde yaşama durumuna gelme süreçlerini ifade etmektedir (Günay, 1989: 3).

Toplumun bütünleşmesi toplumda bireylerin ortak bilinç halinde hareket etmelerini sağlar. Bu hareket noktası toplumun istikrarı için gereklidir. Tarihten günümüze baktığımızda genel olarak her toplumun temelinde ortak inanç ve değerler görülmektedir.

Toplumda birlikteliğin temelinde siyasi, ekonomik, kültürel ve tarihsel olmak üzere birçok etken vardır. Ancak bunların başında din gelmektedir.

İnsan içinde yaşadığı toplumun huzurlu olmasını ister. Din eğitiminin bir amacı da bireyin toplumsal norm ve düzene uyum sağlaması ve toplumsal bütünleşme içerisine girmesidir. Din, toplumun bütünleşmesi için gerekli olan değeri, hoşgörüyü, birlik ve beraberliği sunar.

İslam dini temelde milli birlik ve bütünleşmemizin vazgeçilmez unsurudur (Günay, 1989: 13). İslam dininin birlik çağrısı insanlar arasında dil, renk, kültür ve millet ayırt etmeksizin herkesi kapsayıcıdır. İslam genel bir yaklaşım olarak hep insanların ve insanlığın birliğini ister.

Bu noktada dinin eğitim aracılığıyla insanlara doğru ve sağlıklı bir şekilde ulaşması önem arz etmektedir. Dinin kardeşlik vurgusu zaten toplumda temeli var olan birlik ve beraberlik ruhunu canlandıracak; çatışma, hoşgörüsüzlük ve ayrışmaların önüne geçecektir. Toplumsal dayanışma birlik, huzur ve refah açısından son derece önemlidir.

Toplumun var oluşu bir anlamda istikrarın da varlığı demektir. Sosyal ilişkilerin işbirliği içinde olması, toplumsal yapıların ahenkli şeklinde sürdürülmesi ancak toplumun manevi değer ve normlarının birleştirici ve bağlayıcı gücüyle gerçekleşebilir (Parladır, 1987: 27). Bu anlamda toplumun değerlerinden uzak yaşayan bir insan aynı zamanda toplum ve toplumdaki insanlardan uzaklaşmaktadır (Akıncı, 2004: 25).

Sosyal hayatımızdan bireysel tercihlerimize kadar etkili olan İslami duygu ve düşüncenin yeni kuşaklara telkin edilmesi ve bunun yanında dinin toplum hayatımızdaki istikrar sağlayıcı katkısı da dikkate alındığında din eğitimi, sosyal bir zorunluluk arz etmektedir.

Din eğitiminin belirgin bir görevi olan bireylere dini ve ahlaki değerler kazandırma işlevi, aynı zamanda bireylerden hareketle bu denge ve bütünlüğün toplumun huzur ve mutluluğa ulaşmasını sağlanmasında etkin bir rol oynamaktadır.

3.4. Din Eğitiminin Sosyal Barışa Katkısı

Din eğitiminin toplumsal yansımalarının önemli bir noktasını sosyal barış oluşturmaktadır. İslam dinindeki temel ibadetlerin her birinin toplumsal barış ve huzurun teminine büyük katkıları bulunmaktadır. İslam'da temel ibadet olan namaz, özellikle cemaatle kılınması zorunlu olan cuma, bayram ve cenaze namazları, bunun yanında yine birlikte kılınması tavsiye edilen beş vakit namaz insanlar arasında birlikte yaşama ve dayanışma bilincini geliştirmektedir. Ayrıca, amacı doğrudan sosyal yardımlaşmayı sağlayarak toplumsal barışın gerçekleşmesini mümkün kılmak olan zekât ve sadaka, ekonomik hayatı, sosyal ve manevi hayatla bütünleştirmektedir (Özdemir, 2004: 237). Farklı kültür, ırk, renk ve dile sahip insanlar arasında inanca dayalı kardeşlik bilinci oluşturmayı amaçlayan İslam dini, bunu en güzel şekilde hac ibadeti ile gerçekleştirir. Böylece hac ibadeti, toplumlar arası barış ve kardeşliğin sağlanmasına da büyük bir katkı sağlamaktadır.

Din eğitimine toplumsal çatışma ve gerginlikleri önleyip yerine toplumsal hoşgörü ve barışın ikame edilmesine katkı sağlama konusunda büyük görevler düşmektedir (Aydın, 2001: 119). İnsanların birbirlerini tanımlarında, birbirlerinin inanç ve değerlerine saygı göstermelerinde okullardaki din öğretimi önemli fonksiyonlar icra etmektedir. Ayrıca, dini bilen ve anlayan insanların farklı din ve inanışta olanlarla ilişkilerinin nasıl olması gerektiği de sağlıklı bir din eğitimi ile kazandırılabilir.

Sonuç

Din, toplumsal yaşamın önemli olgularından birisidir. Günlük hayat içerisinde dinle ilgili durum ve olayların yoğun olarak yer alması, dinin toplumsal bir varlık olduğunu göstermektedir. Din ile insan arasındaki ilişki, tarihin ilk dönemlerinden günümüze kadar varlığı sürdürmüştür ve dini öğretilerin nesilden nesile aktarımı şeklinde dinin eğitimi de din-insan ilişkisi kadar eskiye dayanmaktadır. Türkiye'de ilk ve ortaöğretimde din kültürü ve ahlak bilgisi dersleri ile öğrencilere birtakım sosyal kazanımlar sunulmaya çalışılmaktadır. Din kültürü ve ahlak bilgisi öğretim programlarının geliştirilmesinde ve özellikle de okullarda din öğretiminde din, toplum ve kültür olguları birlikte değerlendirilmekte ve öğretim programlarında da açık ve örtük bir şekilde din öğretiminin sosyal amaçları ifade edilmektedir. Din öğretiminin açık şekilde ifade edilen

toplumsal amaçları genel olarak; dini ve ahlaki davranışları tanıma, toplumdaki farklı dini anlayış ve yaşayışların sosyal bir olgu olduğu bilincine varma ve başkalarının inanç ve yaşayışlarına hoşgörü ile yaklaşma konularına yoğunlaşırken, örtük amaçları ise; dini sosyalleşme ve dini kültürlemeyi mümkün kılma, sosyal uyum ve sosyal barışa katkı sağlamayı içermektedir.

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Öğretmen Adaylarının Öğretmenlik Öz-yeterlik Algılarının Bazı Değişkenlere Göre İncelenmesi

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Özet

Bu çalışma fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algılarının cinsiyet, sosyoekonomik düzey, sınıf düzeyi, kitap okuma alışkanlığı ve mezun oldukları lise türüne göre farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını belirlemek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Çalışma 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılı güz döneminde Pamukkale üniversitesi eğitim fakültesi fen bilgisi öğretmenliğinde öğrenim görmekte olan 384 öğretmen adayıyla yürütülmüştür. Araştırmanın verileri 24 madde ve üç alt boyuttan oluşan öğretmen öz-yeterlik ölçeği ve demografik bilgiler ölçeği ile toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının cinsiyetlerinin öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algıları üzerinde bir farklılık oluşturmadığı, sınıf düzeylerinin sınıf seviyesi arttıkça pozitif yönde öğretmen öz-yeterlik düzeylerinin arttığı, kitap okuma alışkanlığında ise kitap okuma alışkanlığı olan lehine öğretmen adaylarında, öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algılarında öğrenci meşguliyeti alt boyutunda ve toplamda anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Bunun yanı sıra gelir düzeyi arttıkça öğretmen adaylarında öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algısının öğretim yöntemleri alt boyutu dışında pozitif ve anlamlı bir şekilde artması ve mezun oldukları lise türü bakımından da sınıf yönetimi alt boyutunda süper lise ve düz lise arasındaki farkın süper lise lehine anlamlı olduğu dikkati çeken bir diğer sonuçlardır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: öğretmen öz-yeterlik algısı, öğretmen adayı, öğretmen eğitimi

Giriş

Geçmişten günümüze önemini hiçbir zaman yitirmeyen, gerekliliği ve gelişimi her daim önemsenen, bir neslin yapılandırılmasının mimarı olan meslektir öğretmenlik. Öğretmenlik mesleğine ve öğretmene yönelik geçmişten günümüze gelinceye kadar, yüklenen görev ve toplumun beklentilerine paralel olarak çeşitli tanımlamalar yapılmıştır. Yapılan tanımlamalar öğretmenin öğretimden sorumlu birey olmasından öğrencilere rehber olan kişi arasında değişim göstermektedir. Toplumu şekillendirme gücüne sahip olan bu mesleği yerine getirecek kişilerin mesleğe yönelik öz-yeterlik algıları oldukça önem arz etmektedir. Son yıllarda ulusal ve uluslar arası alanda öğretmenlik mesleğiyle ilgili pek çok sayıda akademik yayın ve çalışma yapılmış ve yapılmaktadır. Bu çalışmada fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının dört yıllık lisans eğitimi boyunca öğretmen öz-yeterlik algılarının nasıl bir değişim geçirdiğini ve hangi değişkenlerin bu değişimde rol oynadığını incelenmektedir.

Bireyin karşılaşması olası durumlar ile başa çıkabilmek için gerekli olan eylemleri ne kadar iyi yapabilmesine ilişkin inançları (Bandura, 1997) olarak tanımlanan öz-yeterlik algısı, öğretmenlik mesleğindeki başarıyı etkileyen önemli içsel faktörlerden birini oluşturmaktadır. Bu nedenle öğretmenlik mesleğindeki başarı için öncelikle bu değişkenin üzerinde durmak gerekli görülmektedir.

Özyeterlik kavramı, Bandura'nın Sosyal-Bilişsel Kuramı içinde tanımladığı bir kendini gerçekleştirme inancıdır. Bandura (1997), öz-yeterlik inancını bireylerin belirlenen eylemleri gerçekleştirebilmek için gerekli olan basamakları düzenleme ve gerçekleştirme konusunda kendi yeterliliğine yönelik inancı biçiminde tanımlar. Sosyal-bilişsel kurama göre, bireylerin davranışları, bireysel özellikleri (bilişsel, duygusal ve fiziksel) ve çevresel unsurlar arasında karşılıklı bir belirleyicilik bulunmaktadır. Bireylerin karşılaştıkları olası durumlarda kendi etkinliklerini yönetmelerinde, bu üç unsurun farklı düzeylerdeki etkileşimleri öz-yeterlik durumları için belirleyicidir. Bundan dolayı birey sadece çevresel faktörlerin etkisiyle davranışları belirlenen pasif bir nesne değildir (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 2002). Bireylerin sahip olduğu öz-yeterlik inançları, onların istekliliğini, hedeflere ulaşma adımlarını, güdülenme düzeylerini ve karşılaştıkları zorluklara rağmen yılmamalarını, analitik düşünme becerilerini, başarı ve başarısızlığın nedenleri hakkındaki düşüncelerini, stres ve depresyona karşı dayanıklılıklarını etkileyen bir durumdur (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara ve Pastorelli, 1996).

Öğretmen özyeterliği,, Bandura'nın (1997) özyeterlik kavramına dayanır ve Bandura öğretmen öz-yeterliğini bir öz-yeterlik türü olarak tanımlamaktadır ve son yıllarda öğretmen eğitimiyle ilgili çalışmalarda önemli bir yer edinmiştir. Tschannen–

Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001: 783 öğretmen öz-yeterliğini, "Bir öğretmenin öğrencilerin yeterince güdülenmiş olmadığı durumlarda bile öğrenmelerinde arzu edilen sonuçları elde edebileceğine yönelik inançları" olarak ifade etmiştir. Bu tanımlamalara dikkat edildiğinde öğretmen özyeterlik algısı öğretmenin öğrencilerine hedef koymakta ve öğrenme ürünlerini bilinçli yapılandırılmasında ve öğrenci yada eğitim ortamlarıyla ilgili herhangi bir engelle karşılaştığında dirençli olmalarında eltili olan en önemli güç olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

 Coladarci (1992) güçlü bir öğretmen öz-yeterlik inancının öğretmenleri mesleğe karşı daha bağlı, karşılaşılan sorunların çözümünde daha sabırlı, meslektaş ve veli etkileşiminde daha verimli, iletişim becerileri konusunda daha gelişmiş bireyler haline getirdiğini ifade etmektedir. Bandura (1997),öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algısı yüksek öğretmenlerin öğrencileri güdülemek için daha çok çaba sarf ettiğini, akademik işlere daha çok zaman ayırdığı ve başarıyı artırabildiğini, Cousins & Walker (2000), öz-yeterlik inançları yüksek olan öğretmenlerin yeni fikirlere daha açık, öğretimde yeni yöntemleri denemeye daha istekli olduğunu belirtmiştir. Palmer (2006), öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algısı düşük olan öğretmenlerin öğretime ve öğrencilerine daha az zaman ayırdığını, öğrencileri güdülemeye yeterince zaman ayırmadığı ve baskıcı bir tavır sergilediğini ifade etmektedir. Öğretmenlerinde geçmişte öğrenci oldukları varsayılarak bu olayın bir döngü olduğu ve meslek yaşantılarındaki algı eksikliğinin öğrencilik yıllarına dayandırılabileceği ifade edilebilir. Nitekim Chiang (2004). Öğretmenlerin öğrencilik süreçlerinde edindikleri kişisel hedef yönelimlerinin, onların öğretmenliğe yönelik hedef yönelimlerini belirlediğini ifade etmiştir.

Öğretmenlerin öz-yeterlik inançları onların eğitim-öğretim sürecine yönelik motivasyonları ve güdülenmişleri ile ilişkilidir. Öğretmenin öğretmeye ilişkin motivasyonu ve güdülenmesi arttıkça öğretmenin öğrenme faaliyetlerine ayırdığı zaman daha nitelikli olacaktır. Öğretmen, sınıf içindeki öğrenme öğretme faaliyetleri üzerinde belirleyici role sahiptir ve bu yapılar öğrencilerin kişisel hedef yönelimlerinin ve akademik öz-yeterlik algılarının belirlenmesinde etkilidir (Wolters ve Daugherty, 2007). Bundan dolayı öğrenci başarısı ile öğretmenin öz-yeterlik algısı arasında doğrudan bir ilişki olduğu söylenebilir.

Öz-yeterlik algısı bireylerin yaşamlarındaki seçimleri üzerinde de belirleyici role sahiptir. Diğer bir deyişle, bireyler çoğunlukla kendilerini yetkin hissettikleri etkinliklere katılma, yetkin hissetmedikleri etkinliklerden ise kaçınma eğilimindedirler. Bu davranış kalıbının yaşla birlikte daha açık bir biçimde sergilendiği ve üniversite düzeyindeki seçimlerde oldukça etkili olduğu söylenebilir (Pajares, 2005). Öğretmen adaylarının, öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik eğitim süreçlerinde, bir yandan öğrenci olmalarından kaynaklanan akademik güdülenme yaklaşımlarını sürdürürken, diğer yandan da aldıkları mesleki eğitim aracılığıyla gelecekteki öğretmenlik deneyimlerini biçimlendirecek öğretmen modelini zihinlerinde yapılandırmaktadırlar. Bu süreçte öğretmen adayları, edindikleri öğrencilik deneyimleri sayesinde nitelikli öğrenmeyi tasarlarken, aynı zamanda öğretmenlik yönelik özyeterlik algılarını da biçimlendirmektedirler.

Öğretmen öz-yeterliği, öğrenci başarısı ve nitelikli öğretmen özellikleriyle bağlantılı olduğundan, hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitiminin öz-yeterliği geliştirici biçimde yürütülmesi de gerekli görünmektedir. Nitekim öz-yeterlik, öğrenmenin başlangıç aşamalarında daha esnek olduğundan, öğretmen öz-yeterliğinin gelişiminde en güçlü etkilerin hizmet öncesi eğitim ve ilk öğretmenlik yılındaki deneyimlerde olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Türkiye'de yapılan çalışmalara bakıldığında, son yıllarda öğretmenlik mesleğine ilişkin öz-yeterlikle ilgili yapılan çalışmaların hızla arttığı (Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu (2003); Diken ve Özokçu (2004); Demirel ve Üstündağ (2006); Ekici (2006a ve 2006b); Bümen, (2009); Saracaloğlu ve Yenice, (2009); Gürbüztürk ve Şad (2009); Üstüner, Demirtaş, Cömert ve Özer, (2009),) görülmektedir. Bu çalışmalardan, Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu (2003) Türkiye ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'ndeki öğretmen adaylarının özyeterlik düzeylerini karşılaştırmalı olarak incelemiş, Diken ve Özokçu (2004) özel eğitim alanında çalışan öğretmenler ile diğer öğretmenlerin özyeterlik inançlarını karşılaştırmış, Senemoğlu, Yağcı, Demirel ve Üstündağ (2006) ilköğretim öğretmenlerinin özyeterlik düzeylerini öğretim becerileriyle karşılaştırmış, Ekici (2006a), meslek lisesi öğretmenlerinin özyeterliğini ve (2006b) sınıf yönetimi profilleriyle öğretmen özyeterlik inançları arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmıştır. Gürbüztürk ve Şad (2009) yapılandırmacı öğretmen ile geleneksel öğretmen davranışları ile öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algıları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemiştir.

Bu araştırmanı amacı; öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen öz-yeterlik algı düzeylerini ve bazı değişkenlerin bu düzeyi nasıl etkilediğini incelemektir. Bu genel amaç çerçevesinde aşağıdaki sorulara cevap aranmıştır;

Fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algılarının

a)cinsiyet,

b)sosyoekonomik düzey,

c)sınıf düzeyi,

d)kitap okuma alışkanlığı ve

e)mezun oldukları lise türüne göre farklılık göstermekte midir?

Bu çalışma sonucunda, öğretmen adaylarının hangi hedef yönelimleri doğrultusunda öğretmenlik mesleğine yönelik pozitif tavır sergiledikleri, sergiledikleri tavır ile birlikte sahip oldukları öğretmenlik öz-yeterlik algılarının öğretmelik mesleğine yönelik verilen eğitimin çerçevesinin çizilmesindeki önemi hakkında bilgi edinmelerinin sağlanması hedeflenmiştir. Diğer bir hedef ise öğretmenlik mesleğine pozitif bakmayan geleceğin otoriter öğretmenlerini oluşturacak aday öğretmelerin öğrenmeyle uyumlu özelliklerinin geliştirilebilmesi ve meslek algılarını yeniden gözden geçirmeleri konusunda öngörü kazanmaları beklenmektedir.

Yöntem

Araştırma Modeli

Araştırma modeli, araştırmada amaca uygun olan verilerin toplanması ve çözümlenebilmesi için araştırmacıya yol gösterir. Araştırmalarda ele alınan soruya yanıt verecek olan uygun yöntemin; dolayısıyla araştırma modelinin belirlenmesidir. (Tanrıöğen, 2009). Bu çalışmada, var olan durumu betimlemek amacıyla tarama modeli kullanılmıştır. Geçmişte ya da o anda var olan bir durumu var olduğu şekliyle betimlemeyen, tanımlamayı amaçlayan araştırma yaklaşımıdır. Bu modelde, araştırmaya konu olan her neyse onları değiştirme ve etkileme çabası yoktur. Bilinmek istenen şey ortadadır. Amaç o şeyi doğru bir şekilde gözlemleyip belirleyebilmektir. Asıl amaç değiştirmeye kalkmadan gözlemektir (Karasar, 2000).

Çalışma Grubu

Bu çalışma 2011-2012 eğitim öğretim yılı bahar döneminde Pamukkale Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Fen Bilgisi öğretmenliğinde öğrenim görmekte olan 384 öğretmen adayıyla yürütülmüştür. Çalışma kapsamında, öğretmenlik özyeterlik algıları ölçeği ve demografik özellikler anketi uygulanmıştır. Araştırmaya katılım gönüllük esasına dayandığından, katılmak istemeyen öğretmen adayları araştırma kapsamı dışında tutulmuştur. Araştırma için katılımcılardan sözel izin alınmıştır. Tablo 1'de araştırmaya katılan öğretmen adaylarının tanıtıcı özelliklere verdikleri yanıtların sayısal ve yüzdesel değerleri verilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Araştırmada iki adet veri toplama aracı kullanılmıştır. Birincisi öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgilerini açıklamaya yönelik 15 maddelik tanıtıcı özellikler formu diğeri ise 24 maddelik öğretmen öz-yeterlik algıları ölçeğidir.

Tanıtıcı Özellikler Formu, öğrencilerin tanıtıcı özelliklerini belirlemek amacıyla araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen 15 soru maddesi içermektedir. Bu form öğretmen adaylarının kendilerini, yetiştikleri aile ortamını ve sosyo-ekonomik düzeylerini tanımak amacıyla oluşturulmuştur. Bu amaçla öğretmen adaylarının cinsiyeti, sınıf düzeyi, mezun olduğu lise türü, akademik ortalamaları, kitap okuma alışkanlığı gibi sorular yöneltilmiştir.

Öğretmen öz-yeterlik ölçeği 24 madde ve üç alt boyuttan oluşan uyarlama bir ölçektir.Bu ölçeğin Türkçeye adaptasyonu, geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması Çapa, Çakıroğlu ve Sarıkaya (2005) tarafından yapılmıştır. Ölçek orijinalinde 9'lu Likert tipinde toplam 24 madde içermektedir. Ancak bu çalışma kapsamında beşli tipinde olarak kullanılmıştır. Ölçek Tamamen Katılıyorum (5), Katılıyorum (4), Kararsızım (3), Katılmıyorum (2) ve Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum (1) şeklinde sıralanan skaladan oluşmaktadır Boyutların adlandırılmaları öğrenci meşguliyeti, öğretim stratejileri ve sınıf yönetimi olarak yapılmıştır. Her bir boyutta 8'er madde yer almaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının bu ölçekten alabilecekleri en yüksek puan 120.00 (24x5), en düşük puan 24.00 (24x1)'tür. Ölçeğin boyutlarından ise öğretmen adaylarının alabilecekleri en yüksek puan 40.00 (8x5) en düşük 8.00 (8x1)'dir.

Çapa, Çakıroğlu ve Sarıkaya (2005) tarafından ölçeğin geneli için hesaplanan Cronbach Alpha Güvenirlik Katsayısı, .93 olarak bulunurken, öğrenci meşguliyeti boyutu için .82, öğretim stratejileri boyutu için .86 ve sınıf yönetimi boyutu için .84 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Bu araştırma kapsamında ölçeğin geneli için hesaplanan Cronbach Alpha Güvenirlik Katsayısı, .93 olarak bulunurken, öğrenci meşguliyeti boyutu için .84, öğretim stratejileri boyutu için .84 ve sınıf yönetimi boyutu için .83 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Verilerin Toplanması

2011-2012 eğitim-öğretim yılı Bahar Döneminde Eğitim Fakültesi İlköğretim Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliğinde öğrenim görmekte olan tüm sınıf öğrencilerine, öğretmenlik özyeterlik ölçeği ve tanıtıcı özellikler formu anket şeklinde uygulanmıştır.

Verilerin Analizi

Toplanan veriler arasındaki ilişkinin ortaya çıkarılması için hangi istatistiksel yöntemin kullanılacağına karar vermek amacıyla eldeki verilere tek örneklem Kolmogorov-Smirnov analizi uygulanmıştır. Bu test sonuçlarına göre öğretmenlik özyeterlik algıları ölçeğinin puanlarının toplamda ve tüm alt boyutlarda normal dağılım göstermediği belirlenmiştir (p<0,05). Verilerin Çözümlenmesi Her bir soru için kullanılan 5'li Likert tipi skala, 1'den 5'e kadar puanlanan aralıklardan oluşmaktadır. Her seçeneğe karşılık gelen ölçek seçenekleri ile yapılan puan aralıkları aşağıda verilmiştir. Seçenekler Verilen Puanlar Puan Aralığı; Çok Yüksek- 5 4.20-5.00; Yüksek -4 3.40-4.19; Ortalama- 3 2.60-3.39; Düşük- 2 1.80-2.59; Çok Düşük-1 1.00-1.79 şeklindedir. Çalışmada toplanan veriler üzerinde aritmetik ortalama, standart sapma, tekrarlı ölçümler için tek faktörlü ANOVA ve ikili karşılaştırmalar için ilişkili ölçümlerde t testi yapılmış, analizlerde SPSS 18.00 programından yararlanılmıştır.

Sonuçlar

Bu bölümde araştırmanın amaçları yönünde elde edilen bulgulara yer verilmektedir.

Öğretmen özyeterlik algıları ölçeği öğretmen adaylarına uygulanmış ve sonuçlar ortalama olarak tablo 2 de verilmiştir.

Tabloda görüldüğü üzere öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik algıları ölçeğinden aldıkları toplam puan ortalamaları 91,97 dir. Öğrenci meşguliyeti alt boyutundan 30,67, sınıf yönetimi ve Öğretim yöntemleri alt boyutlarından ise 30,81 olarak belirlenmiştir. Ölçme aracı olarak kullanılan ölçek 5 li likert tipinde kullanılmış ve düzey belirlemek için belirli puan aralıklarından faydalanılmıştır. Beşli ölçme araçlarında Öğretmen adaylarının sahip olduğu öğretmenlik özyeterlik durumlarının toplamda ve tüm alt boyutlarda elde ettikleri puan ortalamalarından yola çıkılarak iyi düzeyde olduğunu söyleyebiliriz.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik algıları puan ortalamalarının cinsiyet değişkenine göre değişip değişmediğini gözlemlemek için öncelikle dağılımın homojenliğini anlamak için Levene testi yapılmış (p>0.05) ve dağılımın ölçeğin bütününde ve alt boyutlarında homojen olduğu görülmüştür. Bu nedenle ortalamalar arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olup olmadığını anlamak için t testi yapılmıştır. T testi sonuçları tablo 3 de verilmiştir.

Bu sonuçlara göre kız ve erkek öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik puan ortalamalarının birbirine yakın olduğu ve istatistiksel olarak da ölçeğin tümünde ve alt boyutlarında anlamlı bir farkın olmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bu sonuca göre öğretmen adaylarının cinsiyet değişkenine göre değişmediği sonucunu çıkarabiliriz.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik algılarının sınıf düzeylerine göre dağılımlarını gösteren tablo 4 te yer alan ortalama puanlar dikkate alındığında en yüksek ortalama puanların birinci sınıfta en düşük puanların ise dördüncü sınıfta yer aldığı görülmektedir. Puanlar arasındaki farkın istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olup olmadığını anlamak için öncelikle homojenlik testi olan Levene testi yapılmıştır. Levene testi sonucunda dağılım ölçeğin tümünde ve alt boyutlarında homojen olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır (p>.05). anlamlı farkın hangi gruplar arasında olduğunu görmek için varyans analizi yapılmış ve sonuçlar Tablo 5 te verilmiştir.

Tabloda yer alan sonuçlara göre gruplar arasındaki fark öğrenci meşguliyeti ve ölçeğin tümünde birinci sınıfla üçüncü sınıf ve dördüncü sınıf arasında ve ikinci sınıf ile dördüncü sınıf arasında birinci sınıf lehine bir farkın olduğu görülmektedir. Sınıf yönetimi ve öğretim yöntemleri alt boyutunda birinci sınıf ile üç ve dördüncü sınıf arasında birinci sınıf lehine anlamlı farklılık olduğu görülmektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının kitap okuma alışkanlıklarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik algıları üzerine etkisi olup olmadığına bakıldığında kitap okuma alışkanlığı olanlar lehine bir farklılık olduğu görülmektedir. Ölçeğin tümünde ve ölçeğin öğrenci meşguliyeti alt boyutlarında kitap okuma alışkanlığı olanlar lehine anlamlı bir farklılık mevcuttur.

Öğretmen adaylarının sosyo ekonomik düzeylerinin öğretmenlik özyeterlik algıları üzerinde geliri yüksek olanlar lehine anlamlı bir farklılık olduğu tablo 7 de görülmektedir.

Elde edilen veriler doğrultusunda öğretmenlik özyeterlik ölçeği öğrenci meşguliyeti , ve sınıf yönetimi alt boyutumda ve ölçeğin tümünde sosyo ekonomik düzey yüksek olan orta ve düşük olana göre anlamlı düzeyde farklılık göstermektedir. Bu farklılık yüksek olan lehine bir durumdur. Öğretim yöntemleri alt boyutunda sosyo ekonomik düzey değişkeni anlamlı bir farklılık meydana getirmemiştir.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik algılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişip değişmediği tablo 8 de verilmiştir.

Bu tabloda görüldüğü üzere öğretmenlik özyeterlik ölçeğinin öğrenci meşguliyeti ve sınıf yönetimi alt boyutlarında ve ölçeğin tamamında süper lise mezunlarının düz lise mezunlarına göre anlamlı düzeyde farklılık gösterdiği belirtilmiştir. Bu farklılık süper lise mezunları lehinedir.

Tartışma

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik algısı puanları 91,97 olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçeğin genelinden öğretmen adaylarının alabileceği maksimum puan 120 dir. Bu puanları karşılaştırdığımızda öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik algılarının ortalamanın üzerinde iyi düzeyde olduğunu göstermektedir. Alan yazında bu konuyla ilgili yapılan birçok araştırmada öğretmenlerin özyeterlik algılarının öğrencilerin motivasyonları öğrenmeleri, akademik başarıları ve sınıf içi etkileşimlerinde etkili olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Bandura (1997), özyeterliği yüksek olan öğretmenlerin, öğrencileri için yüksek nitelikli öğrenme ortamları oluşturduklarını, ancak özyeterliği düşük olan öğretmenlerin sınıf içi etkinlikleri nitelikli kılamamalarına bağlı olarak öğrencilerinin bilişsel gelişimlerine katkı sağlayamadıklarını bildirmektedir. Diğer yandan düşük özyeterlik algısının öğretmenlerin stress, tükenmişlik ve işe katılımları üzerinde de etkisi bulunmaktadır (Pajares ve Schunk, 2002). Öğretmelerin özyeterlik düzeyleri, onların öğretme sürecine yönelik çabalarını, hedeflerini, isteklilikerini, yeni fikirlere açık oluşlarını, öğrencilerin gereksinimlerini karşılamaya yönelik çabalarını belirlemede etkilidir (Tschannen-Moran ve diğ., 1998). Bu sonuçlardan yola çıkılarak fen bilgisi öğretmen adaylarının gelecekte sınıf içi etkileşimi ve öğrenme ortamlarının etkililiğini sağlayacak, motivasyonu yüksek öğretmenler olacağı söylenebilir.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik özyeterlik algısı cinsiyet değişkenine göre bir farklılık oluşturmamıştır. Bu durum alan yazında bir çok çalışmayla desteklenmektedir (Baykara,2011;Altunçekiç, Yaman ve Koray, 2005). Öte yandan Demirtaş, Cömert ve Özer (2011) ise, öğretmen adaylarının özyeterlik algılarının cinsiyet ve öğrenim görülen program türüne göre anlamlı biçimde farklılaştığını, mesleğe yönelik tutumların ise araştırmada ele alınan hiçbir değişkene (cinsiyet, bölüm, öğrenim türü) göre farklılaşmadığını, tespit etmiştir.

Öğretmen adaylarının sınıf seviyesine göre öğretmenlik özyeterlik algılarının farklılık gösterdiği bu farklılığın birinci sınıflar lehine olması araştırmanın ilginç sonuçlarından biridir. Alanyazında yapılan bir çok çalışmada sınıf düzeyinin artmasına parelel olarak öğretmenlik özyeterlik algısı artarken (Baykara,2011;Altunçekiç, Yaman ve Koray, 2005; Demirtaş, Cömert ve Özer,2011) bu çalışmada birinci sınıftan son sınıfa doğru özyeterlik algılarında azalma olması ilginç bir sonuçtur. Bu durum öğretmen adaylarının öğreniminin başında çok istekli olmalarından kaynaklanabileceği düşünülebilir.

Bunun dışında öğretmen adaylarının geçmişten getirdikleri bazı durumlarının sosyo ekonomik düzey yada mezun oldukları okul türü gibi meslek yaşantılarında etkili olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Sosyo ekonomik düzey bireylerin tercihleri dışında var olan bir durumdur. Bu durum öğretmenlik mesleğini tercih eden aday öğretmenlerin elinde olana bir durum değildir. Ancak birey meslek yaşantısında bunun farkında olursa özyeterlik algısı bakımından kendisinde gerekli düzenlemeleri yapabilir. Mezun olduğu lise türü bakımından da bir farklılık mevcuttur. Beklenen durum öğretmen liselerinin diğer liselere oranla özyeterlik düzey bakımından yüksek olması yönündedir. Ancak bu farklılık beklenilen yönde olmamıştır.

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Tablolar

Tablo 1. Katılımcıların Demografik Bilgileri

	Demografik Nitelik	N	%
Cinsiyet	Kız	274	71,4
	Erkek	110	28,6
Sınıf Düzeyi	1. Sınıf	71	18,5
	2. Sınıf	105	27,3
	3. Sınıf	116	30,2
	4. Sınıf	89	23,2
Mezun Oldukları Lise Türü	Düz Lise	201	52,3
	Süper Lise	57	14,8
	Anadolu Lisesi	100	27,1

	Öğretmen Lisesi	4	1
	Özel Lise	7	1,8
	Yabancı Dil Ağırlıklı	5	1,3
Ailenizin Ekonomik Durumu	yüksek	6	1,6
	orta	347	90,3
	düşük	31	8,1
Kitap Okuma Alışkanlığı	evet	280	73
	hayır	104	27

Tablo 2.Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen özyeterlik algısı Puanları

	N	Ortalama	SS
Öğrenci Meşguliyeti	384	30,67	4,28
Sınıf Yönetimi	384	30,81	4,39
Öğretim Yöntemleri	384	30,81	4,39
Toplam	384	91,97	4,39

Tablo 3.Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen özyeterlik ölçeğinin Cinsiyet değişkenine ait t testi sonuçları

grup	N	X	SS	t	p
Kız	274	91,77	11,15	-,523	,601
Erkek	110	92,46	12,90		

Tablo 4. Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen özyeterlik algılarının Sınıf düzeyine göre dağılımı

	Birinci sınıf			İkinci sınıf			Üçüncü sınıf			Dördüncü sınıf		
	N	Ort.	SS	N	Ort.	SS	N	Ort.	SS	N	Ort.	SS
Öğrenci Meşguliyeti	71	31,77	4,79	105	31,48	3,69	116	29,93	4,27	92	29,83	4,18
Sınıf Yönetimi		32,39	44,84		31,41	3,94		30,03	4,13		29,89	4,45
Öğretim Yöntemleri		31,73	5,12		30,96	3,95		30,01	3,93		29,61	3,84
Toplam		95,90	13,66		93,85	10,23		89,97	10,85		89,33	11,52

Tablo 5. Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen özyeterlik algılarının Sınıf düzeyine göre farklılığını gösteren Anova tablosu

	Kaynak	Kareler Toplamı	df	Kareler Ortalaması	F	p	Anlamlı Farklılık
Öğrenci Meşguliyeti	Gruplar Arası	283,747	3	94,582	5,349	,001	1>3, 1>4
	Gruplar İçi	6719,251	380	17,682			2>4

	Toplam	7002,997	383				
Sınıf Yönetimi	Gruplar Arası	364,939	3	121,646	6,587	,000	1>3,1>4
	Gruplar İçi	7018,184	380	18,469			
	Toplam	7383,122	383				
Öğretim Yöntemleri	Gruplar Arası	231,309	3	77,103	4,459	,004	1>3,1>4
	Gruplar İçi	6570,668	380	17,291			
	Toplam	6801,977	383				
Özyeterlik	Gruplar Arası	2576,734	3	858,911	6,585	,000	1>3, 1>4
	Gruplar İçi	49563,951	380	130,431			2>4
	Toplam	52140,685	383				

Tablo 6. Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen özyeterlik algılarının Kitap Okuma Alışkanlığı göre farklılığını gösteren tablo

	Kitap okuma	N	X	SS	t	p
Öğrenci Meşguliyeti	evet	280	31,08	3,98	3,112	,002
	hayır	104	29,57	4,84		
Sınıf Yönetimi	evet	280	31,02	4,23	1,551	,121
	hayır	104	30,24	4,78		
Öğretim Yöntemleri	evet	280	30,65	3,99	1,232	,212
	hayır	104	30,06	4,76		
Toplam	evet	280	92,75	10,87	2,166	,031
	hayır	104	89,87	13,41		

Tablo 7. Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen özyeterlik algılarının Sosyo Ekonomik Düzeylerine göre farklılığını gösteren Anova tablosu

	Kaynak	Kareler Toplamı	df	Kareler Ortalaması	F	p	Anlamlı Farklılık
Öğrenci Meşguliyeti	Gruplar Arası	123,296	2	61,648	3,414	,034	Yüksek >orta, Yüksek >düşük
	Gruplar İçi	6879,702	381	18,057			
	Toplam	7002,997	383				
Sınıf Yönetimi	Gruplar Arası	151,387	2	75,693	3,988	,019	Yüksek >orta, Yüksek >düşük,
	Gruplar İçi	7231,736	381	18,981			
	Toplam	7383,122	383				
Öğretim Yöntemleri	Gruplar Arası	82,992	2	41,496	2,353	,096	
	Gruplar İçi	6718,984	381	17,635			
	Toplam	6801,977	383				
Özyeterlik	Gruplar Arası	1048,279	2	524,139	3,909	,021	Yüksek >orta, Yüksek >düşük
	Gruplar İçi	51092,406	381	134,101			
	Toplam	52140,685	383				

Tablo 8. Öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen özyeterlik algılarının Mezun Olduğu Lise türüne göre farklılığını gösteren Anova tablosu

	Kaynak	Kareler Toplamı	df	Kareler Ortalaması	F	p	Anlamlı Farklılık
Öğrenci Meşguliyeti	Gruplar Arası	178,981	4	44,745	2,485	,043	Süper Lise>Düz Lise
	Gruplar İçi	6824,016	379	18,005			
	Toplam	7002,997	383				
Sınıf Yönetimi	Gruplar Arası	190,147	4	47,537	2,505	,042	Süper Lise>Düz Lise
	Gruplar İçi	7192,975	379	18,979			
	Toplam	7383,122	383				
Öğretim Yöntemleri	Gruplar Arası	145,272	4	36,318	2,068	,084	
	Gruplar İçi	6656,704	379	17,564			
	Toplam	6801,977	383				
Özyeterlik	Gruplar Arası	1470,442	4	367,611	2,750	,028	Süper Lise>Düz Lise
	Gruplar İçi	50670,243	379	133,695			
	Toplam	52140,685	383				

TÜRKİYE'DE SENDİKACILIĞIN TARİHİ GELİŞİMİ VE SENDİKALAŞMA ORANININ AZALMA SEBEPLERİ

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Abstract

Trade union rights in Turkey were achieved without a violent struggle of workers unlike the rest of the world and after that the formation of a working class unity process has emerged. Turkey's trade union activities began as a reflection of workers' struggles in the world. The most important reason is that the process of industrialization, and hence the formation of the working class were realized later than the rest of the world. The process of trade union activities in Turkey began with the Republican era and especially in the single-party period emerges as political control and limitation of union activities. The desired development process of trade union activities could not have been achieved although there were some the positive developments, such as the 1961 constitution and transition to multiparty era due to both legal prohibitions until 1980 afterwards and military coups. All over the world, especially after the 80s, the globalization process has begun leading to a change in the working conditions and the structure of employment. More effective organizational structures for trade unions were needed due to some new conditions such as, decreased employment in the industrial sector, increasing more qualified labour force of service sector who are less interested in unions, the emergence of new types of work (flexible / part-time work, etc.). Privatization and sub-contracting practices also narrows the field of organizing of trade unions. Governments are increasingly moving away from the employer roles, trade unions in the public sector also lose power. These changes in Turkey necessitate a drastic change in trade union structure.

Ker Words: History of Trade Unionism, the Unionization Rate

ÖZET

Türkiye'de Sendikal haklar Dünyadakinin aksine şiddetli bir işçi mücadelesi olmadan elde edilmiş ve sonrasında sınıfsal birliğin oluşması süreci ortaya çıkmıştır. Türkiye'de sendikal faaliyetler Dünya'daki işçi mücadelesinin yansıması olarak başlamıştır. Bunun en önemli sebebi ise sanayileşmenin ve dolayısıyla işçi sınıfının oluşum sürecinin dünyadakinden daha geç gerçekleşmesidir. Cumhuriyet dönemiyle başlayan Türkiye sendikal faaliyetler süreci özellikle tek partili dönemde siyasi gücün sendikal faaliyetleri kontrol altında tutma ve sınırlama isteğiyle karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Çok partili döneme geçiş ve 1961 anayasası gibi olumlu gelişmelere rağmen 1980 sonrasına kadar hem kanuni engeller hem de askeri darbelerle sendikal faaliyetler istenilen gelişme sürecini yaşayamamıştır. Tüm dünyada, özellikle 80'li yıllardan sonra yaşanan küreselleşme süreci istihdamın yapısını ve dolayısıyla çalışma koşullarını da değiştirmiştir. Endüstri sektöründe istihdam azalırken, daha çok nitelikli işgücü gibi sendikaya çok az ilgi duyanların yer aldığı hizmet sektöründeki istihdam artışı ve ortaya çıkan yeni çalışma türleri (esnek / kısmi zamanlı çalışma gibi) sendikalar için geçmişte olduğundan daha etkili bir örgütlenme sorununu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Özelleştirme ve alt işveren uygulamaları da sendikaların örgütlenme alanını daraltmaktadır. Devlet, işveren rolünden giderek uzaklaşmakta böylece sendikacılık kamuda da güç kaybetmektedir. Yaşanan bu değişimler, Türkiye'deki sendikal yapılarda köklü bir değişiklik yapılmasını zorunlu hale getirmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sendikacılık Tarihi, Sendikalaşma oranı,

GİRİŞ

Ülkelerde sendikacılığın tarihine bakmak, esasında o ülkelerin işçi hareketlerine bakmakla eşdeğer görülmektedir. İşçi hareketlerinin kurumsallaşmasıyla sendikal faaliyetleri beraberinde getirmesi tezi, konunun bu şekilde algılanmasından kaynaklanmaktadır. Marksist söylem, tarihi sınıfların çatışmasından ibaret olarak görmektedir. Bu bağlamda sendikacılık

tarihi üzerine yapılacak çalışmalar işçi hareketinin kurumsallaştığı dönem kadar kurumsallaşmadığı/kurumsallaşamadığı döneminde incelenmesini gerektirmektedir.

Araştırmada bu nedenle kurumsallaşmanın başlamadan önceki süreç ve kurumsallaşma sonrası ele alınacaktır. Türkiye'de sendikacılık üzerine yapılan çalışmalar çeşitli dönemselleştirmelerle incelenmiştir. Türkiye Sendikacılık Ansiklopedisinde bu dönemselleştirme; cumhuriyet sonrası (1920- 1960) dönem, (1960-1980) arası dönem ve 1980 sonrası şeklinde gerçekleşmiştir. Bu ana dönemselleştirme bazı yıllara göre alt sınıflandırmalara da tabii tutulmuştur. Mahir oğullarının yaptığı araştırmada ise dönemselleştirme üç evrede incelenmiştir. 1947-1963, 1963-1983 ve 1983. Araştırmada sendikalaşma hakkının doğuşundan sonraki 53 yıllık süreç incelenmiştir(Mahiroğulları, 2000:161). Talas ise Türk sendikacılık tarihini Cumhuriyet öncesi ve sonrası olmak üzere iki dönemde incelemektedir(Talas, 1976:252). Bu dönemlerde işçi hareketi; devletin yaklaşımı, kanunlar, anayasalardaki değişikliklerle şekillenmiştir. Bunun yanında bu dönemselleştirme genel olarak yapılmıştır. Bu dönemler içerisinde işçi hareketini etkileyen kritik yıllarda olmuştur. Genel olarak yapılan dönemselleştirme çerçevesinde bu kritik süreçlere de değinilecektir.

Sendikacılık hareketinin doğabilmesi için sanayileşmenin başlaması ve bunun bir sonucu olarak da bir işçi sınıfının doğması gerekmektedir. Ancak sendikacılık hareketi doğduktan sonra, rahat gelişebilmesinin temel bir koşulu da hukuksal ortam ve durumun elverişli olması ve engelleyici kısıtlamalarla gelişmenin aksatılmamasıdır(A.g.e, 1976:258).

METOD

Bu çalışmada Türkiye'de cumhuriyet sonrası sendikacılığın tarihi sürecini içeren kaynaklar taranmış ve kronolojik bir sendikalaşma süreci incelenmiştir. Tarihi süreç ile birlikte çeşitli sendikalar, devlet kaynakları ve yabancı kaynaklardan 1948'den itibaren sendikalaşma oranları araştırılmış ve veriler karşılaştırılmıştır.

1923-1960 Döneminde İşçi Hareketleri

Cumhuriyet ilan edildiği sırada Türk sendikacılık hareketi dağınık, hukuksal dayanakları bakımından yetersiz, hükümetlerin ve kamuoyunun anlayışına ulaşamamış bir durumda idi. Lider kadrosu yetişmemişti. Bir savaş sonu şaşkınlığı içerisindeydi. 1923 yılında toplanmış olan İzmir İktisat Kongresi bu durumu yansıtmaktadır. Kongre'de işçiler sosyal politikaya ilişkin bazı önemli istekler ileri sürmüşlerdir. Fakat Kongre'ye daha iyi biçimde örgütlenmiş tüccarların ve sanayicilerin görüşleri egemen olmuştur ve bu Kongre'de işçiler lehine, üzerinde durulmaya değer kararlar alınamamıştır. Yasalar sendikaların faaliyetlerini yasakladığı için, sendikaların açık olarak bir partiyi desteklemeleri mümkün değildi. Fakat işçilerin ve liderlerin kişisel eğilimleri bir bölünmenin gerçekleştiğini açık olarak gösteriyordu. C.H.P. yanlısı İstanbul İşçi Sendikaları Birliği'ne karşı D.P. yanlısı Hür İşçi Sendikaları Birliği kurulmuştu (A.g.e, 1976:254-155).

Tek partili dönem, çalışma ilişkilerinin taraflarının örgütlenmeleri açısından sorunlarla doludur. Bu sorunlar; kısmen hukuki, kısmen de fiili durumdan kaynaklanmaktadır. Fiili durum, belirli bir döneme kadar, sınırlı hukuki engeller olmasına karşın, tek parti yönetiminin uygulamalarıyla olmuştur. Hukuki durumu ise öncelikle Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'ndan sarkan yasalar ve Cumhuriyet döneminde çıkarılan yeni yasalar çerçevesinde incelemek gereklidir(Makal, 1999:292). Bu dönem, çalışma ilişkileri alanının büyük ölçüde bağımsızlık kazanamadığı, daha çok siyasi ve iktisadi alanlar tarafından belirlendiği bir dönem olmuştur. Bu belirlemenin dinamiğini ise büyük ölçüde siyasal alandaki tek parti yönetimi ve iktisadi alandaki devletçilik oluşturmuştur. Her ne kadar bu dönemde çalışma ilişkileri bağımsız bir alan olma niteliği kazanamamışsa da, meydana gelen gelişmeler, çalışma ilişkilerinin daha sonraki dönemlerde kazanacağı nitelikler açısından belirleyici olmuştur. Özellikle devletçi dönemdeki sanayileşme çabaları, ülkede modern bir sanayinin oluşmasını sağlamış, böylece modern bir işçi sınıfının oluşumu da mümkün olmuştur. Kırsal kesim kökenli, niteliksiz ve süreklilik özelliği taşımayan işgücü; zaman içerisinde sürekli ve nitelikli hale gelmiştir. Çalışma ilişkilerinin kurumsallaşması açısından bakılırsa dönem içerisinde ciddi bir kurumsallaşmanın sağlanamadığı görülmektedir. Bunda, çalışma ilişkileri alanının henüz ayrı, bağımsız bir alan haline gelememiş olmasının yanında, bu alanın, sistemin asli aktörleri olan işçi ve işverenlerden çok devlet tarafından belirlenmek isteniyor olması rol oynamıştır(A.g.e, 1999:482).

1923'te cumhuriyetin ilanıyla birlikte Cumhuriyet Halk Fırkası tek partili dönemi 1950'ye kadar sürmüştür. 1919-1923 döneminde, sendikal örgüt ve üst birlik oluşturma çabaları hız kazanmıştı. 1919'da kurulan sosyalist siyasal partilerin, özellikle Türkiye İşçi ve Çiftçi Fırkası'nın öncülüğünde gelişen bu çabalar çok geçmeden Ankara Hükümetinin baskı ve rekabetiyle karşılaşmıştır(Kutal Vd., 1998:104).

Cumhuriyet Halk Fırkası, sendikal hareketi denetim altına almak için, bir taraftan var olan sendikalara baskı uyguluyor, bu örgütlere kendi adamlarını sokmaya çalışıyor, bir taraftan da paravan sendikalar kuruyordu. Hükümetin niyetinin farkına varan ve bağımsız bir işçi hareketinin kaçınılmazlığında karar kılan sosyalist çevrelerin etkisindeki işçiler, 1924'te Amele Teali Cemiyeti'ni kurdular. Yeni rejimin işçi hareketleri karşısındaki tavrı 1925'ten sonra daha da netleşmişti. Hiçbir ayrım

gözetmeksizin yönetsel bir kararla önleme ve yasaklama yetkisini hükümete tanıyan; işçi örgüt ve eylemleri içinde yasaklayıcı ve baskıcı bir çerçeve oluşturan Takriri Sükun Kanunu 1925'te kabul edilmiştir(A.g.e, 1998:104).

1925 ve 1930 arasında Amele Teali Cemiyeti'nin öncülüğünde pek çok eylem ve grev gerçekleştirilmiştir. Devlet, yabancı sermayeli işletmeleri satın alıp millileştirince grevler yasaklanmaya başlanmıştır. Halk Fırkası, sömürünün ancak yabancı sermayeli işletmelerde olabileceğini savunduğundan, devlet işletmelerinde grevlerin gereksiz olduğu sonucunu çıkardı ve özellikle 1930'dan sonra greve giden işçiler 'düzeni bozan fesatçılar' olarak ele alınmıştır(A.g.e, 1998:104).

1930'lu yılların devletçiliği, bağımsız işçi örgütlerini yasaklayan, işçileri hükümet güdümlü derneklerde örgütlenmeye zorlayan ve işçi eylemlerini baltalayan idari ve yasal önlemlerle takviye edilmiştir. 1933 Cemiyetler Kanunu değişikliği, grev hakkını tamamen ortadan kaldıran İş Kanunu (1936), sınıf esasına göre cemiyet/sendika kurmayı yasaklayan Cemiyetler Kanunu değişikliği(1938), Halk Fırkasının işi hareketlerini engellemekte kullandığı başlıca baskı araçlarıydı(A.g.e, 1998:104).

İşçi hareketleri, 2.dünya savaşı sırasında daha da durgunlaşmıştır. Savaş yılları, Türkiye'de çalışma koşullarının son derece zorlaştırıldığı, çalışma sürelerinin uzatıldığı, seferberlik ve askere alınmalar sonucu işlerinden olan yetişkin işçilerin kadın ve çocuk işçilerle ikame edildiği, gerçek ücretlerden %50'yi aşan bir düşme gösterdiği, karaborsa ve vurgunculuk sonucu fiyatların hızla arttığı, bütün bu gelişmelere paralel olarak işçiler ve aydınlar üzerinde siyasal ve polisiye baskıların, örgütlenme hakkı önündeki engellerin çoğaldığı bir dönemdi(A.g.e, 1998:104).

2. dünya savaşının sonrasında bazı ekonomik, siyasal ve sosyal değişimler yaşanmıştır. Demokratik ilke ve düşünceler somutlaşmıştır. Yeniden kurulan dünya dengesi içinde Türkiye'nin demokrasi cephesinde yer alabilmesi için çok partili yaşama geçmesi gerekiyordu. 'Milli Şeflik' in bırakılması, sendikaların kurulması ilk yapılması gereken değişikliklerdi(Sülker, 2004:9). Talas'a göre ise bu değişim, bir taraftan Milletlerarası Çalışma Teşkilatı'na üye olmaktan, diğer taraftan insan hak ve hürriyetlerine Anayasası'nda geniş bir yer veren Birleşmiş Milletler kurucu üyeleri arasında yer almaktan mütevellit akdi vecibeler ve memlekette küçükte olsa doğmuş olan milli sanayi içinde çalışan işçilerin teşkilatlanmalarına imkan vermek zarureti ve çok partili hayata geçiş Cemiyetler Kanunu'nun değiştirilmesini zorunlu kılmıştır. Diğer anti demokratik hükümlerle birlikte sendika kurma yasağı 1946 değişikliğiyle kaldırılmıştır(Makal, 1999:478).

2. dünya savaşının faşizmin yenilgisiyle sonuçlanmasının ardından Türkiye'de çok partili döneme girilmiştir. Yeni dönemin hemen başlarında 1946'da sınıf esasına dayalı cemiyet kurma yasağı yürürlükten kaldırılmıştır. Böylece sendika hakkı yasal olarak tanınmıştır(Kutal Vd., 1998:104).

İşçiler tek partili dönemdeki baskıların hıncını almak istercesine Cemiyetler Kanunu değişiminin ardından hızla örgütlenmeye başlamışlardır. Bir yanda kısa dönemli sınıfsal çıkarların korunması amacıyla kurulan ve kendiliğindenci yanı ağır basan sendikal örgütlenmeler, diğer tarafta sosyalist partilerin öncülüğünde kurulan sendikalar özellikle işçilerin yoğun olduğu kentlerde hızla çoğalmıştır(A.g.e, 1998:104).

CHP iktidarı, denetim ve vesayet dışına çıkan bu sendika hareketini frenlemek için tedbir almakta gecikmedi. ''Çalışma Bakanlığına yardımcı olmak, İş Kanununun tatbikatını kolaylaştırmak, iş randımanını arttırmak'' amacıyla CHP direktiflerine uygun ve CHP'nin parasıyla işçi dernekleri kudurmaya girişmiştir. İktidar, işçilerin bu tür derneklere pek itibar etmemeleri üzerine daha dolaysız yöntemlere başvurmuştur. Sosyalist partiler ve tehlikeli sayılan sendikalar, 17 Aralık 1946'da sıkıyönetim komutanlığı kararıyla kapatılmıştır(A.g.e, 1998:104).

Türkiye işçi sınıfı tarihinin ''46 sendikacılığı'' dönemi böylece sona ermiştir. Bu sırada Çalışma Bakanlığının hazırlamakta olduğu sendikalar kanunu ile ilgili şükranlarını CHP iletiyordu(A.g.e, 1998:104).

5018 sayılı Sendikalar Kanunu, sendikaların ''siyasetle iştigal'' edemeyeceklerini, milliyetçiliğe ve milli menfaatlere aykırı faaliyette bulunamayacaklarını hükme bağlayan ünlü 5. Maddesiyle birlikte 1947'de kabul edilmiştir. CHP iktidarı, Sendikalar Kanununun yürürlüğe girmesini takiben 'İşçi Bürosu' açtı ve bu büro kanalıyla mali yardımlarda bulunmak suretiyle sendikalar kurmaya ve bu yolla önemli bir seçmen kitlesi haline gelmiş işçilerin desteğinden yararlanmaya çalışmıştır. CHP'ye bağlı sendikalar ve işçilerden kopuk sendika önderleri bu çabaların bir ürünü olarak filizlenmiştir. Öte yandan CHP'nin KİT işçi örgütlenmesini özellikle desteklemesi, CHP'li olmayanların işten çıkarılma tehdidi altında tutulması, KİT'lerde çalışma koşullarının nispeten daha iyi olması, işçilerin önemli bir bölümünün kırla ilişkisinin devam etmesi, sendikaların mali sıkıntılar içinde bulunması vb. etkenlerle siyasal iktidara bağımlı sendikacılığın oluşmasında önemli bir rol oynamıştır(A.g.e, 1998:104).

Güdümlü sendikalar hükümetle ilişkilerini sıcak tutmuştur. Ancak CHP iktidarı işçilerin özlemlerine yanıt vermekten uzaktı. 1950'ye doğru beliren ekonomik kriz, işçilerin ve sendikaların DP'ye yönelmesi sonucunu doğurmuştur. DP 14 Mayıs 1950'de genel seçimi kazanmıştır. Ancak iktidar değişikliği, işçi sınıfı üzerindeki baskıların sona ereceği anlamını taşımıyordu. DP'nin iktidar yılları, işçi haklarıyla ilgili vaatlerin yerine getirilmediği, dar sendikal ve ekonomik taleplerin dahi

genellikle karşılanmadığı, iktidarın güdümünde olmayan sendikaların çeşitli biçimlerde cezalandırıldığı bir dönem olmuştur(A.g.e Vd., 1998:104).

1950-1960 döneminin başlangıcında Türkiye sendikacılığının siyasal özelliklerini ve dolayısıyla işçi hareketinin niteliğini derin bir biçimde etkileyen bir başka gelişme daha ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu, TÜRK-İŞ'in kuruluş ve ilk gelişme döneminde kendisini gösteren Amerikan etkisidir(A.g.e ,1998:105).

Bağımsız siyasal mücadeleyi reddeden, hükümetlerle iyi ilişki içerisinde olmaya özen gösteren ve sermayedar sınıflar yerine sol akımlarla mücadele etmeyi ilke edinen TÜRK-İŞ, 'bazı idare amirlerinin işçileri komünistlikle itham etmelerine mukabele olarak 1953'te komünizmi tel'in mitingi düzenlemiştir(A.g.e, 1998:105).

DP iktidarı bu tür mitinglerde bir sorun görmüyordu ancak sendikaların en ilkel fonksiyonlarını bile 'siyaset' olarak nitelendirerek yasaklamıştır. Muhalefetteyken işçilere grev hakkı vaadinde bulunan DP, iktidarda kaldığı 10 yıl süre boyunca grev yasağını uygulamıştır. Bu nedenle DP döneminde bilinen çok az sayıda önemli grev bulunmaktadır(A.g.e, 1998:105).

1960 Sonrasında İşçi Hareketleri

Türk sendikacılık hareketinin altın dönemi 27 Mayıs Devrimi ile başlar. Anayasanın ve yeni yasaların getirmiş oldukları bütün özgürlüklerden yararlanan sendikacılık hızla gelişmiş ve toplumun yaşantısında önemli bir yer edinmiştir. On beş yıl önce kuşku ile bakılan sendika liderleri, bu yıllarda itibarlı kimseler olarak görülmektedir(Talas, 1976:256).

Bu dönemde Türk Sendikacılığı karmaşık bir örgütlenme yapısı göstermektedir. Bu çerçevede aşağı yukarı sendikacılık tarihi içerisinde gözlenen tüm örgütlenme biçimleri denenmiştir. Bunlar içerisinde, işletme düzeyinde kurulan mahalli sendikalar, 1960 öncesi dönemde Türk sendikacılığının hakim örgütlenme biçimi olmuştur. Buna karşılık 5018 sayılı yasada sadece birlikte söz edilmesine karşın, yasanın 8. Maddesine dayanarak dört ayrı üst sendikal örgütlenme biçimi ortaya çıkmıştır: Birlik, federasyon, genel sendikalar, konfederasyon. Birlikler; belirli bir bölge veya şehirde farklı iş kollarındaki sendikaların bir araya gelerek oluşturduğu üst örgütlerdir. Federasyonlar ise aynı iş kolundaki yerel sendikaların bölgesel ya da ülke düzeyinde meydana getirdikleri üst kuruluşlardır. Genel sendikalar, meslek yada endüstri bazında bir sınırlama olmaksızın, farklı meslek yada endüstride çalışan işçileri bir araya getiren örgütlerdir. Konfederasyon düzeyinde ise 1952 yılında kurulan ve dönemin tek işçi konfederasyonu olma niteliği taşıyan Türkiye İşçi Sendikaları Konfederasyonu, tüm kategorilerdeki işçi sendikalarını üye olarak kabul edip, bünyesinde barındırmaktaydı. Bunların dışında iş kolu esasına göre örgütlenmiş ve milli sendika yada Türkiye tip sendika diye tabir edilen ve belirli bir iş kolunda çalışan işçileri toplayan sendikalar bulunmaktadır. Kuşkusuz, sendikaların dönem içerisinde örgütlenme bazları itibariyle bu kadar çeşitlilik göstermesi, üstelik bazen bu bazlardaki örgütlenmelerin ''birbirini tamamlar ve güçlendirir değil de, birbirini dışlar ve birbirleriyle çelişir nitelikte gelişmesi'' Türkiye'de sendikacılığın gelişimini olumsuz yönde etkilemiştir. Bu tarz bir örgütlenme, bir yandan Türkiye koşullarının bir sonucu iken, diğer yandan da sendikacılık hareketinin gelişememesi üzerinde etken olmuştur. Ancak zaman içerisinde ''mahalli sendikalar üzerinde yeter derecede selahiyet ve nüfuza sahip olamayan federasyonlara nazaran, kendilerine tabi ve hükmi şahsiyeti haiz olmayan bir şube teşkilatı kanalıyla faaliyet gösteren Türkiye tipi sendikalar, gerek işverenlerle münasebetler, gerek mali güç bakımından daha başarılı olduklarını ispat etmişlerdir(Makal, 2002:274-275).

Türkiye işçi sınıfı, 27 Mayıs 1960 askeri müdahalesine kadar, gerek işçi haklarını ve sınıfsal çıkarlarını savunmak, gerekse demokratikleşme açısından önemli bir varlık gösterememiştir. 1960 sonrasında, 1961 anayasasının görece özgürlükçü niteliği ve bu niteliğe uygun olarak 1963'te çıkarılan 274 ve 275 sayılı yasalar, işçi hareketinin canlılık kazanması için elverişli koşullar yaratmıştır(Kutal Vd., 1998:105).

27 Mayıs askeri müdahalesi, Türkiye'nin siyasal yaşamında olduğu kadar, işçi hareketlerinde de bir dönüm noktası olmuştur. Yeni bir dönemin açılmasına öncülük etmiştir. 1960 öncesinde ürkek, geri çekilmeye hazır, haklarını mücadele ederek elde etmekten çok, siyasal iktidarla iyi ilişkiler kurarak sağlama çabası içinde olan işçi hareketi, 1961 yılında İstanbul'da düzenlenen Saraçhane Mitinginde taleplerini ilk kez güçlü olarak duyurmuştur(A.g.e., 1998:105).

1961 anayasası, sendikalara toplu iş sözleşmesi ve grev hakkı tanınmasına rağmen, 1963 yılına kadar yasal düzenlemeler gerçekleştirilememiştir. Saraçhane mitingi bu hakların dile getirildiği en önemli miting olmuştur. 1961 yılını daha çok pasif eylemlerle geçiren işçiler 1962'de hareketlenmiştir. 1963'te 274 ve 275 sayılı yasanın çıkmasıyla 274 yılından itibaren işçi hareketi aktif eylemlerde bulunmaya başlamıştır. 1964'te 90 civarında eylemin 81'i grev olarak gerçekleşmiştir. 1965'te grevlerde yarı yarıya bir düşüş yaşanmıştır. 1967 yılına kadar eylemlerde sektörel olarak artışlar yaşanmıştır(A.g.e 1998:105).

1967'nin bir diğer özelliği, TÜRK-İŞ'in 'partiler üstü' ve toplu sözleşme ile sınırlı sendikacılığına karşı 'sınıf ve kitle' sendikacılığı felsefesini benimseyen yeni bir konfederasyonun DİSK'in kurulmasıydı. TÜRK-İŞ'in, işçilerin çıkarlarına hizmet edemediğini ve ulusal olmayan bir politika izlediğini açıklayan DİSK, TÜRK-İŞ'in işçilerin temsil yetkisini yitirdiğini

de belirtiyordu. DİSK'in kurulmasıyla sendikal rekabet şiddetlenmiştir. 1967'deki grev sayısındaki artışta bu rekabetin önemli bir etkisi olmuştur. 1967 yılı sendikal rekabetinde belirleyici olduğu yeni bir dönemin başlangıcıdır. 1964-67 arasında işçi eylemlerinde grevlerin oranı %90 iken 1968'de bu oran %60'a düşmüştür. 1968 yılı grev ve direnişlerin yanı sıra işgallerin, polis ve jandarma ile çatışmaların yaşandığı bir yıl olmuştur. Sendikalar arasındaki rekabet, yer yer yetki tartışmalarına ve işçilerin referandum taleplerinden doğan gerginliklere yol açmıştır. İşçi eylemlerinde radikalleşme ve işçilerin sınıfsal ve siyasal bilinç kazanma süreçleri hızlanmıştır(A.g.e 1998:106-107). Türk-İş'in Ocak 1964'te toplanan genel kurulunda tüzüğüne de geçmiş bulunan 'partiler üstü politika' ilkesi, Amerikan sendikacılığına egemen olan 'tarafsız'(non-partisan) politika ilkesinin bir benzeridir. Ancak iki ülke arasındaki ve iki ülkenin sendikacılık hareketi arasındaki farklılıkları dolayısıyla, aynı ilkenin benimsenmesiyle ortaya çıkan durumunda bazı farklılıklar göstermesi kaçınılmazdır(Işıklı, 2005:533-534). Türk-İş'in 'partiler üstü politikası' na karşı beliren ilk tepkilerin sonucunda DİSK doğmuştur. Fakat bu yönde beliren tepkiler DİSK ile sınırlı kalmamıştır. DİSK'i oluşturan sendikalar ayrıldıktan sonra da Türk-İş içinde 'partiler üstü politika' ya karşı farklı tonda da olsa belli bir muhalefet daime olmuş ve bu muhalefetin giderek yaygınlaşması, yoğunlaşması ve oldukça belirgin bir çizgide yerini alması sonucunda ''sosyal demokrat'' olarak tanımlanan sendikacılık hareketi doğmuştur(A.g.e, 2005: 556).

1970 yılında özel kesim grevlerinde önemli bir değişiklik olmazken, kamu kesimi grevlerinde önemli artış yaşanmıştır. Kamu kesimindeki grev sayısı 1960-80 arasında en yüksek seviyelerine ulaşmıştır. 1970 yılının diğer özelliği işyeri işgali ve direniş gibi eylemlere daha fazla başvurulmasıydı. 15-16 Haziran 1970'te Sendikalar Kanunu ile Toplu İş Sözleşmesi Grev ve Lokavt Kanunu'nda yapılması düşünülen, özünde DİSK'i etkisiz hale getirmeyi amaçlayan değişiklikleri protesto etmek amacıyla pek çok eylem gerçekleştirilmiştir. 16 Haziran'da işçilerle asker ve polis arasında çatışmalar çıktı, sıkıyönetim ilan edildi. Çok sayıda işçi ve sendikacı öz altına alındı ve olaylardan sonra işverenler kara listeler hazırladı binlerce işçi işten çıkarıldı. Böylece militan kadroların önemli bir bölümü fabrikaların ve işyerlerinin dışına itildi(Kutal Vd., 1998:106-107).

1971'de 12 Mart askeri müdahalesi, ardından ilan edilen sıkıyönetim sınıf hareketlerinin gelişmesine bir kez daha gem vurmuştur. Grevlerde ve grev dışı eylemlerde büyük bir düşüş yaşanmıştır. Kamu grevlerinde düşüş özel sektör grevlerinde ise ise azda olsa artış görülmüştür(A.g.e, 1998:106-107).

Dönemle ilgili genel bir değerlendirme yapılacak olursa 1961-1971 döneminde gerçekleştirilen toplam 862 eylemin %70'i grev, %30'u grev dışı eylemlerdir. Grev dışı eylemler genellikle pasif direniş ve yürüyüşlerdir. Eylemler daha çok toplu iş sözleşmelerinde yaşanan uyuşmazlıklardan kaynaklanmıştır. Toplu sözleşme koşullarına uyulmaması nedeniyle zaman zaman işçiler hak grevlerine başvurmuşlardır(A.g.e, 1998:106-107).

1960'lı yıllar ithal ikameci, iç pazara dönük üretimin yapıldığı, popülist politikaların izlediği yıllar olmasına rağmen, toplu iş sözleşmelerinin yapıldığı ilk yıllar olan 1964 ve 1965 yılları ile 1970 yılında gerçek ücretlerdeki artış verimlilikteki artıştan yüksek olmuş, diğer yıllarda ise gerisinde kalmıştır. Bu durum, diğer yıllarda ücret/kar oranına ücretler aleyhine bir gelişmenin olduğunu göstermektedir. 1963-1971 döneminde grevlerin %74'ü özel kesimde, %16'sı kamu kesiminde; grevci işçilerin %47'si özel kesimde, %53'ü kamu kesimindedir(A.g.e, 1998:106-107). Bunun yanında işçi hareketinde bu döneme ABD'nin de etkileri bulunmaktadır.

ABD'nin Türkiye işçi hareketini, uluslararası alandaki tercihlerine ve emellerine uygun doğrultuda biçimlendirme ve yönlendirme çabaları, 1960 sonrasında bir Amerikan hükümet kuruluşu olan AID'in(Uluslararası Kalkınma Ajansı) Türk-İş ile doğrudan bağlantı kurması sonucu, çok rahat bir aşamaya girmiştir. Bu yolla, eğitim, inceleme gezisi vs. adlarla yürütülen faaliyetlerin işçi hareketi üzerindeki etkilerini, Türkiye'de görev yapmış olan Amerikan çalışma ateşelerinden biri şöyle anlatmaktadır: ''ABD'nin taktik, teknik ve hatta felsefe olarak sağladığı unsurların pek çoğunun ilk sendikal deneyimlerini ücret bilincine dayalı sendikacılık içinde geçirmiş üyelerin meydana getirdiği Türk sendikacılığını tüm olarak etkilemeye devam edeceğe benzemektedir.''(Işıklı, 2003:77).

Bu hakların elde edilmesi elbette ki kapsamlı bir sınıf mücadeleleri sonucunda elde edilmemiştir. Türkiye'de sendikal hakların kullanımının, bir zamanlar batıda olduğu gibi acılı bazı sonuçları göze almayı gerekli kılan bir hak haline geldiğini göstermektedir. Denilebilir ki, orada önce bedel ödenmiş, sonra hak elde edilmiştir. Türkiye'de ise önce hak elde edilmiş, sonra ise bedeli ödenmektedir(A.g.e, 2003:63).

1972-1980 Döneminde İşçi Hareketleri

Sendikacılık hareketi bu dönemde halk tarafından sosyal yapının yararlı bir öğesi olarak kabul görmüştür. Bu durum, uzun ve çok çetin savaşlar verilmeden varılmış bir sonuçtur. Bunda basının, üniversitelerin ve aydınların rolleri olduğunu söylemek mümkündür(Talas, 1976:257).

12 Mart 1971 askeri müdahalesi ve onu izleyen sıkıyönetim, tüm işçi hareketleri ve eylemlerini olumsuz yönde etkilemiştir. 1972'de gerçekleştirilen eylemlerin neredeyse %90'ı grevdir. 73 ve 74 yıllarında grevlerde artışlar meydana gelmiştir. Grev

dışı eylemlerde ise genellikle başvurulan yöntem direniştir. 1975 yılında hem grevler hem de grev dışı eylemler artış eğilimini sürdürmüştür. Ayrıca işçi hareketinde, siyasal görüş farklılıkları nedeniyle sert çatışmalar doğmuştur. Özellikle DİSK üyesi işçiler ile MİSK yandaşları arasında çatışmalar yaşanmıştır. DİSK'in sınıf savaşımı ve siyasal eylem temeline dayalı sendikacılık anlayışı karşısında TÜRK-İŞ partiler üstü ve özünde uzlaşmacı sendikacılık anlayışının işçi arasındaki başarısızlığı, DİSK'in önünü kesmek için MİSK militanlarının seferber edilmesine yol açmıştır. 1976 ve 1977'de grev sayısında artış yaşanırken 1977'de grev dışı eylemler azalma eğilime girmiştir. 1978'de grev sayısı artış oranında azalma yaşanırken grev dışı eylemlere daha çok başvurulmuştur. 1977'de İstanbul'da düzenlenen ve on binlerce işçi, öğrenci ve memurun katıldığı 1 mayıs mitingine ateş açılması sonucu 36 kişi hayatını kaybetmiştir. Olayın gerçek failleri ve amacı günümüze kadar ortaya çıkarılamamıştır. 1978'de grevlerde ve grev dışı eylemlerde artış eğilimi devam etmiştir. Grev dışı yöntemler genellikle iş yavaşlatma, yemek boykotu ve direniş şeklinde gerçekleşmiştir. Sendikalar arası rekabet şiddetlenirken işçi sınıfı da bu yıllarda yoğun bir siyasallaşma sürecine girmiştir. İşçiler siyasal amaçlı miting, yürüyüş, protesto vb. eylemlerde bulunmuşlardır. Yasadışı eylemlere daha sıklıkla başvurulmaya başlanmıştır. 1979 yılı Türkiye'de genel olarak kitlelerin yoğun bir siyasallaşma yaşadıkları, toplumun 'anarşik olaylar adı verilen, sağ ve sol kesim militanlarının çoğunlukla kanlı hesaplaşma ve eylemleri karşısında ürküntüye kapıldığı; ekonomik krizin tırmandığı bir dönemde işçi eylemleri bu toplumsal-siyasal yapının ürünü olarak gerçekleşmiştir. (Kutal Vd., 1998:108-109).

12 Eylül 1980 askeri müdahalesinden sonra, 14 Eylül'de tüm grevler yasaklanmıştır. 1984 yılına kadar grevler ve grev dışı eylemler durmuştur. 1972-1980 döneminin toplu bir değerlendirmesi yapılacak olunursa işçi hareketleri açısından 1963-1971 dönemine göre hem grevler hem de grev dışı eylemler bakımından daha hareketli bir dönemdir. Özellikle DİSK'in özel kesimde ve iç pazara yönelik üretim yapan sektörlerde örgütlenmesi bu hareketlilikte önemli bir rol oynamıştır. Kamu kesiminde örgütlenmiş olan ve daha çok ihracata yönelik sektörlerde egemen olan TÜRK-İŞ 1970'li yılların ilk yarısında eylemlilik açısından DİSK'e erişememiştir, sendikal rekabet nedeniyle eylemlere adeta zorlanmıştır. Ancak 1970'li yılların ikinci yarısında hem ekonomik kriz, hem de ücretlerin hızla aşınması nedeniyle geçmişe göre daha etkin ve mücadeleci olma durumu ile karşı karşıya kalmıştır(A.g.e ,1998:109).

1073-1980 döneminde işçi eylemlerinin yaklaşık yarısı grevlerden, yarısı da grev dışı eylemlerden oluşmaktadır. Bir önceki döneme göre grevlerin eylemlerdeki payı yaklaşık %20 düşüş göstermiştir. 1970'li yılların sonunda artan grevler ve grev dışı eylemler reel ücret artışına bir katkı sağlamamıştır(A.g.e,1998:109).

1963-1980 dönemi işçi hareketleri içinde ağırlık, toplu sözleşmeler çerçevesinde gelişen grevlerdedir. Özellikle 1970'li yılların ikinci yarısından itibaren artan ve giderek kronikleşen enflasyonun etkisiyle de toplumun esnaf, sanatkâr ve küçük çiftçi kesimi grevlere sıcak bakmamış, işçilerle dayanışma içine girme ihtiyacı duymamıştır. Farklı konfederasyonlar ve bu konfederasyonlara bağlı sendikalar ile üye işçiler arasında da bir dayanışma gerçekleşmemiştir. Hatta taraflar birbirlerinin başarısızlıklarını bekler duruma düşmüşlerdir. Sendikalar, toplu pazarlık ve grev süreçlerinde ortak bir tavır belirleyememiş, sendikal mücadele ağırlıkla işyeri veya bir grup işyeri düzeyindeki toplu sözleşmeler ve grevlerle sınırlı kalmıştır. İdeolojik ve siyasal ayrılıklar konfederasyonlar arasında olduğu kadar konfederasyonların kendi bünyelerinde de ayrışmalar ve bölünmeler doğurmuştur(A.g.e ,1998:109).

1970'li yılların sonuna gelindiğinde hem ekonomik hem siyasal açıdan ciddi bir bunalımın eşiğine gelmiş olan ülkede, ithal ikameci birikim modeli tıkanmış, bir ekonomik kriz ile karşı karşıya kalınmıştır. 1970'li yılların sonunda, ücret paylarındaki artışın iç pazarın genişlemesi uğruna göz yumulacak bir düzeyi aşması ve karları aşındırması bunalımın temel nedeni olarak gösteriliyordu. Hızlı fiyat artışları, üretim darboğazları ve dış ödeme güçlüğü şeklinde ortaya çıkan bunalım, siyasal ve toplumsal bir bunalıma dönüşerek, yapısal bir değişimi gündeme getirmiştir. Bunun için 24 Ocak kararları ile istikrar önlemleri uygulanmaya çalışılmıştır. Ancak yeni ekonomik karar ve stratejiyi işçi hareketinin yükselmiş olduğu, solun güçlendiği ve kitlelerin sola kaydığı demokratik bir ortamda uygulamak mümkün görünmüyordu. Bu olanak 12 Eylül 1980 askeri müdahalesi ile yaratılmıştır ve müdahalenin en önemli hedefi militanlaşan işçi hareketi olmuştur(A.g.e, 1998:109).

1980-1994 Döneminde İşçi Hareketi

12 Eylül 1980 askeri müdahalesinden sonra 1983 yılına kadar sendikal faaliyetler askıya alınmıştır. Başta DİSK ve sendikaları olmak üzere işçi hareketinin siyasallaşmış ve dinamik kesimini temsil eden işçi örgütleri faaliyetlerinden men edilmiştir. DİSK 1991 yılına kadar kapalı tutulmuştur. Çalışma hayatını düzenleyen yeni Sendikalar Kanunu ile Toplu İş Sözleşmesi Grev ve Lokavt Kanunu çıkarılıncaya kadar işçi hareketi baskı altında suskun bir dönem yaşamıştır. 1980-1983 döneminin en önemli faaliyetleri çıkarılacak yeni çalışma yasasıyla ilgili görüşlerin açıklandığı toplantılar olmuştur. 1983'te 'tepki yasaları' olarak bilinen 2821 ve 2822 sayılı yasalar yürürlüğe girmiştir. İşçi hareketindeki suskunluk yasaların çıkmasından sonra 1984'te önce grev dışı eylemlerle suskunluğunu bozmuştur. 1990'lı yıllara kadar işçi eylemlerinde artışlar yaşanmıştır.

1991 yılı işçi hareketinde yeni bir siyasallaşma dalgasının yaşandığı bir dönemdir. 'genel grev yaparız, hükümeti yıkarız.', 'Çankaya'nın şişmanı, işçi düşmanı' gibi sloganlar bu siyasallaşmanın sisteme yönelik olmaktan çok bireylere ve hükümetlere yönelik olduğunu göstermektedir. Öte yandan kamu kesiminde örgütlü TÜRK-İŞ sendikalarının bir bölümünde önceki dönemlerde gözlenmeyen bir eylemlilik ve ekonomik bilinç gözleniyordu. 1980 öncesi DİSK'in etkinlik döneminde özel kesim işçilerinin yerini bir ölçüde kamu işçileri ve diğer kamu çalışanları almaya başlamıştır. 1994'e kadar grev ve grev dışı eylemlerde artışlar gözlemlenmiştir. 1984-1994 arası on yılın genel bir değerlendirmesi yapılacak olursa, bu dönemde işverenler bir önceki döneme göre daha çok lokavta başvurmuştur. 1963-1980 döneminde 17 yılda 1.438 grev yapılmış, 289 lokavt uygulanmışken, 1984-1993 döneminde 1.683 greve karşılık işverenler 429 lokavt uygulamışlardır.

1963-1980 dönemine göre 1984-1994 döneminin grevleri farklı özellikler taşımaktadır. Esnaf ve sanatkârların, toplumun orta sınıfının, işçi ücretlerindeki düşüşlerin kendilerine de yansıdığını fark etmeleriyle grevci işçilere bakış açıları olumlu yönde değişmeye başlamıştır. İşçiler ve sendikalar arasındaki dayanışma bir önceki döneme göre artmıştır. TÜRK-İŞ HAK-İŞ ve DİSK 1980 öncesinde mümkün olmayan demokrasi platformunda buluşmuşlardır. Hükümetlerin uzlaşmaz tutumları işçi hareketini, hedef hükümetler ve bazı siyasetçilerle sınırlı olsa da politize etmiştir. 1980 öncesinden farklı olarak işçiler ekonomik mücadele de grev dışı eylemlere daha çok başvurmuştur. Toplu pazarlık süreçlerini ve grevleri, sık sık grev dışı eylemlerle desteklemişlerdir.

12 Eylül askeri müdahalesinin hedeflerinden biri, belki de başlıcası olan işçi hareketi 1980 sonrasında büyük bedel ödemek zorunda bırakılmıştır. 1987 yılına kadar reel işçi ücretleri kesintisiz düşürülmüştür. 1987 yılına kadar işçi kesiminden bu gelişmelere yönelik tepki gelememiştir. 1987'de grevlerde patlama ilk tepki olmuştur.

1980'deki askeri müdahale ve bunu izleyen ilk birkaç yıl Türkiye işçi sınıfının yapısında önemli değişikliklere yol açmıştır. 1980 öncesinin işçi önderlerinin, işçi ve sendika militanlarının önemli bir bölümü işten çıkarılmış, tutuklanmış, yurt dışına gönderilmiş veya emekli olmuştur. İmalat sanayi başta olmak üzere büyük bir işçi sirkülasyonu görülmüştür. Bunun sonucunda yaşanan işçi kuşakları arasındaki kopukluk ve 1980 öncesini yaşamamış bir işçi kitlesinin harekete katılması kendi sorunlarını beraberinde getirmiştir. 1980 sonrasında pek çok işçi ilk kez grev ve grev dışı eylemlerle tanışmıştır. Buna karşılık büyük kentler ve büyük işyerlerinde çalışanlarda yeni bir militanlaşma eğilimi gözlenmiştir. 1980 öncesinde özel kesimde görülen yasal grev dışında kalan eylemler, 1980 sonrasında bu kez kamu kesiminde yoğunlaşmıştır. Kamu işçileri ilk kez bu dönemde yoğun olarak devlet ile karşı karşıya kalmışlardır. 1980 sonrasının bir diğer özelliği işçi hareketinde meydana gelen değişimin sendikalara ve sendikacılara da yansıyıp, onları da değişime itmesi olmuştur. Özellikle TÜRK-İŞ'te daha mücadeleci bir söylem güçlenmiştir. HAK-İŞ ise 1980'lerin sonundan itibaren kitleselleşmeyle birlikte bir yapı değişikliğine girmiştir. Buna karşılık 1980-1990 döneminde en fazla yara alan DİSK yeni yasalar ve yeni koşullar nedeniyle eski gücüne kavuşmakta güçlüklerle karşılaşmıştır(A.g.e, 1998:110-112).

Yeni Eğilimler

Hakkında onca şey söylenen küreselleşme süreci, kendi kompozisyonu da değişen sermayenin, ücretli emeğin bütün formlarına karşı yürüttüğü çok yönlü, sistemli ve kesintisiz saldırısı tarafından belirlenmektedir. Küresel ölçekte süren sınıflar mücadelesinde, Keynes'gil dönemin icaplarına uygun olarak kurumsallaşan sendikalar derin bir krizle sarsılmaktadır ve neo-liberal saldırı karşısında yenilgiye uğramış gözükmektedir. Mağlupların saflarında son 20 yıldır inişli-çıkışlı bir rota izleyerek gelişmekte olan yeni bir mücadele eğilimi görülmektedir. Uluslararası emek hareketinde gözlenen yeni eğilimler, yeni sanayileşmekte olan ülkelerde "toplumsal hareket sendikacılığı" gelişmiş kapitalist ülkelerde ise genellikle "yeni sendikacılık" terimleriyle nitelenmektedir, üzerinde sınırlı sayıda çalışmanın yapıldığı bu konu hakkındaki bilgilerin birçoğu, sendikacılık hareketi içindeki aktivistler tarafından üretilmektedir.

Benzer bir düşünce iklimi ülkemizde de mevcuttur. Güncel siyasal saflaşması demokratikleşme sorunsalı etrafında şekillenen ülkemizde 'toplumsal sınıflar', 'emek' ve 'sendikacılık hareketi' gibi başlıkların bu denli marjinalleşmesi düşündürücüdür. 'Sendikasız endüstri ilişkileri' sisteminden, 'insan kaynakları yönetiminden', 'yalın üretimden', 'esneklikten', 'kalite çemberinden' vb. birer olgu olarak söz etmek ayrı bir şeydir, her şeyi bunlardan ibaret görmek ve göstermek ayrı bir şeydir(Özügürlu, 2000:140-141). Günümüzdeki bu yeni sendikal hareketin nasıl biçimlendiğine ilişkin bazı çıkarımlar bulunmaktadır.

Ücretli emek ile sermaye arasındaki sorunların çözümünün toplu sözleşmelerin ötesine geçip siyasal alana kaymasıyla birlikte, işçi sınıfının ve sendikaların politize oldukları gözlemlenmektedir. İşçiler ve sendikalar geleneksel siyasal eğilimlerinden bağımsızlaşmaktadırlar ve ortak bir sınıf tavrı geliştirmektedirler. Demokrasi mücadelesinin öneminin artması, bu genel gelişimin bir unsurudur.

İşçi sınıfının heterojen yapısını arttırabilecek teknolojik gelişmelere ve sermayedar sınıfının işçi sınıfını parçalayabilmek amacıyla uyguladığı yeni üretim yöntemlerine ve örgütlenmesine karşın, sınıfın giderek daha da bütünleşmesinden söz edilir. Günümüzde sermayenin sosyal devleti yok etme ve işçileri koruyucu mevzuatı bile işlemez kılma çabaları, kamu ve

özel sektör işçileri, işçiler ve memurlar, işçiler ve emekliler arasındaki çıkar farklılıklarını iyice azaltmaktadır. Belirleyici eğilim, sınıfın bütünleşmesidir. Kesimsem çıkarların ancak bütünsel çıkarların savunulmasından geçmesidir. Geleceğin sendikacılığı, sınıfın bütününün çıkarlarını, sınıfın çeşitli kesimlerinin birbirinden farklı ve hatta birbiriyle çelişik çıkarlarının önüne koymayı öğrenmektedir.

Sendikacılık hareketi, işçi sınıfının örgütlenmesi ve mücadelesi olmakla birlikte, diğer emekçi sınıf ve tabakalardan kopuk bir mücadelenin başarı şansı yoktur. Günümüzde gözlenen diğer eğilim, sendikacılık hareketinin küçük esnaf ve köylünün sorunlarına da sahip çıkması, onlara fiilen önderlik ve örneklik etmesidir. Sendikacılık hareketi, tüm emekçi sınıf ve tabakaların umudu ve öncüsü olmak durumundadır.

Sendikacılık hareketi, uluslararası tekelci sermayenin denetimi altında ve çıkarları doğrultusunda bir küreselleşmeye karşı, emeğin dünyasını yaratma çabasının yanı sıra, bağımsızlıkçı ve ulusalcı da olmalıdır. Türkiye tarihinde ilk kez anti-emperyalist mücadele ile sermayedar sınıfa karşı verilen mücadele çakışmakta, özdeşleşmekte ve aynılaşmaktadır. Türk-İş'in son grevlerindeki vurgu bu yeni sendikacılık anlayışını yansıtmaktadır(Koç, 1997:65). 2000 sonrasında uluslararası sermayeye karşı örgütlenmede sendikalar da bir çözüm denemesine girişmişlerdir.

2008 yılında ilk dünya sendikasına doğru adımlar İngiltere'nin Amicus ve TGWU sendikalarıyla Kuzey Amerikan sendikası USW tarafından atılmıştır. "küresel sendikanın" oluşturulması yolunda ilk adım sayılabilecek girişimle Ottawa'da anlaşma imzalandı. Anlaşma uyarınca, sendikaların birleşmesinin hukuki temellerini belirleyecek komite kurulmasına karar verilmiştir. Amicus sendikasının genel sekreteri Derek Simpson, imza töreninde yaptığı konuşmada, "Sendikalar olarak görevlerimizden biri, işçilerin hayat şartlarını savunmak ve iyileştirmek ama ulusal sınırlamalar içinde bu iş gittikçe zorlaşıyor" demiştir. Simpson, "Bizler de küreselleşmezsek bu çok uluslu şirketlerle pazarlık edemez hale geleceğiz" diye konuştu ve şirketlerle "eşitlik temeli üzerinde" müzakere yapabilmenin önemine işaret etti. Kanadalı sendika lideri Leo Gerard da "işçilerin konumunu güçlendirmek ve dünyanın dört bir yanında çok uluslu şirketlerin baskılarına gereken cevabı verebilmek amacıyla dünya sendikası kurmaya çalıştıklarını" söyledi. Amicus genel sekreteri, "Uluslararası şirketler, bütün dünyada işçileri birbirlerine karşı kışkırtarak çalışma şartları ve ücretler konusunda baskı yapıyor" dedi ve "küreselleşmeden yararlananların, sadece işçileri sömürenler olduğunu ve işçilerin buna direnmesinin yolunun, birleşmek ve örgütlenmekten geçtiğini" ifade etti. Merkezi ABD'nin Pittsburgh kentinde bulunan USW, Kuzey Amerika'da 850 bin sanayi işçisini temsil ediyor. Bu sendikalar, Meksika ve Brezilya sendikalarıyla da ilişki içinde bulunuyor. Çin, Hindistan ve Afrika ülkelerinde sendikaların oluşmasını teşvik amacıyla bir de "uluslararası dayanışma" projesi hayata geçirilmesine karar verilmiştir (http://www.hurriyet.com.tr/ekonomi/6358362.asp). 2008 yılında atılan bu adım günümüzde dünya sendikacılığı ile birlikte ülkemizde de bu alana doğru sendikal harekette bir yönelim olduğundan bahsedilebilir.

Sendikalaşma olgusu ülkelerin iç hukuku ile yakından ilgilidir. Özellikle sendikacılığın henüz yeni oluştuğu ülkelerde yasal çerçeve sendikal hareket üzerinde büyük ölçüde etkili bir unsurdur. Hukuki mevzuat, en azından sendikaların faaliyet alanları ve tüm çalışanlara sendikalaşma hakkı verip vermemesi bakımından belirleyici olmaktadır.

Sendikal hareketin yasallık kazanmasını takip eden aylarda sendikalar kurulmuşsa, ilk kurulan sendikaların çoğunluğunun Türkiye Sosyalist Partisi, Türkiye Sosyalist Emekçi ve Köylü Partisi gibi sosyalizmi benimseyen partiler öncülüğünde kurulması dönemin hükümetini kuşkulandırmış; sendikacılığın daha başlangıçta "ideolojik boyut" kazanacağı endişesiyle söz konusu sendikalar 17 Aralık 1946 tarihinde sıkıyönetim kararıyla kapatılmıştır. Bu nedenle, sendikalaşma sürecinin başlangıcını, sendikaların kuruluş esasları ve faaliyet alanlarını belirleyen "5018 sayılı İşçi ve İşveren Sendikaları ve Sendika Birlikleri Hakkında Kanun"un kabul edildiği 1947 tarihinden itibaren almak gerekir(Mahiroğulları, 2001).

1947'den günümüze Türkiye'de dört sendikalar yasası (SY) uygulanmıştır. Bunların ilki 1947 yılında kabul edilen 5018 Sayılı İşçi ve İşveren Sendikaları ve Sendika Birlikleri Hakkındaki Kanun, ikincisi, 1963 yılında kabul edilen 274 Sayılı Sendikalar Yasası ve üçüncüsü, 1983 yılında kabul edilen 2821 Sayılı Sendikalar Yasası, dördüncüsü 2012 yılında kabul edilen 6356 sayılı sendikalar ve toplu iş sözleşmesi kanunudur. (Özerkmen, 2003:5).

Sendikalaşmanın yeni başladığı dönemde sendikalaşmayı aleyhte etkileyen yasal unsurlar da vardır. Türkiye'nin ilk iş kanunu olan 1936 tarihli ve 3008 sayılı İş Kanunu Türkiye'de ilk defa iş ilişkileri bireysel ve toplu düzeyde düzenlenmiştir. 1946 yılında Cemiyetler Kanununda yapılan değişiklikle 'sınıf esasına veya adına dayanan cemiyet' kurma yasağının kaldırılmasının ardından 1947 yılında çıkarılan 5018 sayılı ilk Sendikalar Kanunu çıkarılmış. 5018 sayılı kanunda işçi tanımı 3008 sayılı kanuna dayandırılmıştır.3008 sayılı iş kanununda işçi; bir iş akdi dolayısı ile başka bir şahsın işyerinde bedenen veyahut bedenen ve fikren çalışan kimsedir.(İK 3008). Bu tanımlama ile fikren çalışan kimseler kapsam dışı bırakılmıştır. Bu kanunlarda grev hakkı yasaklanmış ve işlevsiz bir sendikacılık oluşmuştur(Mahiroğulları, 2001:166, Makal, 2002:31).

5018 sayılı Kanun ikinci maddesinde, sendikaya üye olma hakkını İş Kanunu'ndaki işçi tanımı doğrultusunda bir süre; Basın ve Deniz İş Kanunları yürürlüğe girene kadar sadece bedenen çalışması fikren çalışmasına üstün sayılan işçilere tanımıştır. Dolayısıyla bu hüküm, başlangıçta sendikalaşmanın kapsamını daraltmıştır. Diğer taraftan, İş Kanunu'na tâbi bir işyerinin

işvereni, esnaf odasına kayıt olduğu takdirde işveren sıfatına bakılmayarak, bu gibi işverenlerin yanında çalışan işçiler, sayısı ne olursa olsun sendika kuramaz, sendikalara üye olamazlardı (Mahiroğulları, 2001:167).

Bu yasakçı zihniyet sonraki yıllarda da devam etmiştir. Bunun tek istisnası 1961 Anayasasının kabulünü izleyen ilk yıllardır. Sözü geçen Anayasada tüm çalışanlara sendika kurma ve bunlara üye olabilme haklarının tanınması, toplu pazarlık ve grev haklarının Anayasada güvence altına alınması, 1963 yasalarının (274,275) ülkemizde sendikacılığın kısa sürede güçlenerek gelişmesi için özel hükümler getirmesi sendikalaşmanın hızla gelişmesine neden olmuştur. Hatta bu dönemde, çok kısıtlı bir alanda, kamu görevlilerinin örgütlenmelerine olanak veren özel bir yasa kabul edilmiştir(Kutal,2005:14).

27 Mayıs 1960 Askeri Müdahalesi sonrasında Türkiye yeni bir döneme girmiştir. Her şeyden önce bu dönemde temel hak ve özgürlüklerin güvence altına alındığı bir Anayasa hazırlanarak "demokratikleşme süreci" başlatılmıştır. Bu bağlamda sendikacılığın gelişim yollarını tıkayan önemli bazı engeller kaldırılmış, işçi haklarıyla ilgili fikirlerin serbestçe savunulduğu ve tartışıldığı bir dönem yaşanmıştır.(Koç,2000)

274 sayılı sendikalar kanunu 1983 yılına kadar Türkiye'de sendikal faaliyetlerin hukuksal belirleyicisi olmuştur. 12 Eylül 1980 sonrası dönem ise hukuksal düzenlemede 1982 anayasası ve onun temel düzenlemeleri doğrultusunda çıkarılan 1983 tarihli 2821 sayılı sendikalar kanunu ile belirginleşmiştir. Bu yeni düzenlemeler çalışma ilişkilerinin kurumsallaşması bakımından geçmiş dönemlerde olduğu kadar radikal değişiklikler getirmemiştir. Yetkili sendika olabilmek için işkolunda çalışan işçilerin en az % 10'nunu örgütleme zorunluluğunun getirilmiş olması işyeri ve meslek sendikacılığının yasaklanması gibi yasal düzenlemeler, örgütlenme özgürlüğüne getirdiği sınırlamalar nedeniyle eleştirilmiştir(Makal, 2002:33).

2012 yılına gelindiğinde 2821 ve 2822 sayılı kanunlar tek kanun altında toplanarak 6356 sayılı sendikalar ve toplu iş sözleşmesi kanunu çıkartılmıştır. Türkiye'de sendikalar ve toplu iş sözleşmesi konusunda yeni bir yasal düzenleme yapmanın gerekçeleri şöylece özetlenebilir: 1- küresel rekabet ve artan işsizlik karşısında güç kaybeden sendikacılığı çoğulcu demokrasinin kaçınmaz bir öğesi olarak teşvik etmek ve güçlendirmek. 2- 12 Eylül 1980 döneminin kısıtlayıcı ve günümüze dek uluslararası kuruluşlarca eleştirilen düzenlemelerini değiştirip özellikle ILO'nun 87 ve 98 sayılı Sözleşmelerine uyum sağlamak. 3- 2821 ve 2822 sayılı yasaların otuz yıllık uygulamasında ortaya çıkan bazı sorunlara çözümler getirmek. 4- çeşitli sebeplerle ve esas itibariyle işkolu barajının etkisiyle tıkanan toplu pazarlık süreçlerinin önünü açmak (Dereli, 2013:2)

Türkiye'de Sendikalara İlişkin Veriler;

Oranlara ilişkin değerlendirme yapmadan önce elde edilen verileri eleştiren pek çok araştırma bulunmaktadır. Çalışma ve Sosyal Güvenlik Bakanlığı'nca hazırlanan verilere akademik bağlamda güven problemi yaşanmaktadır(Koray, 2000, Tokol, 2000, Parasız, 2002).

İşçi sendikaları istatistiklerini bu derece sağlıksız hale getiren temel etken, bu istatistiklerin bilgi vermenin ötesinde TİS sisteminde oynadıkları roldür. Bu durum istatistikleri, hem siyasal hem de sosyal tarafların müdahalesine açık hale getirmektedir. Böylece istatistikler, bilgilenme kaygısına göre değil siyasal, sosyal kaygılar ve sendikalar arasında yıkıcı rekabete açık bir şekilde oluşmaktadır(Lordoğlu, Çelik, 2006:21).

Tablo 1: Sendikal İstatistik Karmaşası

Kurum	Yıl	Oran(%)	Kullanılan Yöntem
ILO	1987	14.0	Toplam Ücretliler İçinde Sendika Üyeleri
ILO	1995	33.7	Toplam Ücretliler İçinde Sendika Üyeleri
ÇSGB	2004	58.1	Sigortalı İşçiler İçinde Resmi Sendika Üyeleri
DİE	2003	10.2	Toplam Ücretliler İçinde TİS Kapsamındaki İşçiler
Dünya Bankası	1998	9.1	Bilinmiyor
Türk-İş	1987	14.0	Toplam Ücretliler İçinde TİS Kapsamındaki İşçiler
TİSK	1995	16.0	Toplam Ücretliler İçinde TİS Kapsamındaki İşçiler
Kristal-İş	1998	11.1	Toplam Ücretliler İçinde TİS Kapsamındaki İşçiler
Petrol-İş	1996	11.2	Toplam Ücretliler İçinde TİS Kapsamındaki İşçiler
Petrol-İş	1996	20.9	Sigortalı İşçiler İçinde TİS Kapsamındaki İşçiler

Kaynak: (A.g.e, 2006:14).

ÇSGB'nin sadece sigortalı işçiler içindeki resmi sendika üyelerini hesaplaması sebebiyle sendikalaşma oranları Türkiye'de pek çok ülkeden yüksek görünmektedir. Üzerine yorum yapılacak verilerin bu bağlamda ele alınması gerekmektedir. Türkiye'de sendikalaşma oranına ilişkin verilere literatürde 1948'den itibaren rastlanmaktadır.

Tablo 2: Sendikalı İşçi ve Sendikalaşma Oranlarının Yıllara Göre Dağılımı (1948-1963)

Yıllar	İşçi sayısı	Sendikalı işçi sayısı	Sendikalaşma oranı
1948	-	52.000	-
1949	-	72.000	-
1950	292.608	78.000	% 26.65
1951	382.024	110.000	% 28.79
1952	447.963	130.000	% 29.02
1953	494.024	140.000	% 28.33
1954	510.344	180.387	% 35.34
1955	533.216	189.595	% 35.55
1956	543.554	205.155	% 37.74
1957	577.630	244.853	% 42.38
1958	611.703	262.591	% 42.92
1959	618.775	280.786	% 45.37
1960	620.900	282.967	% 45.57
1961	688.819	298.000	% 43.26
1962	680.125	307.000	% 45.13
1963	710.820	259.710	% 36.53

Kaynak: Mahiroğulları, 2000:163

Sendikalaşma oranları, 1948-1963 arasında düzenli bir artış trendinde seyretmiştir. 1963-1983 arasındaki sendikalaşma oranları ise kesin olmadığından çalışmada yer verilmemiştir. Yıllar itibariyle yaklaşık rakamlar belirtilmişse de resmi rakamlara ulaşılamamaktadır. Resmi rakamların güvenilirliği ise ayrı bir tartışma konusudur. Bu konuda Petrol-İş sendikasının derlediği hesaplamalar ise şu şekildedir:

Tablo 3: Sendikalı İşçi Sayısı ve Sendikalaşma Oranları (1963-1994)

Sendikalı İşçi ve Sendikalaşma Oranları Konusunda Bir Hesaplama Denemesi

Yıllar	Sendikalı İşçi Sayısı			Ücretli Sayısı	Sendikalaşma Oranı (%)
	Kamu	Özel	Toplam		
1963	347.961	98.131	446.092	2.741.795	16,3
1964	338.221	151.134	489.355	2.886.100	17,0
1965	333.477	202.429	535.904	3.038.000	17,6
1966	340.950	250.319	591.260	3.129.140	18,9
1967	365.917	279.209	645.096	3.223.014	20,0
1968	403.625	303.927	707.485	3.319.705	21,3
1969	444.373	322.690	766.952	3.419.296	22,4
1970	483.427	336.089	819.373	4.173.000	19,6
1971	512.110	346.298	858.809	4.298.190	20,0
1972	527.704	361.845	889.433	4.427.136	20,1
1973	527.801	382.344	910.071	4.559.950	20,0
1974	523.571	401.598	925.133	4.696.748	19,7
1975	524.870	405.480	930.336	5.387.000	17,3
1976	539.265	384.863	924.124	5.537.836	16,7
1977	565.108	346.045	911.152	5.692.895	16,0
1978	604.711	313.765	918.477	5.852.296	15,7
1979	656.233	310.557	966.790	6.016.161	16,1
1980	708.141	341.109	1.049.250	6.162.000	17,0
1981	742.066	386.399	1.128.465	6.316.050	17,9
1982	757.269	431.480	1.188.749	6.473.951	18,4
1983	774.777	472.498	1.247.275	6.635.800	18,8
1984	811.739	516.929	1.328.668	6.801.695	19,5
1985	861.486	558.098	1.419.584	6.978.000	20,3
1986	897.717	584.384	1.482.101	7.138.494	20,8
1987	912.638	588.141	1.500.779	7.302.679	20,6
1988	910.379	579.488	1.489.867	7.470.641	19,9
1989	910.120	569.791	1.479.911	7.642.466	19,4
1990	907.415	558.236	1.465.651	8.991.000	16,3
1991	902.891	533.172	1.436.064	9.242.748	15,5
1992	882.868	485.148	1.368.016	9.501.545	14,4
1993	855.242	421.280	1.276.522	9.767.588	13,1
1994	807.893	353.411	1.161.304	10.041.081	11,6

Not: Petrol-İş Sendikası Araştırma Dairesi tarafından, toplu iş sözleşmesi kapsamındaki işçi sayısından hareketle, üçer yıllık hareketli ortalamalar metoduyla elde edilen sendikalı işçi sayısı tahminlerinin, nüfus sayımlarına göre tahmini ücretli sayılarına oranlanmasıyla bulunmuştur.

Kaynak: 1993-1994 Petrol-İş, 340-343

Tablo 4: Sendikalı İşçi Sayısı ve Sendikalaşma Oranları (1984-2001)

Yıllar	Toplam işçi sayısı	Sendikalı işçi sayısı	Sendikalaşma oranı
1984	2.553.384	1.427.271	% 55,89
1985	2.819.517	1.828.471	% 64,85
1986	3.075.343	1.953.892	%63,53
1987	3.268.038	2.044.797	%62,56
1988	3.483.212	2.227.029	%63,93
1989	3.564.214	1.834.968	%51,48
1990	3.563.527	1.997.564	%56,05
1991	3.513.064	2.130.811	%60,65
1992	3.596.469	2.254.271	%62,68
1993	3.742.380	2.485.681	%66,41
1994	3.815.261	2.644.417	%69,31
1995	3.905.118	2.667.014	%68,29
1996	4.051.295	2.708.784	%66,86
1997	4.215.375	2.774.622	%65,82
1998	4.327.156	2.923.546	%67,56
1999	4.350.016	2.987.975	%68,69
2000	4.508.529	3.086.305	%68,45
2000*	4.521.081	2.468.591	%54,60
2001	4.537.544	2.580.927	%56,88

Kaynak: Çalışma ve Sosyal Güvenlik Bakanlığı, Çalışma Hayatı İstatistikleri, No: 24,

Ankara, 1999, s 110; calisma.gov.tr. Temmuz 2000 verileri.

ÇSGB verilerine göre 1984'ten 2000'li yıllara kadar sendikalaşma oranları artık göstermiştir. 2000 sonrasında küreselleşme süreciyle resmi istatistiklerde de sendikalaşma oranı azalma eğilimine girmiştir. Ancak Petrol-İş'in aynı yıllar için açıkladığı rakamlar bu rakamların altındadır. Sendikalaşma oranı neredeyse iki kat daha yüksek görünmektedir.

Tablo 5: Sendikalı İşçi Sayısı ve Sendikalaşma Oranları (2003-2014)

Yıllar	ÇSGB Ocak	ÇSBG Temmuz	OECD
2003	58,0	57,5	8,9
2004	57,8	58,1	8,6
2005	58,4	58,7	8,2
2006	58,7	58,2	7,5
2007	58,4	58,4	6,6
2008	58,7	58,7	5,8
2009	59,0	59,9	5,9
2010	..	..	5,9
2011	..	..	5,4
2012	..	..	5,4
2013	9,2	8,9	..
2014	9,5	..	..

Kaynak: OECD,2012, ÇSGB, 2014

Son on yıldır sendikalaşma oranı Türkiye'de düşüş trendindedir. ÇSGB'nin hesapladığı oranlar son yıllarda OECD'ye yakınlaşmaktadır. 2010,2011,2012 yılına ilişkin sendikalaşma oranlarına ilişkin veriler (ÇSGB'nin verileri) bulunmamaktadır. Bu yıllardan sonra oranlara yönelik yapılan eleştirilerle birlikte ÇSGB bu konudaki istatistiki bilgili daha güvenilir hale getirmeye çalışmaktadır.

Tablo 6: OECD Verilerine Göre Türkiye'de Sendikalaşma Oranları

Yıllar	Sendikalaşma Oranları
1986	21,9
1987	23,7
1988	22,2
1989	21,5
1990	19,2
1991	19,7
1992	20,1
1993	19,6
1994	17,2
1995	13,4
1996	12,5
1997	13,9

1998	12,4
1999	10,6
2000	9,9
2001	10,0
2002	9,5
2003	8,9
2004	8,6
2005	8,2
2006	7,5
2007	6,6
2008	5,8
2009	5,9
2010	5,9
2011	5.4

Kaynak: OECD, Trade Union Density in OECD Countries, 1960-2011, OECD, 2012.

OECD'de 1986 öncesinde Türkiye'de sendikalaşma oranlarına ilişkin veri bulunmamaktadır. Yıllar itibariyle elde edilen OECD verilerine göre sendikalaşma oranları 1980 sonrasında düşüş trendine girmiştir. ÇSGB istatistikleri, OECD'nin istatistiklerinin yıllar itibariyle neredeyse 3 katıdır. Ancak 2013 rakamlarına bakıldığında ÇSGB, OECD'nin rakamlarına yaklaştığı görülmektedir. Bunun temel nedeni ÇSGB'nin sendikalaşma oranlarını OECD'nin yöntemine göre hesaplamasından kaynaklanmaktadır.

Dünya'da ve Türkiye'de Sendikalaşma Oranlarının Azalma Nedenleri

Üretim biçimlerinde ortaya çıkan dönüşüm, istihdamın değişen yapısı ve sendikaların rolüne ilişkin başat ideolojinin etkisiyle, 1980'li yıllardan itibaren tüm dünyada, sendikalı işçi sayısı önemli ölçüde azalmıştır. Tarihsel olarak sendikalaşma oranlarının görece yüksek olduğu Avrupa Birliği (AB) üyesi ülkelerde bile sendika üyesi işçi sayısında azalma dikkat çekici bir düzeydedir. AB üyesi ülkelerde 2000-2008 yılları arasında emekli olan işçiler hariç tutulduğunda, bağımlı çalışanlar arasında sendika üyesi işçi sayısı 46 milyondan 43 milyona düşmüştür. Aynı dönemde bağımlı çalışanların sayısının 120 milyondan 140 milyona yükseldiği dikkate alındığında, sendika yoğunluğunun %27,8'den %23,4'e düşmesi, kurumsal endüstri ilişkileri geleneği ile ön plana çıkan Avrupa ülkeleri açısından oldukça düşündürücüdür.

Türkiye'de Çalışma ve Sosyal Güvenlik Bakanlığı'nın açıkladığı sendikalaşma oranlarının, gerçek sendikalaşma oranlarından oldukça yüksek olduğu bilinmektedir. Söz konusu durum, toplu sözleşme kapsamında yer alan işçi sayısı ve ilgili bazı değişkenler ele alındığında açık bir biçimde ortaya çıkmaktadır. Çelik ve Lordoğlu (2006)'nun geliştirdiği hesaplama yöntemi çerçevesinde, 1998-2004 yıllarını kapsayan dönemde, sendikalaşma oranının %10-15 arasında değiştiği görülmektedir. Ancak, son yıllarda bu oran da önemli ölçüde azalmakta ve Türkiye'de sendikacılık esas olarak kamu sektörü ile sınırlı bir yapıya sıkışmaktadır. Kamu sektöründe ise artan düzensiz ve eğreti istihdam ilişkileri (4-C gibi) kamu sektöründe de sendikaların gücünün önemli ölçüde sarsılmasına neden olmaktadır.

Yapılan saha çalışmaları Türkiye'de çalışma yaşamında ve toplumsal yaşamda artan kırılganlıkların sendikalara olan ihtiyacı artırmasına rağmen, çalışanların sendikalara olan tutumun genel olarak olumsuz olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu olumsuz tabloda sendikal örgütlenmenin önündeki engeller ve artan güvencesizlik kadar, sendikal yapıdan kaynaklı bir takım sorunların da olduğu ortaya çıkmaktadır. Urhan ve Selamoğlu (2008:182-184)'nun Kocaeli'nde 2004 ve 2008 yıllarında gerçekleştirdiği araştırmanın sonuçları, süreç içerisinde sendikalara olan güvenin azaldığını ve sendikaların işçilerin haklarını koruyup geliştirme konusunda araştırmaya katılan işçilerin %82'lik gibi önemli bir kısmının olumsuz görüşe sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Sendikalara karşı olumsuz tutum içerisinde olan işçilerin büyük bir kısmının daha önce sendika üyesi işçiler olması ise, çalışmanın en dikkat çekici bulgularından birini oluşturmaktadır. Sendikalara üye olmama nedenleri arasında sendikalara güven duymama % 28,6'lık bir oranla ilk sırada yer almaktadır. Sendikaların

işçilerin hak ve çıkarlarını koruma konusunda yetersiz kalmasının nedenleri ise sırasıyla, işverenlerin işçiler üzerindeki baskıları (%28,1), yasaların anti-demokratik olması (%26,3) ve sendikacıların yetersizliği (%25,3) olarak sıralanmaktadır.

Ortaya çıkan tablo, dünyada ve Türkiye'de sendikacılığın önemli tehditler ile karşı karşıya kalarak, geçtiğimiz son otuz yıl içerisinde güç kaybettiğini göstermektedir. Ancak, yaşanan dönüşüm, sendikalar açısından tehditler kadar, dönüşüm yönetilebildiği ölçüde fırsatlar da yaratabilecek niteliktedir. Özellikle son küresel kriz, tüm dünyada, sendikacılığın geleneksel olarak temsil ettiği eşitlik ve adalet ilkelerinin önemini ve değerini artırmış, bu bağlamda sendikaların kapitalist sisteminin düzenlenmesindeki rolünün ön plana çıkmasına ortam sağlamıştır. Bu çalışmada, bu noktadan hareketle, sendikacılığın krizine neden olan dışsal ve içsel faktörler kapsamında, sendikacılığın bugünü ve geleceğine yönelik tehdit ve fırsatlar değerlendirilmeye çalışılacaktır.

Sendikal Yapıdaki Değişim Sürecini Belirleyen Dışsal Faktörler:

-Küreselleşme süreci (sermeyenin emeğin ucuz olduğu ülkelere kayışı karşısında sendikaların ulusal refah devletleri içerisinde pazarlık güçlerini önemli ölçüde yitirmeleri)
-Finans piyasaların rolünün artışı karşısında emek yoğun reel sektör üretimindeki azalışın, sendika üyesi sanayi sektöründe çalışan işçi sayısını azaltması,
-Teknolojik değişimlerin üretim ve istihdam yapısını değiştirmesi, hizmet sektöründe istihdam artışı

-Bir yandan teknolojilik değişimlerin etkisiyle sendikalaşma eğilimi düşük nitelikli işgücüne talep yükselirken, diğer yandan, sendikal örgütlenmeye yabancı olan kadın, genç ve göçmen işgücünün işgücü piyasalarında tabakalaşma sonucu önem kazanması
-Değişen işgücü piyasaları (Sendikal örgütlenmenin oldukça zor olduğu esnek ve düzensiz istihdam biçimlerinde artış sonucu sendikalaşma oranlarının azalması, üretim ölçeklerinin dezantralizasyonu ve küçülmesi sonucu toplu pazarlığın ölçeğinin işletme/işyeri düzeyine indirgenmesi ya da ortadan kalkması)
-Yönetim ve organizasyon yapılarında değişimler (Sendikalara olan gereksinimi azaltıcı yönde çalışanlara yönelik ödüllendirme ve kontrol sistemlerini içeren yeni yönetim teknikleri)

-Sendikaların geleneksel olarak güçlü olduğu kamu sektöründeki istihdamın özelleştirmeler sonucunda önemli ölçüde azalması
-Küresel krizler sonucu artan işsizlik ve güvencesizliğin, sendikaların pazarlık gücünü önemli ölçüde azaltması

-Politikalardaki değişimler (Sağ partilerin iktidara gelişi ve sendikaların politik gücünü kaybetmeleri)
(http://www.turkmetaldergi.com/Sendikaciligin-Gelecegi-Tehditler-ve-Firsatlar_makale_39.html)

SONUÇ:

Türkiye'de sendikacılık tarihine bakıldığında öne çıkan en önemli durum, sendikaların her zaman siyasi unsurların gölgesinde faaliyetini sürdüren kurumlar olduğu gerçeğidir. 1923-1945 dönemlerini tek parti hükümetiyle yaşamak zorunda kalan sendikalar, çok partili döneme geçiş sonrasında da beklenen gelişmeyi gösterememiştir. Sendikal faaliyetler süreç boyunca hem siyasi hem de kanuni yönden beklenen desteği göremezken, aynı zamanda dönem dönem ortaya çıkan askeri darbeler ve yasaklarla dünyadaki sendikal düzeyi yakalayamamıştır. Sendikal faaliyetlerin daima siyasi içerikli olması ve gerçek kimliğine oturtulamaması da toplumsal desteği tam anlamıyla arkasına alamayan bir sendikal yapıyı ortaya çıkarmıştır.

1990'lardan sonra küreselleşmenin hızlanması, Türkiye ve dünyada istihdam yapılarında ve yönetim modellerinde ortaya çıkan değişimler, yeni teknolojiler, küresel krizlerle birlikte bozulan ekonomiler ve işsizlik tüm dünya ülkeleriyle birlikte Türkiye'deki sendikacılık faaliyetlerini de olumsuz etkilemiştir. Zaten tam anlamıyla kimliğini bulamayan Türkiye sendikacılığı bu olumsuz ortamla birlikte daha da istenmeyen bir durum içerisine girmiştir.

Sonuç olarak, Türkiye sendikacılık tarihi sendikal faaliyetler anlamında güçlü bir temel oluşturmamıştır. Bununla birlikte küresel sorunlarla da başa çıkmak zorunda olan Türk sendikacılığı her ne kadar yasal sıkıntılarından kurtulmuş olsa da gün geçtikçe daha sorunlu bir süreci hissedecektir.

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Turkish Literature Critisizm of Fethi Naci

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Abstract

Fethi Naci is one of the leading critics who emerged from Turkish Literature in the last decade. His distinctive approaches, objectivity, standards and most importantly his outspoken personality made him unique in the area of Turkish Literature Critisizm.It can be concluded that he is mainly involved in the area of novel critisizm and he defines himself as a novel critic. Although he is involved in novels, he also did the critics of historical novels in their peculiar aspects. Aim of this study is to reveal his basic critisizm approaches and standarts based on his historical novel critics. To develop criteria that would be appilacable to all novels all the time is an important contribution in the field of historical novel critisizm.Similar to his critisizm style for novels; reality, consistancy and causality were the main topics for historical novel critisizm he paid attention mostly. He never impressed by who was the author. His critics were mainly influenced by Balzac's, Lukacs', Çehov's experience and their theortical minds. It is very important to look with an eye of Fethi Naci's critisizm to historical novels which are very populer nowadays.[1]

Keywords: Fethi Naci, Türk Edebiyatı, Elestiri, Tarihi Roman, Tarihi Roman Elestirisi

Giriş

Bu bildiride ünlü Türk edebiyat eleştirmeni Fethi Naci'nin Türk romancılarının yazdığı tarih romanları üzerine söyledikleri ve tarih romanı eleştirisinde dikkate aldığı, altını çizdiği olumlu ve olumsuz noktalar, bazı tarih romanları çerçevesince değerlendirilecektir.

Asıl adı İsmail Naci Kalpakçıoğlu olan Fethi Naci, Giresun'da 1927 yılında doğdu ve 2008 yılında İstanbul'da vefat etti. (Onaran, Kılıçarslan, 2011: 17) Yapıtları ve yazılarıyla Türkiye'de Toplumcu Gerçekçi (Onaran, Kılıçarslan, 2011: 18) ya da Sosyalist Gerçekçi (Onaran, Kılıçarslan, 2011: 59) adıyla anılan edebiyat akımının çerçevesinde yazı yazan, eleştiri yazılarında bu çerçevenin kural ve değerlendirmelerini dikkate alan bir eleştirmen ve edebiyat insanıdır. Roman eleştirilerinde de bu yönü sık sık karşımıza çıkar.

Fethi Naci, roman eleştirileri çerçevesinde tarihi roman türünü ele alarak ve bu türün farklı boyutlarına dikkat ederek, kalıcı ölçütler geliştirme yanında önemli bir birikim de oluşturmuştur.

Fethi Naci Kimlerden Etkilenmiştir?

Fethi Naci'yi yukarda sözünü ettiğim çerçevede en çok etkileyen isim ise ünlü Macar düşünür ve edebiyat kuramcısı György Lukacs'tır. Fethi Naci'nin tarihi roman eleştirilerinde tıpkı diğer roman eleştirilerinde olduğu gibi ölçüt ve dayanak olarak karşımıza Lukacs çıkar. Fethi Naci'nin bu eleştirilerinde Lucacs'ın görüşlerine sahip çıktığı, onları benimsediği görülür. (Onaran, Kılıçarslan, 2011: 63) Fethi Naci de Fransızca bildiği için Fransızca'dan Lukacs'ın bazı eserlerini okuduğunu sonrasında ise Türkçeye çevrilen bütün eserlerini okuduğunu belirtir. (Naci, 1990: 73)

Fethi Naci'nin eleştiri yazılarında etkilendiği diğer yazarlar arasında ise kendi ifadesiyle Plehanov'dan başka "diğer Fransız Marksistler" olarak saydığı Roger Garaudy, Henri Lefebre, G. Politzer ve Auguste Cornu gelmektedir. (Naci, 1990: 72) 1987'de yazdığı bir yazıda ise "Şimdilerde en çok ilgimi çeken düşünür ise Bahtin" demiştir. (Naci, 1990: 73)

Fethi Naci'nin Tarihi Roman Hakkındaki Görüşleri

Fethi Naci de tarihsel roman üzerine ayrıca düşünmüş bir edebiyat adamıdır. Eleştiri Günlüğü kitap dizisinin "Kıskanmak" başlıklı 5. cildinde yer alan 27 Mart 1997 tarihli "Tarih ve Roman" başlıklı yazısında tarih ve roman ilişkisi hakkında

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düşüncelerini ayrıca dile getirmiştir. Bu yazıda yukarda değindiğimiz temel noktalardan yola çıkar ve özellikle romancının edebi/estetik kaygıları öne çıkartması ve özellikle bunun en önemli parçası olan "yazınsal dil" üzerinde şöyle der:

"Tarih bilimi, insanlardan soyutlayarak anlatır tarihi. Oysa bir edebiyat türü olan roman, tarihi, tarihsel olaylar olarak değil, bu olayların insanlar üzerindeki etkileriyle anlatır, somut ve insan çatışmalarıyla anlatır; roman, bunun dışına çıkarsa edebiyatın da dışına çıkar. Romancı tarihi de anlatsa, günceli de anlatsa, kullandığı dil, her zaman, 'yazınsal dil' olacaktır." (Naci, 1998: 228)

Fethi Naci'nin burada değindiği yazınsal dil, onun bütün eleştirilerinde göz önünde tuttuğu ve nesnelliğinin en önemli unsuru olan ölçütüdür. Özellikle Türkiye gibi kültürel olarak aslında bir "biz" olma sorununu hep yaşayan ve bu sorunun kaynağını aldığı yakın tarihin aynı zamanda ve sürekli bir siyasi kavga alanı olduğu ülkelerde, tarihsel roman türünün çok kolayca o günün siyasi kavgalarının ideolojik bir aracı olma tehlikesi hep vardır. Çünkü Türkiye'nin yakın geleceğini şekillendirmek üzere yapılan siyasi kavgaların izdüşümü, yakın tarihin gerçekte ne olduğu noktasındaki bir tarih kavgası olmaktadır. Bu bakımdan Türkiye'de tarihi roman çerçevesinde karşımıza çıkan örneklerin bir çoğu edebi/estetik kaygıların ve doğal olarak bunun en önemli parçası olan yazınsal dilin ikinci plana atıldığı, hatta hiç önemsenmediği, doğrudan ideolojik biçimlendirme araçları olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Fethi Naci belki de eleştiri yazılarında çok bununla, yani edebiyatı siyasetin bir aracı, alanı yapan anlayışla mücadele etmiştir. Yazısında bu konudaki vurgusu önemlidir:

"Romancı araştırmalar yapabilir, topladığı belgelerden yararlanabilir, ama sıra yazmaya gelince, işinin tarih yazmak değil, roman yazmak olduğunu unutmamak zorundadır; bunun için topladığı bilgiler, belgeler, buzdağının denizin altında kalan büyük bölümü gibi olmalıdır, göze batmamalıdır; çünkü romancı, o bilgileri, o belgeleri aktarmayacaktır romanına, roman kişilerinin düşünüşlerinin, davranışlarının nasıl biçimlendiğini gösterirken yararlanacaktır o bilgilerden, belgelerden." (Naci, 1998: 228)

Tek tek tarihsel romanları eleştirirken de görülecektir ki Fethi Naci bu kuramsal düşünceleriyle hep tutarlıdır. Ele aldığı her tarihsel romanda bu gerçekleri dile getirerek bir anlamda "nasıl roman yazılmalı" çerçevesinde bir eğitmen tavrını üstlenmekten de çekinmeyecektir.

Fethi Naci'nin özelde tarihsel roman, genelde roman konusunda düşüncelerini benimsediği ve kural düzeyinde kabul ettiği yazarlardan biri de Balzac'tır. Benimsediği ve etkilendiği Lukacs'ın Avrupa Gerçekçiliği adlı yapıtına aldığı Balzac'tan bir örnekle ilgili şu sözleri Fethi Naci'nin hep yanında taşıdığı bir pusula gibidir:

" 'Büyük tarihsel olaylar ve tarihteki büyük figürler, toplumun gelişiminin somut tipler biçiminde gösterilişine çok ender olarak uygundur. Balzac'ın yapıtlarında Napolyon'un çok ender olarak ve hep kısa bir süre için görülmesi bir rastlantı değildir, oysa Napolyon'cu idealler ve Napolyon'cu imparatorluğunun entelektüel özü Balzac'ın romanlarının bir çoğunda egemen bir rol oynar, (…) Roman, büyük tarihsel figürlerin görülüşüne ancak ikinci derecede karakterler olarak katılır.' " (Naci, 1998: 228)

Fethi Naci'nin özellikle Kemal Tahir'in bazı romanlarında tarihsel gerçek kişileri dilediğince konuşturması üzerine getirdiği eleştirilerde bu pasajın hep arka planda bir ezgi gibi çaldığını duyumsarız. Görülüyor ki Fethi Naci tarihsel roman eleştirisinde, kendini, bir kuramcı olarak ortaya koymaktan çok sağlam bilimsel temeller üzerinden söz söyleyen, güvenli bir duruş sergilemeyi hedefleyen bir eleştirmen olarak biçimlendirmek istemektedir.

Fethi Naci'Nnin Balzac'ın romancı tavrında övdüğü bir diğer nitelik ise kişisel ideolojik tutumunun ele aldığı dönemin nesnel gelişimini vermesine engel olmamasıdır. Fethi Naci, Nahit Sırrı Örik'in Sultan Hamid Düşerken adlı romanını eleştirirken yazının en başında söylediklerinde bu nokta dikkat çeker:

"Nahit Sırrı Örik'in tutumu, İkinci Meşrutiyeti'ten İttihat ve Terakki'den, Sultan Hamid'den söz açan öteki romancıların tutumlarına hiç mi hiç benzemiyor: İttihat ve Terakki'nin zorbalığına karşı çıkıyorlardı o romancılar, ama hiçbirinin aklından 31 Mart'ı sevimli göstermek ya da Sultan Hamid'i tutmak geçmiyordu; oysa Nahid Sırrı Örik'in gönlü de, kafası da Sultan Hamid'den yana. Ne var ki Balzac'ın kralcı oluşu toplumsal gerçekliği nesnel gelişmesi içinde vermesine nasıl engel olamamışsa Nahid Sırrı'nın Sultan Hamid'den yana olması da toplumumuzun belirli bir tarihsel kesitini bütün gerçekliğiyle yansıtmasına engel olamamış" (Naci, 2012: 193). Naci aynı yerde daha önce de değindiğimiz Balcac'ın Roman, büyük tarihsel figürlerin görülüşüne ancak ikinci derecede karakterler olarak katılır.' sözünden Nahid Sırrı'nın haberdar olmasını olumlu bir nokta olarak belirtir.

Bu paragrafın önemi Fethi Naci'nin Tarihi romandan ne beklediğini, nasıl bir tutumu olumladığını kısaca ortaya koymasıdır: "Toplumsal gerçekliği nesnel gerçekliği içinde vermek" ve "toplu(mun) belirli bir tarihsel kesitini bütün gerçekliğiyle yansıtmak." Bu unsurlar Fethi Naci'nin bütün tarihi roman eleştirilerinde en başta dikkat ettiği niteliklerdir.

Fethi Naci tarihi romanda dil sorunu üzerinde de durur. Ona göre tarihi roman yazarı romanın geçtiği zamanın dilini değil, kendi zamanının dilini kullanmalıdır. Bu açıdan özellikle Attila İlhan'ı ve son dönemlerin popüler tarihi roman yazarı İhsan

Oktay Anar'ı, kimi yapıtlarında bu ilkeye ters düştükleri için eleştirir. Ancak Fethi Naci'nin dile yönelik bu eleştirisini sadece tarihi roman bağlamında bir eleştiri olarak ele almamak gerekir. Bu eleştirisi, aslında Fethi Naci'nin romanda her zaman dikkat ettiği yazınsal dil/kullanmalık dil düzlemindeki eleştirilerinin bir parçasıdır. Çoğu yerde Fethi Naci yazarların dil kullanımındaki özensizlikleri, anlatım bozukluklarını eleştirirken, dili de tıpkı roman kişileri gibi ele aldığı romanın şekillendirdiği dünyanın bir uzantısı olup olmadığı yönüyle değerlendirir. Romanın dili roman gerçeğinin işlevsel bir parçası olmalı, söylenen sözler nesnel gerçekliğin asli unsuru olarak yapay bir tat bırakmamalıdır. Örneğin Mehmet Eroğlu'nun yakın tarihi konu edinen Yarım Kalan Yürüyüş adlı romanını eleştirirken roman dili üzerine söylediklerinde bu düşünceden izler buluruz:

"Geçenlerde bir başka konu ile ilgili olarak Mehmet Eroğlu'nun Yarım Kalan Yürüyüş, (Can Yayınları, 1986) adlı romanını okurken altını çizdiğim bazı cümleler: 'Deniz, umutsuz bir düşünce gibi kımıltısız', ' Saatlerdir bahçenin üstünde ince bir tül gibi salınan sessizlik Metin'in güçlü kahkahasıyla yırtılıp dağılıyor.', 'Ter, eriyen bir mum gibiboynumdan aşağıya toplanarak sırtımda toplanıyor.'diyor yetmiyor, daha sonra da 'Ter, ikinci bir deri gibi bütün vücudunu sarmıştı.' diyor." (Naci, 1998: 12)

Bu alıntılardan sonra Fethi Naci'nin son zamanlarda dikkatle takip ettiğini anladığımız Roland Barthes'ın Anlatıların Yapısal Çözümlemesine Giriş adlı yapıtından yaptığı alıntıyla da pekiştirerek söyledikleri, önemlidir:

"Bir romanı, daha doğrusu bir anlatıyı, günlük yaşamdan ayıran en önemli özellik, günlük yaşamın gelişigüzel hareketlerle, konuşmalarla vb. dolu olmasına karşılık, romanda en küçük ayrıntıya kadar her şeyim 'işlevsel' olmasıdır; bunun için bir cümleyi roman cümlesi yapan şey, onun süslü püslü söylenmesi değildir. 'söylemek istediği şeydir.', 'İşlevler kimi kez tümceden büyük birimlere (yapıtın bütününe kadar varan değişik boyutlardaki tümce öbekleri) kim kez küçük birimlerle (dizim, sözcük ve hatta sözcük içindeki yalnızca bazı öğeler) gösterilir. " (Naci, 1998: 12) Buradaki son alıntı Barthes' ındir)

Görülüyor ki Fethi Naci dilin işlevselliğine büyük önem vermekte, roman kahramanının kişiliğini nasıl nesnel koşulların bir uzantısı olarak görmek istiyorsa kullanılan dilin de buna paralel bir işlevselliği olmalı, toplumsal koşulların uzağında özellikle de süslü, ağdalı gereksizlikleri taşımamalıdır. Şöyle ekler:

"İşlevsellik ve çok anlamlılık… Romancılarımız, hikayecilerimiz bunların üzerinde gereğince düşünmedikleri sürece yazdıkları hikayeler röportaj olmaktan kolay kolay kurtulamayacaktır, yazdıkları romanlar gereksiz ayrıntılarla dolu olacak, 'Hayatımı yazsam roman olur!' anlayışından öteye geçemeyecektir. Bu tehlikelerden kurtulmanın yolu, öyle sanıyorum, her şeyden önce,'anlatı cümlesi' nin ne olduğunu anlamaktan geçiyor." (Naci, 1992: 13)

Bu aşamada belirtmek istediğimiz bir diğer nokta ise Fethi Naci'nin İlhan Berk, Attila İlhan, Pınar Kür, Nazlı Eray gibi bir çok ünlü Türk yazarını eleştirmekten çekinmemesidir. Ün, Fethi Naci için, onun en sert eleştirileri için hiçbir engel oluşturmaz. Ünlü yazarlar kadar, popüler olmuş, çok satan romanlar da hak ettiklerinde onun keskin eleştiri dilinin hedefi olmaktan kurtulamazlar.

Son olarak Fethi Naci'nin tarihi romana düşkünlük ile siyasal baskı dönemleri arsında kurduğu bağa da dikkat etmek gerekir. Ona göre romancılarımız yaşadıkları dönemlerde sanatı, edebiyatı, kültürü ve aydın insanları hedef tahtasına oturtan baskı ve askeri darbe dönemlerinde bu baskılara karşı dolaylı yoldan eleştiri getirebilmek adına tarihi romanı bir tür sığınak olarak kullanırlar.

Fethi Naci'nin tarihi roman adına dikkat çektiği bir diğer konu da yakın geçmişin tarihi roman bağlamında çok da elverişli olmadığıdır. Söz konusu yakın geçmiş olduğunda yazarın siyasi tartışmalara laf yetiştirmek için tarihi romanı bir platform olarak, bir araç olarak kullanma tehlikesini belirtir. Özellikle Türkiye'de 12 Mart 1971 ve 12 Eylül 1980 tarihli faşist askeri darbelerin hemen sonrasında bir furya halini alan bu dönemi ele alan romanlardaki "aceleciliği" eleştirir. (Naci, 1998: 230)

Örneklerle Fethi Naci'nin Tarihsel Roman Eleştirisi

Fethi Naci'nin tarihsel roman incelemelerinde karşımıza çıkan en önemli özelliği, tarihe Marksist ya da materyalist bir açıdan bakması ve bunun eleştirel yaklaşımında ya da "toplumcu gerçekçilik" dediğimiz çerçevede çok belirgin olmasıdır. Bunun için sık sık tarihsel roman eleştirisinde romandaki olayların geçtiği dönemi Marksist bir yorumla özetler. Özetlemek ve ele aldığı yapıttan bol bol alıntı yapmak aslında Fethi Naci'nin tipik bir özelliği olmasına karşılık tarihsel roman eleştirisinde tarihsel gerçekleri romandaki olayların karşısına çıkartır ve sanki okuyucuyu hangi tarihsel zemin üzerinde değerlendirme yaptığı konusunda bir hazırlık aşamasından geçirir. Örneğin Mithat Cemal Kutay'ın önemli eseri Üç İstanbul adlı romanını eleştirirken romandaki olayların geçtiği dönem hakkında şöyle der:

"Üç İstanbul için, kısaca Osmanlı İmparatorluğu'nun yıkılışının romanı diyebiliriz. 19. yüzyılın başlarında ülkeye nüfuz etmeye başlayan Batı, önce bu geniş pazarı ucuz fabrika mallarıyla doldurmuş, sonra sermaye ihracına başlamıştır.

Kapitalist Batı karşısında, sanayide el tezgahları ve küçük atölyelerle, tarımda karasabanla tutunmaya çalışan imparatorluğun yıkılması kaçınılmaz bir zorunluluktu." (Naci, 2012: 33) Fethi Naci'nin Popüler tarih yazımının neredeyse bütün öğelerinin yer aldığı bu özeti aslında daha da devam etmekte ve "Alman militarizminin kucağına düşen imparatorluk devrini tamalayarak yıkılır." sözleriyle sona ermektedir.

Görülüyor ki Fethi Naci, tarihsel zemini özetlerken Marksist açıdan yorumun tipik bir özelliği olarak iktisadi altyapıyı bu zeminin de altına yerleştirir ve bu alt yapıyı tüm tarihsel görünümleri olduğu gibi bütün roman kişilerini ve olayları biçimlendiren temel etken olarak değerlendirir. Bunu yaparken dikkat edilirse yaşanmış tarihin üzerine konuşmanın kolaycılığıyla, "zorunluluk" sözcüğünü kullanarak kaba bir determinist bakış geliştirir. Fethi Naci'nin kaba determinist tarih özetinin bir uzantısı da mekanik çıkarımlardır. Örneğin aynı roman için Mithat Cemal'e kurgusal anlamda bir eleştiri yöneltirken şöyle der:

"Temelde böylesine hızlı bir çöküş olunca bunun toplumun yüzeyine yansıması ancak bir ahlak çürüyüşü, ancak bir yozlaşma olabilir. İşte Mithat Cemal, temeldeki bu oluşumu gereğince değerlendiremediği için, gözlerini toplumun yüzeyine vuran kokuşmaya dikmiştir." (Naci, 2012: 34)

Burada iki nokta önemlidir. Birincisi Fethi Naci'nin mekanik çıkarımının yerinde olup olmadığıdır. Hızlı bir çöküşün yüzeye yansımasında nedeninin her zaman ve kural olarak ahlaki bir çürüyüş ve yozlaşma olduğu açık değildir. Bir devlet düzeni ahlaki yozlaşma gibi bir sonuç üretmeden de çökebilir. Ya da bir toplumsal düzenin ahlaki çözülüşü, bir devlet yapısının yozlaşması, siyasal anlamda çöküşle sonuçlanmayabilir. En azından bu bağlantı tarihsel ve siyasal anlamda zorunlu değildir. Fethi Naci burada sanki Mithat Cemal'in romanındaki kurgusal tercihlere temel oluşturmak için haksız bir genellemede bulunmuştur.

İkincisi Fethi Naci'deki her ne kadar Marksist solun bir aydını olsa ve değerlendirmelerinde toplumcu gerçekçi bir bakış belirleyici olsa da Osmanlı sisteminin yerine geçtiği için en azından Kemalizmin bir parçasını temsil eden bir anlayışın Osmanlı sistemine gereğinden fazla "çürüme" ve "yozlaşma" imajı yüklemesinin Fethi Naci üzerinde de etkili olduğudur. Dolayısıyla her ne kadar düzen tarafından dışlansalar, hatta hapse atılsalar bile Türkiye'de 90'lı yılların sonuna kadar olan bir süre için kendini solda gören ya da öyle ifade eden aydınlarda büyük bir Kemalist ideolojik etkinin izleri olduğu ve bu izlerin her türlü Marksist/Materyalist/Sol ideolojik söylem ve örtünün altında bir ikinci keman gibi varlığını hissettirdiği, tınlamayı sürdürdüğü söylenebilir. Fethi Naci, özellikle Osmanlı'ya bakışında bu etkilerin görülmesi bakımından tipik bir sol aydın olmaktadır. Fethi Naci'deki Kemalist etkiler "çürüme" ve "yozlaşma" gibi bazı klişelerle ortay çıktığı gibi örneğin "Sarıkamış faciasında 90 bin ölü" gibi tarih bilgisi klişeleri olarak da ortaya çıkar. (Naci, 2012: 34) Oysa Türk ordusunun Sarıkamış taarruzunda en fazla 60 bin kişi kayıp vermiştir. (Çakmak, 2011: 114)

Fethi Naci'nin tarihi romanların geçtikleri döneme ilişkin verdiği klişe açıklamaların bir örneğine de Yakup Kadri Karaosmanoğlu'nun Yaban adlı romanında buluyoruz. Bu alıntı, Fethi Naci'nin kaynak belirtmeden klişeler kullanarak kendi özetini verişine örnek oluşturmaya yetecektir:

"Kendini savunmak (ya da kurtarmak) kaygısındaki bürokratlar, 19.yüzyılın başında Batı'da görülen kurumlara benzer kurumların ithal edilmesinde ayanla işbirliği yapmak zorunluluğu duymuşlardır. Ve bürokratlar padişahın artık bölünmüş olan siyasal gücünün bir kısmına sahip olacaklar ve iktidara el koyacaklardır. Bunun 'resmi' açıklaması, batmak üzere olan ülkeyi kurtarmak, halkın sefaletine son vererek memleketin kalkınmasını sağlamaktır. Ne var ki bürokratlar Batılılaşmak isterken kapitalizmin çarkına kapılacaklar, üretim güçlerini geliştirmek bir yana, var olanların da yok olup gitmelerine, halkın daha da yoksullaşmasına neden olacaklardır. Böylece bürokratlarla halk kitleleri arasında derin bir uçurum meydana gelecektir." (Naci, 2012: 68) Burada Tanzimatla başlayan gelişmelere yöneltilen eleştirilerdeki klişe yaklaşımı Yalçın Küçük şöyle saptamaktadır: "Ziya Bey (Gökalp)'in, modern sanayi kurmadan tüketim kalıplarını değiştirme eleştirisi, yıllar sonra ve basitçi 'sol' 'aydınlar'ın eliyle bir iradi nitelik kazandı; Tanzimatçıların Avrupa sanayine Pazar yaratmak için giyim ve beslenme kalıplarını değiştirdikleri biçimine dönüştü. Ekonomizm en çok ekonomi politik bilmeyenlerin elinde , vulgar solculuğa dönüşüyor." (Küçük, 1985: 309-325)

Bir paragrafta Türkiye'nin neredeyse son 100 yılını özetlerken Fethi Naci'nin "ayanla işbirliği", "batmak üzere olan ülke", "kapitalizmin çarklarına kapılmak" gibi klişeleri kullandığını görüyoruz. Burada "üretim güçleri" gibi Marksist bir dünya görüşünün temel kavramlarından birinin de kullanıldığını görüyoruz. Dönemim aydın kesiminin tipik bir örneği olarak Fethi Naci'nin bu kavramları kullanmaya çalışırken ne yazık ki klişelerin ve sığ teorik birikimin öteye geçemediğini görüyoruz. Bir diğer çıkarımımız ise Türkiye'de neredeyse 2000'li yılların başına kadar sürecek yapay, temelsiz ve karşılıksız soyut bir halk sevgisinin bu teorik sığlıkta önemli bir yer işgal etmesidir. Bu özet, Yaban romanı üzerinden de olsa, olaylara, yeniliklere düşman halk tarafından bakıp, yenilikleri yürürlüğe sokmak isteyen aydın-bürokrat bakışı eleştirmek gibi önemli bir aydın çelişkisinin de varlığını duyumsatmaktadır. Özellikle 1960-1980 arası dönemde, kendini solda gören aydınlarda etkili olan bu bakışta, yeniliklere destek vermeyen halk yüceltilmiş, suç yeniliklere önderlik etmek isteyen aydınlara

yüklenmiştir. Bu tercih, hem teorik sığlığın hem de aydın yalnızlığını göze alamayan, kitleye aşık Türk sol akımlarının önemli bir zaafı olarak kendini Fethi Naci'nin eserlerinde de belirleyici olmuştur. Zaten Yaban romanı'ndan Fethi Naci'nin yaptığı bir alıntı da halkın eksikliklerinin suçu aydına yüklenirken bu görüş açıkça dile gelir:

" 'Cehaletin yoksulluğun ve kıtlığın elinde' bırakılmışlardır. Neden? 'Bunun nedeni, 'Türk aydını , gene sensin." (Naci, 2012: 69)

Fethi Naci, aydın çabasının en yoğun olduğu dönemde, yani 1960-80 arası dönemde, Türk yenileşme tarihinin ilk önemli hamlesi olan Tanzimat'a karşı oluşan eleştirel tutumu da Yaban romanı üzerinden şöyle verir:

"Yakup Kadri, Ahmet Celal'in diliyle Türk aydınının tanımı yaparken, Tanzimat'tan bu yana süregelen bürokrat düşlerinin, özlemlerinin iflasını açığa vurur." (Naci, 2012: 70)

Çok açık olarak Tanzimat ve bürokrasinin yenileşme girişimlerine karşı eleştirel bir tutum takınılmıştır. Oysa tarihsel dinamiklerin, ortaçağ bilincine tıkılıp kalmış yığınların varlığının alttan-yukarıya doğru bir halk devrime izin vermediği bir Türkiye'de ülkeyi çağdaşlaştırmak için fedakarca çabalayan ve yalnızlığa mahkum Türk aydınını eleştirmenin haklı bir tutum olmadığı açıktır.

"Çünkü yenilik, değişme demek, Değişmeyen halk ise gericidir" sözü farklı bir aydın bakışıdır. (Küçük, 1985: 128). Değişemeyen halkı değil de yenilikçi aydını suçlama alışkanlığının etken olduğu 1960-1980 arası Türkiye'de farklı düşünceler de vardı ama kitle aşkı, yalnızlık korkusu bir tür halk dalkavukluğu paradigması yarattığı için bu düşünce yalnız kalmıştı: "Birinci Ders, örgütsüz halka hiç güven olmaz. Örgütsüz halk bir yığındır, yığına güven duyulmaz." (Küçük,1985: 200). Türk aydınında Fethi Naci'nin de üretken olduğu dönemde var olan bu Tanzimat düşmanlığı bile Kemalist etkiyi doğrulayan bir olgudur: "Tanzimat en acımasız eleştiriyi, kendi torunu sayılması gereken Kemalizm'den aldı. Kemalizm Türk yenilik tarihinde kendisine en yakın olarak Tanzimatı bulduğu için olmalı, en büyük saldırılarını Tanzimata yöneltti.Bir anlamda Tanzimat'ı küçük görüp küçük göstererek kendisini anlatmayı ve kabul ettirmeyi denedi." (Küçük, 1985: 200). Küçük bu yaygın paradigmanın dışına çıkarak 2000'li yıllarda tamamen doğrulanacak ve halk dalkavukluğunu Türk sol geleneğinden ayırma yönündeki bizce başlangıç sayılması gereken önemli saptamasını da ekler: "Tnzimat düşmanlığı bir gericiliktir." (Küçük,1985: 308). 2000'li yılların Türkiye'sinde yaşananların 1985'ten saptanması da şöyle dile gelir: "İslamlaşma, Tanzimat'a tepkidir." (Küçük, 1985: 200). Dolayısıyla İslamcılığın günümüzde, Kemalizm kendini ayırsa da, Kemalizm ve Tanzimat birlikteliği (düzlemi) üzerinden Kemalizm düşmanlığı şaşırtıcı değildir.

Tarihi romanda dönemin özetini verme alışkanlığını başka roman eleştirilerinde de görürüz. Fethi Naci Bu özetleri Kemalizmin en yozlaşmış hali diyebileceğimiz klişelerle ya kendisi doğrudan verir, ya da o konuda otorite kabul ettiği bir bilim damının yapıtlarından aktarma yapar. Örneğin Refik Halit Karay'ın İstanbul'un Bir Yüzü adlı romanında şöyle verir özeti:

"II. Meşrutiyet'in 1909-1911 yıllarında, İttihat ve Terakki'ye karşı gelişen muhalefet, nihayet 21 Kasım 1911'de Birleşik muhalefet cephesi olarak Hürriyet ve İtilaf Fırkası'nın doğuşuna yol açacaktı.' " (Naci, 2012: 55)

Bu alıntı da Türkiye'nin en önemli anayasa hukukçularından biri olan Erdoğan Teziç'tendir. Görülüyor ki Fethi Naci klişelere yaslanmadığında en sağlam bilimsel kaynakları kullanmaktadır.

Yine Yakup Kadri Karaosmanoğlu'nun Türkiye Cumhuriyeti'nin kuruluş yıllarında başkentini anlatan romanı Ankara'yı değerlendirirken de Fethi Naci, neredeyse tüm tarihi roman eleştirilerinde olduğu gibi uzun tarihsel bir özet verir. Bu kez yararlandığı bilim adamı Taner Timur'dur. (Naci, 2012: 76) Kemal Tahir'in Yorgun Savaşçı' romanındaki Kurtuluş Savaşı dönemi çetelerinden söz edilen bölümler için yararlandığı kaynak ise Türk tarih yazıcılığının en özgün ve önemli kaynaklarından biri olan Mustafa Kemal Atatürk'ün Nutuk adlı eseridir. (Naci, 2012: 262)

Görülüyor ki Fethi Naci, tarihi roman eleştirisinde en sağlam tarih kaynaklarını kullanma konusunda titizdir.

Fethi Naci'nin tarihi roman eleştirisinde en önem verdiği konulardan biri de daha önce değindiğimiz gibi romancının romanı bir araç olarak kullanmaması, roman yazdığını unutmamasıdır. Romanda doğrudan ya da kahramanlar ağzından bilgiççe tezler ileri sürmek, Fethi Naci'nin en sevmediği, en eleştirdiği noktalardan biridir. Bu açıdan Nahid Sırrı, Abdülhamid Düşerken'de ne kadar beğeniliyorsa Kemal Tahir de bir çok romanında o kadar eleştirilir:

"Nahid Sırrı, Mehmet Şehabettin Paşa'yı anlatırken onun sadece tarihsel ve toplumsal kişiliği üzerinde durmuyor; tarihsel roman yazmaya meraklı kimi romancılarda sık sık rastladığımız o birtakım 'bilgileri' konuşmalar yoluyla romana yamamak biçimindeki kolay yolu seçmiyor." (Naci, 2012: 194)

Burada söylenenler sanki daha çok Kemal Tahir için söylenmiştir. Örneğin Kemal Tahir'in en önemli romanlarından biri sayılan Yorgun Savaşçı için eleştirisinin başında kahramanlar ağzından yazarın kendi "kuramsal" düşüncelerini söylediğini belirtir. (Naci, 2012: 256) Yine yazarın "yazdığının roman olduğunu unutmaması" ilkesini, Kemal Tahir'in Yorgun Savaşçı'da

kahramanları sınırsızca konuşturması üzerine şöyle hatırlatır: "Kemal Tahir, bilgi dağarcığını büyük bir keyifle ortaya döktüğü bu bölümde, zaman zaman yazdığının roman olduğunu da anımsamış; bunun için de bir iki polisiye olay eklemiş." (Naci, 2012: 259)

Fethi Naci Yorgun Savaşçı'yı eleştirirken neredeyse yazısının tamamını alıntılardan örmüştür. Ancak bu roman hakkında söyledikleri çok ağırdır:

"Yorgun Savaşçı, insanlardan değil, olaylardan yola çıkan bir roman. Yakın tarihimize ilişkin çok şey öğretiyor. Romanlaştırılmış bilgiler de diyebiliriz Yorgun Savaşçı için tarihi roman da." (Naci, 2012: 264)

Fethi Naci'nin burada "öğretiyor" derken kullandığı ironik dil, onun tarih romanı eleştirisinde belki de yergi bakımından en ileriye gittiği noktadır. Yorgun Savaşçı, bir edebiyat eseri olmanın ötesinde spekülatif tarih tezleri için edebiyatı, romanı bir araç olarak kullanmanın amacıdır. Daha önce de değindiğimiz gibi bu özellik Fethi Naci'nin en olumsuz bulduğu, Türk edebiyatından en çok silmeye çalıştığı eylemdir.

Fethi Naci, Kemal Tahir'in romancılığını diğer romanlarından da eleştirir. Yorgun Savaşçı için geçerli olan eleştirileri, örneğin Tahir'in Büyük Mal romanı için de tekrarlar. Ancak bu roman için söylediklerinin bir yerinde çoğu Kemal Tahir romanları için olumsuz bir genelleme yapar. Büyük Mal için söyledikleri Fethi Naci'nin tarihi roman eleştirisi bakımından getirdiği eleştirilerin bir anlamda derlemesi gibidir. Bu bakımdan uzun bir alıntıyla bu eleştirilere yer vermekte fayda var:

"Tahir'in özellikle Yorgun Savaşçı'dan sonra yazdığı romanlar da 'özetlenebilir' romanlar. İnsanlardan değil, sosyal ve tarihi hakkındaki 'malumat'tan yola çıktığı için; romanlarındaki insanlara sadece bu malumatı okurlara duyuracak bir 'spiker' gözüyle baktığı için, bu romanlar 'insansız romanlar' olmaktan kurtulamıyor, yani, bir bakıma 'edebiyat eseri' niteliğinden yoksun olarak çıkıyorlar ortaya."

Fethi Naci bu noktada yine eleştiri birikiminde önemli bir yer tutat Lukacs'ın Çağdaş Geçekliğin Anlamı adlı kitabına başvurur:

"Lukacs'ın dediği gibi: 'Yazar sorununu kuramsal çözümler, sonra da bunu açıklayacak uygun kişiler çizer. Sonuç estetik bakımdan, hiç de parlak değildir. Böyle bir yazarın eserleri önceden var olan kuramsal bir temel üzerine yamanmış sözde sanatsal üstyapılardır.' " (Naci, 2012: 267)

Fethi Naci, Kemal Tahir'in tarih romanları üzerinden aslında bir tarihi romanda neyin olmaması gerektiği konusunda çok çarpıcı bir listeleme yapar:

"K.Tahir, romanlarındaki bu eksikliği gözlerden saklamak için Devlet Ana gibi, Kurt Kanunu gibi romanlarına 'yeni görüşler' sokarak, bu romanları bir 'edebiyat olayı' yapmak becerikliliğini gösterdi. Çoğunun gözünden kaçan gerçek şu idi: K.Tahir'in bu romanları edebiyata getirdiği yeni görüşler dolayısıyla değil, edebiyata dönüşemeyen, romanlara yama gibi eklenen edebiyat dışı görüşler

dolayısıyla edebiyat olayı haline gelmişti. Kimse bu romanların edebiyat bakımından getirdikleri üzerinde durmuyordu; duramazdı çünkü böyle bir şey yoktu. Tartışılan, ortaya sürülen 'malumatın' doğruluğu ya da yanlışlığı idi."

Fethi Naci, bu noktada tarihi romanlarda çok sık düşülen bir yanlışa değinirken aslında roman, hatta sanat genel çerçevesinin yapısı üzerine en temel bilgiye vurgu yapar; bu onun eleştiri birikiminin de mihenk taşıdır:

"Bunun sebebi açık: Çünkü K. Tahir, edebiyatın kendine özgü anlatım aracını değil, sosyal bilimlerin anlatım aracını kullanıyor. Astakov'dan bu yana çok tekrarlandı: Edebiyat, gerçeği 'imaj'larla anlatır; bilim, mantık kategorileri içinde. Gerçeği imajlarla anlatmak demek, gerçeği ete kemiğe büründürerek anlatmak, demektir. Gerçek,bu somut insanların çatışmalarından çıkar ortaya. Oysa K. Tahir, geçirir iki kişiyi karşı karşıya, konuşturur da konuşturur; bunların ağzından kendi 'yeni görüşler'ini anlatır. Kolaylıkla görülebileceği gibi, bir roman örgüsü içinde sunulan bu 'yeni görüşler'in romanı yenileştirmekle, edebiyata yeni görüşler getirmekle, kısası, edebiyatla ilintisi yoktur." (Naci, 2012: 267)

Sonuç

Türk Edebiyatı'nın en ömenli eleştirmenlerinden biri olan Fethi Naci, şiir, öykü ve roman türlerine yönelik çok sayıda yazı yazmış ve bir aydın sorumluluğuyla Türk Edebiyatı'nın çağdaş dünya edebiyatının bir parçası olması yolunda önemli katkılar yapmıştır. Fethi Naci'nin eleştiri yazılarına bakıldığında özellikle roman türünde neredeyse bir yazar eğitim kurumu gibi çalıştığını görebiliriz.

Fethi Naci, roman hakkında "kötü örnekleri gösterip yererek, iyi örneklere yol açma" diyebileceğimiz kendine özgü bir üslup geliştirmiştir. Roman eleştirileri içinde tarihi roman türünde olanlara karşı yaklaşımı, aslında roman eleştirilerinin genelinde yer alan kaynak ve enstrümanları kullanım açısından temel farklılıklar içermese de tarihi romanın kendine özgü içeriği, onu

farklı bir içeriğe eleştirisinde yer vermeye itmiştir. Çoğu tarihi roman eleştirisinde yer alan ele aldığı roman türlerine ait özetler tarihi romanlar için yaptığı eleştirilerde de vardır. Yine Macar dşünür ve estetik kuramcı Lukacs, onun tüm eleştirilerinde olduğu gibi tarihi roman eleştirilerinden de en önemli kuramsal dayanağıdır. Buna karşılık tarihi roman eleştirilerinde Fethi Naci, yazarın tarihi tezlerini dile getirmek için romanı bir araç olarak kullanmasını şiddetle eleştirimiştir. Bunu yaparken de bu fikirleri tarihi gerçeklerle karşılaştırmaktan ve gerektiğinde en sağlam bilimsel eserlerden ve bilim adamlarının görüşlerinden yararlanma yolunu seçmiştir Fethi Naci.

Fethi Naci için eleştirisinin temel kaygısı, tarihi roman için de romanın önce roman olarak varlık kazanmasıdır; eleştirilerinin temel hedefi budur. Bu eleştiriler başta da değindiğimiz gibi, tarihin yaşanılan günün siyasal kavgası için ek bir mücadele sahası olmasının getirdiği kolaycılıklar üzerinedir. Çünkü yaşadığımız günün yorumu geçmişi de yorumlamak demektir. Her politik tutum kendine yeni bir yorumla yeni bir geçmiş uydurmak zorundadır. Tarihin yeniden bir siyasal güç mücadelesi alanı haline geldiği Türkiye'de edebiyatın ve özelde tarihi romanın bu mücadelenin bir parçası olmaktan kendini kurtarmak için Fethi Naci'nin mirasını yeniden ve değerince gözden geçirmesi gerekmektedir.

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Sense of place and place identity

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Abstract:

The paper describes the relationship between identity and the physical environment: social identity theory, place- identity theory and identity process theory. The place identity is focused on the relationship between people and the environmental psychology. Then, the paper tends to explain that social identity theory and identity process theory can also be used explaining the relationship between place and identity. Questions to visualize about: How well do identity process theory and social identity theory describe the influences place has on identity? What is the meaning of place in environmental psychology? Does it have any effect on identity and politics of identity? It also argues that place is not a category of identity. Places have symbols of many different social categories and concepts, places speak and preserve identity on various dimensions and levels.

Key words: Place, Identity, Society, Psychology, Politics.

Introduction

What is the meaning of place in environmental psychology and does it have any particular impact on a person's identity? If yes, what kind of effect and by which mechanisms? Lots of elements such as; cultural, genetic, social, as well as the built-environment mix together in order to shape identity. When the relationship between one person and a place grows, that's how people start to identify themselves, in two different scales; larger and smaller. Larger scale covers nation and city whilst smaller scale includes neighbourhood, room, school and workplace. For example, when two people meet the very first questions to ask are: "what is your name" and "where are you from", or if they live in a "city" or "country side". All this information refers to physical places. People personalize their homes, gardens, neighbourhood and the whole city itself reflects as it is due to the fact that people manage and control things the way they seek and prefer. Yet, the converse has its own importance, because places are also affected by people's life pace, method and dynamics. For example, people ornament and decorate their homes, workplaces and gardens the way they prefer, this communicate and reflect who they are.

Place and identity

The etymology of the word "place" comes from Greek plateia (hodos) "broad (way)", from Old French place "place, spot" and directly from Medieval Latin placea "place" , from Latin platea " courtyard (open space), avenue". The etymology of "identity" comes from Latin word idem and then it changed into identitas "same", and today it is known as identity "quality of being identical", but in this case the words "place" and "identity" sound more philosophic and poetic than typical research terms. This might be a reason why some environment-behaviour researchers have tried to create other terms defining place in their empirical research, especially when employing quantitative research methods. "Behaviour settings ", has been used by Barker, he described as bounded standing patterns of human and nonhuman activity. The theory has been criticized and established by Wicker 1979. Wicker explains social settings as social design evolved over time. Another architectural psychologist Canter during 1977- 1979, was inspired by both theories, and developed his "psychology of space", claiming that place is seen as product of physical attributes, human conceptions and activities. Stokols known as a psychologist, has developed another theory called "transactional view of settings". According to his theory the relationship between a place and a person is interdependent. The word "transactional" focuses solely on either the person or the environment.

The phrase place has been used since 1970s in geography as a "location", then it elaborated into "a place – to dwell" – the process of making a place a home, later as a theory, called " genius loci" the spirit of place- 'gathering', 'thing', dwelling', 'being-in-the-world' and 'truth' as inspiration source to establish his unique perception of architecture. (Heidegger, 1962).

The term sense of place is used in various ways, to some it is a feeling of perception held by people (not by the place itself), it is a symbol that makes a place exclusive, it is a characteristic that some geographic places have and some do not. Sense of place its even the feeling the way people experience, express, imagine and know the place in which they live. The word place is often thought as a location of a town, city, neighbourhood, house on the Earth's surface. Place can define the distinctive features, both tangible and intangible. This does not mean that it only contains the elements of a location, it also includes the associations and feelings that we have, when we hear and see a particular space. Terms such as sense of place or attached to a place allude to the complex relationship between humans and their environment. This kind of a relationship includes both the impact of the natural environment on humans as well as the development that human activities have placed on the surrounding environment. It is often said that places tell who you are because a place grows on you and a way of claiming people. A place is not only about getting used to it but it is also about creating and developing a strong relationship with that place and that place bit by bit becomes part of who we are and shapes our identity.

For example, when people travel from one country to another, or from their homeland to another country. Often people become aware of their own sense of place and identity and begin to realize that atmosphere is different and do not feel "at home". There are several different elements such as; landscape, weather, the type of houses, culture even things as sounds and smells are not those that we are used to. On the other hand, if somebody decides to move to a new country or place all of these things will gradually become familiar; a new sense of place will be developing and then it becomes part of our identity.

In social identity theory and identity theory, the self is uncontrolled in that it can take itself as an object and can categorize, classify or name itself in particular ways in relation to other social categories or classifications. This process is called self-categorization in social identity theory. By Turner , Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, and Wetherell 1987 ; in identity theory it is called identification according to McCall and Simmons. As a result identity is formed through the process of self- categorization or identification.

One of the most important things that makes people distinguish from other species is the "self awareness" and the power to "act" and "self reflect". Psychological literature usually tends to explain the different results between "self", "identity" and "personality". These three key words can have a further explanation by dividing them into two terms; "self identity" and "personality". The difference in social and philosophical perspectives is same or relative? Personality is our outer world whilst self identity is the inner world, due to the fact that personality can change by time but identity is the core of the family and it is hard to change. As a result, identity is who you are and personality is what you are.

Theories of identity

Place Identity

The phrase "place- identity" has been found and used since the late 1970s. (Proshansky, 1978), describes as a "potpourri of memories, conceptions, interpretations, ideas, and related feelings about specific physical settings, as well as types of settings"(1983, p.60) Place attachment is part of place identity, but place identity is more than attachment. Place identity is substructure of social identity, like gender and social class. It is composed of observation and interpretation regarding the environment. These elements can be divided into two types; one of them consists of memories, values, thoughts, ideas and settings and another type consists of the relationship between different settings: home, neighbourhood and school.

Identity evolves as children start to differentiate themselves from other people around, and in the same way, place - identity develops as children learn to see themselves as distinct from, but related to, the physical environment. Among the first identity are those rooted in the child's memories with toys, clothes and room. The primary importance is the home followed by neighbourhood and the school. Here, social and environmental skills are learned and "lenses" are formed, from which the child later will evaluate and recognize places. Place identity changes occur throughout a person's lifetime (Proshansky and Fabian, 1987). Five central functions of place- identity have been depicted; recognition, meaning, expressive – requirement, mediating change, anxiety and defence function. Place –identity becomes a cognitive "database" against which every physical setting is experienced. (Proshansky, 1983).

Social Identity Theory

(Hogg & Abrams, 1995; Tajfel, 1982) explains "social identity" as the individual's knowledge of belonging to certain social groups, as well as the emotions and values that conveys to him or her.

The term "self concept"is usually used when referring to the answer to "who am I?" Our "self concepts" hold both statements about what makes us similar to other people, and what makes us dissimilar. People create a perception of themselves and others by means of abstract social categories, and these perceptions become part of people's self-concepts. Humans define selves with factors that characterize the groups to which we belong.

Social identity theory is described as a concept that foresee certain intergroup behaviours on the ground of perceived group status differences, the perceived ability to turn from one group to another and the stability and legitimacy of those status differences. This differentiation with occasions where the phrase "social identity theory" is applied to refer to general theorizing about human social selves. Furthermore, and although some researchers have treated it as such, social identity theory was never determined to be a general theory of social category. It was alertness of the limited scope of social identity theory that led John Turner and his colleagues to establish a cousin theory in the way of self- categorization theory, which built on the awareness of social identity theory to create a more general account of self and group activities. The term social identity approach or social identity perspective, is suggested for describing the joint contributions of both social identity theory and self-categorization theory. (Tayfel and Turner, 70s).

Identity Process Theory

Identity is a dynamic product of the interaction between on the one side the capacities for memory, consciousness and organized construal which are characteristic of the biological organism and on the other the physical and societal structures and influence processes which constitute the social context (Breakwell, 1986).

Identity process theory focuses on three basic processes; thought, action and affect. Thought is the arrangement of the ideas which result from thinking, action the process of doing something, affect to make a difference to soemthing and reach an aim. So, all of these terms are correlated to each other. The process includes both personal and social identity and negative and positive values. The organizational of the content analysis is not static but hierarchical, the features changes according to inputs and demands from the social context. The identity social frame is regulated by an accommodation – assimilation formation, absorption of new elements, and adjustments in the existing identity shape.

(Breakwell 1983) argues that places are significant sources of identity elements. Particular aspects of identity derived from places we belong to arise because places have figures and images that have meaning and are significant to us. Places represent personal and social memories because they are positioned in the socio- historical matrix of intergroup relations. Places do not have a permanent meaning and the contribution to identity is never the same. Breakwell emphasizes that being in different or new places affect identity through accentuation or attenuation, threat and dislocation. Also argues that places are nested. The nesting is defined as a product of social and personal definition, not according to the geographical hierarchy.

Discussion

How can we relate place to identity?

Massey during 1995 claimed that "sense of place" is more than just one person's feelings about a specific place; such feelings are not only individual but also social. All places are explained from certain social positions and social reasons.

Identifying with a place

One process in which identity is attached to a particular place is by a feeling that you belong to that place. It's place in which you feel comfortable, for example at home because the way you define yourself is symbolized by certain qualities of that place. The geographer Relph, has gone so far as to claim that "to be human is to live in a world that is filled with significant places: to be human is to have to know your place".

Intense feelings of belonging to a place focus on domestic places, starting with a room, a house and a garden. Such places offer a feeling of safety and refuge even though, this is by no means always the case. Strong feelings of identifying with a place may also concentrate on other kinds of places, for example, a sense of belonging to a place may occur at the local scale. One example is the brass bands, based in small villages and industrial towns. The events were famous everywhere, villages became very evident because of the local people. They came to support the band and often wearing the band's

colours. Unconsciously, they brought together the local community and the music was part of the sense of place of inhabitants of villages and towns.

It is also possible to locate a sense of belonging at the regional scale. The case of Midwest in United Kingdom is a good example, as settlers moved westwards across the continent, they build their houses and farmed the land, so they felt they belonged to that place.

A sense of place is natural

The occupation of territory is fundamental to human existence. To survive even in the most primitive level of social organization and technology requires access to natural resources of the land, sometimes supplemented by the sea but never wholly independent terra firma. Whether perpetually on the move, as hunters and gatherers, or in fixed and permanent settlements, access to particular territory or to the product thereof is a necessary condition of life. And this may require exclusive access if the means of subsistence are to be assured: a place of their own may become their own place. (Smith, 1990, p.1)

A sense of place is part of the politics of identity

Place is the core concept in environmental psychology, place attachment refers to bonds that people develop with places. Along with place attachment, place identity is another important concept that refers to people's bond's with places. These concepts are used interchangeably but senses of place are also very personal. According to Benedict Anderson 1983 in his analysis of nationalism, reminds us that although its critics may dismiss nationalism as brutal and myopic form of identity, nonetheless many people believe in the rights of their nation passionately enough to kill and die for it. Senses of place may be as impassioned and violent as this. In trying to understand how identity is involved in the often intense emotional construction of senses of place.

Place, resistance and the politics of identity

Senses of place often work to provide differences between one group of people and another, these contrasts are complex and can be based on class, gender, race and many other aspects of identity. The process of Othering – of specifying where you belong is through a contrast with other places as well with other people is more difficult to preserve. Techniques of establishing senses of place and identity are emerging which do not invoke Others, rather than handle difference in more respectful kinds of ways. It is possible to think of difference without thinking with regard of an Other and it is possible to think about interrelations between people and places with tolerance and humility.

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THE COORDINATION OF SOCIAL SECURITY SYSTEM IN EUROPEAN UNION

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Abstract:

The coordination of social security system is an important issue for European Union and the rules created by the European Commission are the framework of free movement of persons respecting the characteristics of national social security legislation. Within this framework of coordination it is a must to guarantee within the EU equality of treatment for the person concerned under the different national legislation. Due to the major differences between national legislation in terms of the persons covered, it is necessary to identify and prevent possible elements of fraud and error in the coordination social security systems. in this article we aim to present some vulnerable practical aspects which may appear even under the provisions of Regulation (EC) No 883/2004 of the European Parliament and of the Council on the coordination of social security systems and Regulation (EC) No 987/2009 of the European Parliament and o the Council laying down the procedure for implementing Regulation (EC) No 883/2004.

Keywords: coordination of social security, equality of treatment, free movement, insured person, error, fraud, exchanges of data

Coordonarea sistemelor de securitate socială este un concept ce a apărut la nivelul Uniunii Europene ca o necesitate a asigurării unui tratament egal, din punct de vedere al securităţii sociale, lucrătorilor şi membrilor lor de familie – cetăţeni ai statelor membre ale Uniunii Europene, ale Spaţiului Economic European şi ai Elveţiei.

Iniţial, la nivelul Uniunii Europene, s-au adoptat şi aplicat primele reglementări în domeniul securităţii sociale, şi anume Regulamentele 3/1958 şi 4/1958. Ulterior, au fost înlocuite de Regulamentul (CEE) nr. 1408/71 privind aplicarea regimurilor de securitate socială salariaţilor, persoanelor care desfăşoară activităţi independente şi membrilor familiilor acestora care se deplasează în cadrul Comunităţii şi Regulamentul (CEE) nr. 574/72 de implementare. Pe măsură ce Uniunea Europeană s-a extins prin aderarea de noi state membre şi dezvoltarea geografică a exercitării dreptului la liberă circulaţie, a apărut şi necesitatea elaborării unor noi reguli actualizate în concordanţă cu noile provocări privind îmbunătăţirea nivelului de viaţă şi a condiţiilor de încadrare în muncă a persoanelor. Urmare a acestui fapt, Parlamentul European şi Consiliul Uniunii Europene au adoptat Regulamentul (CE) nr. 883/2004 privind coordonarea sistemelor de securitate socială, denumit şi Regulamentul de bază, şi Regulamentul (CE) nr. 987/2009 de stabilire a procedurii de punere în aplicare a Regulamentului (CE) nr. 883/2004, denumit şi Regulamentul de aplicare.

În preambulul Regulamentului (CE) nr. 883/2004 privind coordonarea sistemelor de securitate socială punctul (4) este declarată importanţa unei bune cooperări între statele membre, cu respectarea ,,caracteristicilor proprii legislaţiilor interne privind securitatea socială,, şi, de asemenea, se menţionează că la nivelul statelor membre UE este necesar ,,să se elaboreze un sistem unic de coordonare.,, (JO L166/1, 30.4.2004, p. 82). În textul punctului (8) al aceluiaşi Regulament se arată importanţa deosebită ce trebuie acordată egalităţii de tratament ,,pentru lucrătorii care nu sunt rezidenţi în statul membru în care lucrează, inclusiv pentru lucrătorii frontalieri.,, (JO L166/1, 30.4.2004, p. 82). De asemenea, la punctul (13) din Regulamentul de bază se menţionează că regulile de coordonare vor garanta că atât persoanele care se deplasează în interiorul Comunităţii, cât şi membrii lor de familie aflaţi în întreţinere şi urmaşii lor ,,îşi păstrează drepturile şi avantajele dobândite şi în curs de a fi dobândite.,, (JO L166/1, 30.4.2004, p. 83). Pentru realizarea acestei obligaţii a statelor membre, care poate fi considerată chiar un deziderat, este necesar ca între statele membre să se facă schimb de informaţii cu privire la perioadele de asigurare ale persoanelor beneficiare de prestaţii sociale şi la tipul de prestaţii sociale la care au dreptul

persoanele asigurate, precum: prestaţii de boală, indemnizaţii de maternitate şi de paternitate asimilate, indemnizaţii de invaliditate, prestaţii pentru limită de vârstă, prestaţii de urmaş, prestaţii în cazul unor accidente de muncă şi boli profesionale, ajutoare de deces, ajutoare de şomaj, prestaţii de prepensionare şi prestaţii familiale. Un aspect important de reţinut este acela că cele două regulamente nu se aplică asistenţei sociale sau socio-medicale şi nici regimurilor de prestaţii pentru victimele de război sau pentru compensarea consecinţelor unui război. De multe ori, în acest schimb de date pot apărea elemente de fraudă sau de eroare a datelor, iar acestea pot genera plăţi necuvenite ale unor prestaţii sociale la care persoanele respective fie nu au dreptul, fie cuantumul acestora sau perioadele de acordare nu corespund.

Pentru a înţelege mai bine modul în care pot apărea erori şi fraude în coordonarea sistemelor de securitate socială, este indicat să prezentăm succint modul în care a fost reglementat acesta prin normele europene. Astfel, în Capitolul II ,,Dispoziţii privind cooperarea şi schimburile de date,, din Regulamentul (CE) nr. 987/2009 sunt stabilite condiţiile privind domeniul de aplicare şi regulile referitoare la schimburile între instituţii, dar şi cele privind schimburile dintre persoanele în cauză şi instituţii, formatul şi metoda de efectuare a schimbului de date, valoarea juridică a documentelor şi a documentelor justificative eliberate într-un alt stat membru, aplicarea provizorie a legislaţiei şi acordarea provizorie a prestaţiilor, precum şi calculul provizoriu al prestaţiilor şi al cotizaţiilor.

Pentru aplicarea Regulamentului (CEE) nr. 1408/71 privind aplicarea regimurilor de securitate socială salariaţilor, persoanelor care desfăşoară activităţi independente şi membrilor familiilor acestora care se deplasează în cadrul Comunităţii şi a Regulamentului (CEE) nr. 574/72 de implementare se utilizau formularele ce aveau ca denumire litera E şi un număr format din 3 cifre. Un exemplu în acest sens poate fi Certificatul privind legislaţia privind securitatea socială care se aplică titularului şi care era reprezentat prin formularele E101 şi E103, dar şi Înregistrarea pentru acoperirea de sănătate care era reprezentată prin formularele E106, E109, E120, şi E121 în funcţie de instituţia competentă care le elibera, precum şi de calitatea persoanei asigurate. În prezent, pentru aplicarea şi respectarea prevederilor noilor Regulamente, există un număr de zece documente portabile, şi cu excepţia Cardului European de Asigurări Sociale de Sănătate, toate sunt eliberate sub formă tipărită şi sunt utilizate pe întreaga perioadă de tranziţie. Întrucât prin prevederile art. 4 alin. (2) din Regulamentul (CE) nr. 987/2009 se stabileşte ca schimburile de date între instituţii sau organisme de legătură să se facă electronic prin intermediul unor puncte de acces într-un cadru comun şi în condiţii care să asigure protecţia şi confidenţialitatea acestui schimb, Comisia Administrativă pentru Coordonarea Sistemelor de Securitate Socială, forul care asigură interpretarea şi coordonarea unitară a prevederilor celor două regulamente, a adoptat mai multe decizii prin care a clarificat modalităţile prin care se va derula această perioadă de tranziţie reglementată prin art. 95 din Regulamentul de aplicare. Până la finalizarea din punct de vedere functional a acestui sistem electronic, documentele prin care se realizează schimbul de date sunt simplificate şi au fost redenumite după cum urmează:

Pentru domeniul de securitate socială denumit legislaţie aplicabilă se utilizează formularul A1.

Pentru domeniul de securitate socială denumit prestaţii de boală se utilizează formularele S1, S2 şi S3.

Pentru domeniul de securitate socială denumit pensii se utilizează formularul P1, iar pentru cel privind accidentele de muncă şi boli profesionale se utilizează formularul DA1.

Pentru domeniul de securitate socială denumit prestaţii de şomaj se utilizează formularele U1, U2 şi U3.

În momentul în care Schimbul electronic de informaţii privind securitatea socială (EESSI) va deveni funcţional, se vor utiliza documentele electronice structurate (DES) care au fost create tocmai pentru a facilita comunicarea eficientă, sigură şi detaliată între instituţiile competente şi organismele de legătură din statele membre. EESSI este un sistem informatic creat pentru facilitarea schimbului de informaţii între organismele de securitate socială din Uniunea Europeană. EESSI va fi gestionat la nivel central de către Comisia Europeană, deşi documentele vor fi transmise către statul membru corespunzător. Documentele electronice structurate vor fi utilizate pentru dosarele cu caracter transfrontalier. Documentele electronice structurate (DES) au fost concepute astfel încât avantajul pentru cetăţenii cărora li se aplică prevederile celor două regulamente să fie soluţionarea rapidă a cererilor lor, calcularea şi plata cu celeritate a prestaţiilor sociale, iar avantajele admnistraţiilor din statele membre să constea în asigurarea unui flux informaţional standardizat, a unei comunicări multilingvistice mai bune, precum şi o mai bună verificare şi colectare a datelor. Astfel, am putea spune că prin informaţiile schimbate prin intermediul acestor documente, precum şi prin gestionarea lor de către EESSI, se vor putea face verificări mult mai eficiente cu privire la corectitudinea datelor înscrise în documente privind stagiile de cotizare şi implicit tipul şi cuantumul prestaţiilor de care poate beneficia o persoană asigurată. Un alt aspect important de reţinut este acela că pe baza acestor date se vor face rambursări de sume de bani între statele membre pentru prestaţiile de care au beneficiat persoanele asigurate, sume care nu sunt deloc de neglijat putând ajunge de la câteva mii de Euro până la câteva zeci de milioane de Euro. Aceste rambursări şi compensări de sume se fac între statele membre doar în cazuri justificate

şi putem exemplifica aici prestaţii de boală pentru situaţii de urgenţă acordate în baza Cardul European de Asigurări Sociale de Sănătate sau în cazul tratamentului medical planificat şi acordat de un alt stat membru persoanei asigurate.

Statele membre au considerat ca fiind imperios necesară crearea unei cooperări optime în domeniul combaterii fraudei şi erorii în temeiul Regulamentelor (CE) nr. 883/2004 şi 987/2009, astfel încât Comisia Administrativă pentru Coordonarea Sistemelor de Securitate Socială a emis Decizia H5 din 18 martie 2010 privind cooperarea în domeniul fraudei şi a erorilor, decizie ce a intrat în vigoare la data de 1 august 2010. Conform prevederilor acestei decizii, statele membre nominalizează un punct de contact în materie de fraudă şi eroare, căruia autorităţile competente îi raportează ,,fie riscuri de fraudă şi de abuz, fie dificultăţi sistematice care pot cauza întârzieri şi erori,,. (JO C 149, 8.6.2010, p.5). Comisia Administrativă reţine ca element important în stoparea apariţiei fraudei şi erorilor, coordonarea raportării corecte a deceselor cetăţenilor din statele membre.

Cu toate acestea este important ca în reglementările Comisiei Administrative pentru Coordonarea Sistemelor de Securitate Socială, să se regăsească o definiţie clară a ceea ce este sau poate fi fraudă în securitatea socială, dar şi o definiţie a erorii. Astfel, putem considera că fraudă este furnizarea cu rea-credinţă a unor date false sau omiterea comunicării unor date reale, astfel încât o persoană să beneficieze de drepturi şi prestaţii reglementate prin normele de securitate socială, dar fără a îndeplini condiţiile legale de persoană asigurată în sistemul de asigurări sociale al unui stat membru. Totuşi, apreciem că şi un atac cibernetic asupra EESSI ori asupra oricărui sistem informatizat care conţine datele persoanelor asigurate, fie nedescoperit la timp, fie imposibil de contracarat, poate genera o fraudă. Iar în acest caz nu mai putem lua în considerare vinovăţia unei persoane care prin informaţii false a generat o fraudă a sistemului de securitate socială.

De asemenea, eroare apreciem că poate fi considerată şi introducerea greşită a unor date în EESSI, date ce nu pot fi identificate ca fiind eronate în timp util sau pot apărea erori ale EESSI generate de unificarea tehnică a sistemului aflat şi dat în funcţiune în fiecare stat membru.

Astfel, faţă de prevederile Deciziei H5 apreciem că există o paletă mult mai vastă de manifestare a modului de realizare a fraudelor şi erorilor care să genereze plăţi necuvenite în sistemul statelor membre şi implicit să aducă prejudicii bugetului acestora, inclusiv încălcării ordinii juridice a statelor membre.

Am încercat să prezentăm succint o problemă ce nu poate fi pentru moment conturată complet, dar ale cărei modalităţi de manifestare, consecinţe şi efecte ne afectează pe toţi din punct de vedere social.

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Drama techniques enable students to use language with a pragmatic intent

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Abstract

With regard to creative teaching, the study brings forth arguments about the thesis that learning foreign languages by using drama techniques constitutes an innovative way in which the monotony can be broken and the lesson is made more real, more meaningful and purposeful. The use of drama techniques creates the right context for a meaningful language production, thus urging the students to use their linguistic resources and their language skills. Drama techniques enable the students to use language with a pragmatic intent. The study intends to meet an urgent need of the academic and educational staff of foreign languages for information about creative teaching, models and patterns for the development of creativity through drama techniques. It addresses specific issues related to drama as a teaching methodology. In short, it not only investigated reality in order to change it but, as Kemmis and Wilkinson (1998) suggest, it has changed reality in order to investigate it. A university teacher-educator may change her approach to her own teaching style and the learning outcomes of her students.

Key words: Creative teaching, pragmatic intent, meaningful language production, equal distribution of power. Introduction

Introduction

It is more essential than ever for teachers to take up the role of being researchers, not only for evaluative purposes but so to expand and explore the complex learning available in the aesthetic moment created in drama classes.

Calling us to focus on "knowing-in-action" Taylor (2000) draws our attention to drama teaching as an artistic process of meaning-making. He proposes that "to ignore reflective practitioner design is to remain ignorant to the kind of artistic processes which are the lifeblood of our work". (p. 27).

Drama can not only be used as an important subject discipline to teaching English as a second language but also as a teaching methodology that stirs students imagination and urges them to respond promptly in a creative way. It is being more widely used not only at primary and secondary education but also at higher institutions if planned carefully and managed properly by lecturers.

Returning to the question of value, drama, perhaps more pointedly than in any other subject area,

cannot hide that, as a subject discipline and teaching methodology, it is not merely value-laden but value-saturated. Heathcote once again focuses on the role of drama in education. "She (Heathcote) sees drama as the means of rooting all the school curriculum back in a human context where it sprang from, so that knowledge is not an abstract, isolated subject-based discipline, but is based in human action, interaction, commitment and responsibility" (Bolton, 1998:177).

Drama is practised as a method with first and second year students of our University not only during drama classes but also whilst teaching other subjects such as rhetoric, business English, ESP or Foreign Language Teaching in Tirana.

Whilst struck by the power inherent in working in role - how it engages emotionally, stimulates cognitively and creates a climate for greater understanding, you may find drama particularly useful in promoting the creative abilities of your students.

A Drama classroom remains a strong venue for learning to work in role and confirming its value in the practical sense. The teacher's role is defined as: helping students to form their ideas; helping students to test their ideas; helping students to communicate their ideas; and helping them to respond to different real-life situations. Teachers can use these skills for specific learning objectives by stepping into the fictional work of the students through using drama strategies, in particular, teacher in role.

The vehicle of drama for the teaching of a foreign language is a creative method of redistributing power and re-defining roles among students. Freire (1998) points out that working "in role" and critically reflecting on practice often uncovers "surprising" findings when practitioners are able to systematically "think their practice" and create possibilities for learners to challenge previous assumptions about classroom achievement. The approach taken in this study fostered democratic

principles in classroom teaching and learning (as an emancipating praxis), and the subsequent representation of classroom-based inquiry. The group's well-established social order was contested when drama became a new way to succeed for the classroom's most academically challenged students.

It is more essential than ever for teachers to take up the role of being researchers, not only for evaluative purposes but so to expand and explore the complex learning available in the aesthetic moment.

Whilst struck by the power inherent in working in role - how it engages emotionally, stimulates cognitively and creates a climate for greater understanding, you may find drama particularly useful in promoting the creative abilities of your students.

Teachers can use students' skills for specific learning objectives by stepping into the fictional work of the students through using drama strategies, in particular, teacher in role.

Literature Review

Literature plays a key role in providing a framework within which important questions are asked in carrying out any research. By actively doing research and challenging the validity of the literature, teachers may be engaged in a critical analysis of the related material, and question whether this literature is applicable to a relevant practice or environment.

In first and second years, students will draw upon a variety of sources - such as literature, historical and current events, and topics and themes from other subject areas, particularly the other arts - in order to create presentations in which they communicate their interpretation of situations and the motives of various characters".

METHOD

It is an action research intending to offer a new way of checking the progress of students whilst organizing the classes to lead to creative and emancipating roles of individuals in schools, public institutions, private owned companies or multi cultured environment by using 'teacher in role'.

Teachers may take part in the classes by playing the role of 'teachers', i.e, themselves relating discipline and well-structured classes which have a didactic end as well as participants during improvised activities or whole students' performing roles.

The exercises used in the class were created and compiled specifically for the warm-up and language application phase which primarily benefit oral communication skills and the creation of a supportive and relaxed learning environment. Teachers can use them without any previous theatrical training.

The action research became a way to create a culture of inquiry through reflection on action with students and collaboration with university lecturers. As Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) have described, this research involved a systematic learning process in which I acted deliberately to improve my educational context and emancipate myself from institutional constraints. My colleagues are supposed to find dimensions of knowledge production and action that make meeting the demands of the new curriculum possible.

New requirements regarding the reform currently initiated in higher education in our country brings forth urgent tasks to generate new ideas in complementing the curricula at the Department of English in Tirana University which is used in this research as regards the project of involving first and second year students in workshops or theatre forums. It is not at all easy to plan experimental activities and organize them within classrooms or plan extra hours for the purpose of this research

Activities/materials

eading about or even watching a drama lesson is not the same as participating in one. And similarly, participation is not the same as teaching. Teachers benefit from teaching, presenting their work, receiving feedback and also by viewing how their colleagues navigate the unpredictable waters of drama. Here the process can be analysed while peers encourage, applaud and offer additional suggestions within a supportive and non-threatening environment.

In an experimental drama class students read and analyse on-act plays, explore improvisation activities, write their reactions and ideas in their journal, thus learning new vocabulary, practicing pronunciation, and gaining fluency and confidence.

Various drama activities that can be used include pantomime, role play and simulations, improvisation, reading plays, watching or listening to plays, staging plays, and writing plays.

Participants are physically and psychically engaged in the dramatic action, which require actions-to-be taken in order to progress. 'Dramatic playing' is the exemplary form of this level of participation… At this level of participation there is the illusion, at least, of total transformation; the intention is that the participants will be personally transformed by the activity and they are rewarded for exhibiting responses and behaviours that conform to the 'illusion of transformation' (Neelands, 2000:50).

The teacher's role is defined as: helping students to form their ideas; helping students to test their ideas; helping students to communicate their ideas; and helping them to respond to different real-life situations.

Through the activities with students and the research carried on you may come to see that drama provides myriad ways for students to learn and appreciate language in meaningful, communicative contexts.

Teachers take part in playing minor roles thus allowing students to communicate their ideas more freely; and helping them to respond to different real-life situations such as that of 'escaping a country in which dictatorship prevailed for 50 years but people were eager to liberate themselves from the socialist ideology and join the democratic countries of Europe'. First students wrote about different stories they had read or heard and then discussed them in groups. Each group was supposed to prepare the part and play it in front of the classmates by elaborating the language and trying bring forth even the feelings and emotions of the characters they had created themselves. The two other groups took notes about their language performance and prepared questions for after session discussions.

Ethical considerations were taken into account prior to organising the experimental activities by inviting lecturers who teach Drama and literature and who are looking for new methods of creative teaching and feedback from their own students in upgrading the standards and empowering the teaching of language skills further.

Discussion of findings

Consistently, there are numerous reports of unprecedented improvement in students' writing and speaking skills as a result of the use of drama structures. In the course of my practicum work, I have become a field researcher in my own classrooms, where students can speak with authority (and offer hard data) about what really works for student learning. It is more essential than ever for teachers to take up the role of being researchers, not only for evaluative purposes but so to expand and explore the complex learning available in the aesthetic moment.

By using a well-selected drama, students not only acquire language skills but also grow and evolve as social human beings through drama practice and rehearsal. The intention is to examine the impact practical work has on the personal and artistic development of students while they try to integrate drama in the instructional process (language, writing and acting to involve the whole class). This is written from the perspective of a reflective practitioner researcher using reflection-in- action to guide my research. The work demonstrates how reflections informed the practice in Drama in Education.

Teachers can use these skills for specific learning objectives by stepping into the fictional work of the students through the related drama strategies, in particular, teacher in role.

Analysis of findings

This action research examines some of the ways in which students approach drama experience, ways in which they respond. Most senior Drama or Theatre Studies students (I call them drama students for I teach drama to them) are required to attend and then discuss, analyse or evaluate a range of performances. At this level there is an expectation that they will have acquired a language in which to do so, but this is not always the case. At all levels, students sometimes struggle to respond to theatre or drama performances even though they may have a strong reaction: "I really liked that ". "I really thought that it was not that interesting". They often need the tools to broaden their response.

That is why, teachers who use drama as a tool in their classroom can often cite "epiphanic moments" in which their understanding of their students and students' understanding of themselves and each other is radically altered. These moments that story-telling teachers share are key to our understanding of drama's special ability to shake up the social order of classrooms, redistribute power, and re-define the rules of the game.

In drama, the wearing of new identities in fictional worlds is the modus operandi. Students are invited to engage in the building of these worlds through analogy or simulation (Johnson and O'Neill , 1984), to role-play (Booth, 1994) to devise scenes (Neelands, 1990; O'Neill, 1995) and create alternate realities.

As Maxine Greene (1996) has reminded us, new voices, responsive to the talk of reflective practitioner, are becoming audible in education research and novel modes of participant observation in actual classrooms are asking practitioners to

think about their own thinking. In essence, this means that teachers can begin to explore beyond their own pedagogical boundaries by being creative at the same time.

Traditionally and formerly, a greater attention was paid to theory and little dedication was given to practical activities, role-playing, rehearsal or dramatisation of a situation or script or a poem to achieve the required level of language acquisition as well as aesthetic values in the classroom.

Conclusion

Drama is a powerful way of fostering the use of creative methods and building capacities in the

classroom. Therefore, the change taking place among students at the University was very real. My students reflected about their change in attitude towards social problems such as 'migration' which show the efficacy of using drama as a creative method in the classroom to foster learning and increase the students' awareness on different social issues. Conclusions are drawn in the end about the need to use drama as a method in solving problems, real life situations or difficult circumstances.

Whilst struck by the power inherent in working in role - how it engages emotionally, stimulates cognitively and creates a climate for greater understanding, you may find drama particularly useful in promoting the creative abilities of your students.

Being able to answer all the questions of the research, this qualitative study will be useful for foreign language teachers in their daily activities to turn drama into an everlasting teaching medium, to develop creativity by providing students with valuable information related to the perception of new concepts and methodologies.

Drama is used to improve their ability to speak and learn English in a professional and entertaining way.

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Parallels from Yonder: A Few Observations of Chinese Rhetorical Thoughts

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Abstract

The historical study of rhetoric is currently experiencing an expansion of its horizon. An awakening interest in non-Western rhetorics is beginning to find its way into programs of rhetoric studies, albeit slowly and marginally. I would like join this new and barely noticeable tend by exploring some of salient parallels in the attention to language and its power between China and the West. My study of parallels aims to demonstrate that the Chinese, much like their European counterparts, attached much importance to language and its study, including highly refined conceptualization in strict accordance to the needs of their realities. Indeed neither the so-called Chinese civilization, like other civilizations in South Asia, Africa, Europe, and even pre-colonial America, has been a barbaric establishment operating without any rhetorical thought, nor has its attention to language been sporadic or anecdotal. I will argue that thinkers from Europe and China alike have actively addressed the effective use of language, although each from their own perspectives and particular needs. With the Chinese rhetorical precepts as the emphasis of this discussion, I would like to investigate how views and practices of language have changed in the four major periods in Chinese history: pre-imperial (2000 BC.-211 BC.), early imperial (211 BC.-500 AD.), high imperial (500-1250), and neo-Confucian (1250-1911), leaving the modern era for people who are more distant from it than I am. These periods roughly correspond to the historical segments of the West from the Greeks to the contemporary Europe and Americas. I will examine the distinctive rhetorical features of each period, highlighting their similarities as well as differences to those in the West, thereby arguing for recognition of the existence of rhetoric in that culture unfairly and incorrectly depicted as devoid of attention to language.

Keywords: Rhetoric, written discourse, Chinese rhetorical thoughts.

> . . . .We find, that in almost every nation, as soon as language had extended itself beyond that scanty communication which was requisite for the supply of men's necessities, the improvement of discourse began to attract regard. In the language even of rude uncultivated tribes, we can trace some attention to the grace and force of those expressions which they used, when they sought to persuade or to affect.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> Even in the desert of America, where human nature shows itself in its most uncultivated state, the savages have their ornaments of dress, their war and their death songs, their harangues and their orators.
>
> Hugh Blair

Introduction

After decades of single-minded dedication to the rhetorical tradition of ancient Greek and Roman, the historical study of rhetoric today may find the above quote from Hugh Blair truer than before. An awakening interest in non-Western rhetorics is beginning to find its way into programs of rhetoric studies, and into the pages of some influential main-stream periodicals and high-profile books on rhetoric. In their *Contemporary Perspectives on rhetoric*, Sonja Foss *et al*. include sections of "Afrocentric" and "Asian" challenges to the traditional view of rhetoric. William Covino and David Jolliffe's *Rhetoric: Concepts, Definitions, Boundaries* lists over half a dozen Chinese rhetoricians whose thoughts on language, society, governance, reasoning, and order are said to run parallel to those in the West.

In this discussion, I would like to explore some of these parallels Covino and Jolliffe suggest. But I need to do so with a disclaimer at the very outset. By parallels, I don't mean to imply complete similarities or context-free absolutes. What I intend to seek are concerns and treatments pertaining to the effective use of language found historically both in the West and in China. Prompted by James Murphy's claim that rhetoric is a uniquely Western phenomenon (3) and by

George Kennedy's assertion that canonization and conceptualization of language use only occurred in the Athenian rhetoric (7), my study of parallels merely aims to demonstrate that the Chinese, much like their European counterparts, attached as much importance to language and its study, including highly refined conceptualization in strict accordance to the needs of their realities. Indeed neither the so-called Chinese civilization, like other civilizations in South Asia, Africa, Europe, and even pre-colonial America, has been a barbaric establishment operating without any rhetorical thought, nor has its attention to language been sporadic or anecdotal. I will argue that thinkers from Europe and China alike have actively addressed the effective use of language, although each from their own perspectives and particular needs. With the Chinese rhetorical precepts as the emphasis of this discussion, I would like to investigate how views and practices of language have changed in the four major periods in Chinese history: pre-imperial (2000 BC.-211 BC.), early imperial (211 BC.-500 AD.), high imperial (500-1250), and neo-Confucian (1250-1911), leaving the modern era for people who are more distant from it than I am. These periods roughly correspond to the historical segments of the West from the Greeks to the contemporary Europe and Americas. I will examine the distinctive rhetorical features of each period, highlighting their similarities as well as differences to those in the West, thereby arguing for recognition of the existence of rhetoric in that culture unfairly and incorrectly depicted as devoid of attention to language.

Historical and Conceptual Overview

Exactly how long ago the Chinese became aware of the West and vice-versa remains unknown. According to Joseph Needham, author of the 7-volume *Science and Civilization in China*, there is no written record of any mutual awareness, let alone contract, until way into the Middle Ages, approximately the 8th or 9th century, although reference to "the Seres" (the Chinese) has been found in the writings of some 2nd- or 3rd-century Syrian writing (154-157). In spite of some isolated, and rather fantastic, similarities in story lines between Greek and Chinese tales popular over two thousand years ago, Needham favors the opinion that "China was, among the ancient civilizations of the Old World, the one which was most isolated from the others" (156). That is precisely why he finds some of the parallels amazing, actually almost unbelievable, had it not been for the testimony of the rich written records both cultures have luckily inherited. Among other parallels, Needham notes, the Aristotelian doctrine of "ladder of soul" coincides with Xunzi's "rational soul" both conceptually and temporally; and the Confucian treatment of "filial piety" runs along the same lines of Plato's *Euthyphro* (155-56). But these rather isolated cases of similarity are few and far in between, not enough to suggest any actual awareness or contact between China and the West. Needham's argument, then, is that the two civilizations developed in isolation, each independent of the other.

But what is civilization? Without going after any elaborate definition, we can more or less determine that in the West, the word is etymologically related to "city" or "citizen" (from Latin *civis* or citizen). To a Westerner, therefore, civilization means urbanization. But to the Chinese, civilization, or *wenming*, sometimes *wen-hua,* means enlightening through writing or the spreading of writing. Or, to use Derk Bodde's interpretation, civilization to the Chinese "literally means the transforming [i.e. civilizing] influence of writing" (39). According to Bodde, "The ramifications of this capsulized distinction have been many and significant. Throughout their literate history, the Chinese have been much more interested in the written than the spoken word. Famous Chinese orators have been rare, famous calligraphers legion" (39). That is why, to a certain extent, the Chinese deem their invention of printing more important than any other inventions, say, their *huo-yao* or "fire-powder," strictly for the making of fireworks for festival occasions, but unfortunately turned into "gun powder" as we know it when it was taken by the West. It is in this "literate" civilization that prior to around 1750, the Chinese are said to "have produced more printed books than the rest of the world put together" (Bodde 39). Little wonder that writings of all sorts have been the pivot of rhetorical practice in their recorded history of over four millennia. That same invention, utilized by a small yet powerful group of people, has ranked the Chinese society among the oldest "advanced intermediate" societies in terms of "relatively widespread literacy"(Gough), along with India, Greece, Egypt, and Babylon (Goody and Watt).

But what exactly constitutes "literacy?" Realizing its ambiguous nature, Pattson points out that literacy on the one hand "implies a rational application of the mind to the problems of language, an exalted cultural achievement. On the other it means the acquisition of mechanical skills in reading and writing" (181). Although both aspects of Pattson's definition apply in the Chinese context, it is the first that will serve as the underpinning of this discussion. The Chinese have traditionally perceived language as a subject worthy of speculation and learning and have made it an art to use

language to the advantage of the user. Literacy in this sense is not confined to only reading and writing. It is about the effective use of language in all forms and contexts, including what Pattson terms "studied ways" of speaking as well as writing (30). For, speaking and writing alike are both evidence of "a literate endeavor" (Pattson 30) when they are done in an artistic manner intended to reach and alter consciousness. Broadly speaking, this endeavor so characterized is what Pattson refers to as "rhetoric" (30), to which I wholeheartedly agree.

Pre-Imperial Period

This rhetorical endeavor in the Chinese context goes back to a time that preceded the Greek rhetoricians by over a thousand years. Effective discourse, persuasive or otherwise, was already a central concern among ancient Chinese thinkers. *Shu-Jing*, or "The Book of Documents," admired for, among other qualities, its "rhetorical effectiveness" (Ch'en 61), is a record of the earliest examples of the power of speech in context. "Deliberations at the royal council, memorials to the throne, records of beliefs and politics, orations and charges to feudal lords" (Ch'en 62) are documented as far back as the beginning of the Xia Dynasty (2255 BC.). These speeches would later become part of the Confucian classics to be studied by those who aspire to scholarship, officialdom, or sagehood, speaking of which, it is worth noting that the Chinese character for "sage" or "sagehood" is written in such as way that apparently spells a leader skilled (either by training or practice, or by virtue of sheer talent) in listening and speaking. Compared with the Western rhetorician who only had to speak well, the Chinese sage would have to be fifty per cent better prepared.
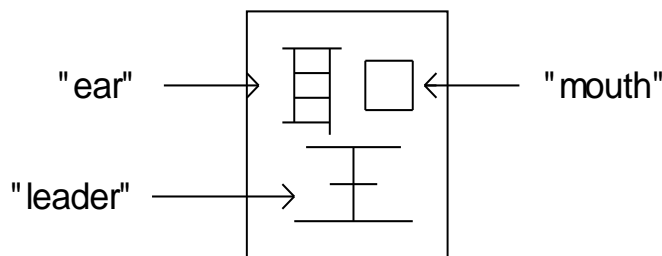
Meanwhile the written language was perfected to keep up with the need of social development. The first Chinese dictionary was compiled with 40,000 characters between 1500 BC. to 1001 BC.(Grun 4). Government bureaus were set up at local levels to collect songs from commoners, write them down, and send them in to the rulers. These songs were believed to be records of how people felt about the government and enlightened rulers would act according to their interpretations of the songs (Shih, note 1, 41). Even though the number of people was estimated to be a meager one percent (de Francis 222) who shared this property of written literacy, their impact was nevertheless far-reaching since they were the privileged few in a culture in which the governing body has been characterized as "of the literati, for the literati, and by the literati" (de Francis 27).

The development and practice of rhetoric topped all matters of importance in the period of Spring and Autumn (770--476 BC.) and Warring States (475--211 BC.), a period that has since come to be known as one in which "one hundred schools of thoughts contended," and a period that paralleled the rise and fall of the ancient Greece. To keep military balance and to win over other kingdoms, each of the seven warring powers, while engaged in fierce battles for survival and dominance, sent counselors and diplomats to their neighbors. Known as shuike or "talking visitors," such political agents were practitioners of rhetoric, dexterous in both writing and speech. Theorists also rose to the occasion, creating what Yameng Liu calls the "twelve most influential schools of discourse" in Chinese history. Many outstanding scholars, Mozi, Menzi, Xuzi, Shang Yang, and Han Feizi, to name a few, put their discourse theories into practice and found their voices in the political arena where the art of writing and oratory was in unprecedented demand.

Of all the schools of discourse, the most prominent were Confucianism and Taoism. A third school, which had little impact on the Chinese mind of today but was instrumental in bringing the warring states to a unified China two thousand years ago was Legalism, whose rhetorical concerns are also worth analyzing. Coming into being within about a hundred years of each other, Confucianism evolved from the teachings of Confucius (551--479 BC.), and Taoism from a book titled *Dao De Jing* arguably by Lao Zi (c. 604--517 BC.). Although philosophically opposite, the two schools were both centrally concerned with rhetoric. An educator with a group of disciples, Confucius himself practiced his own rhetoric by mostly asking his students questions. *Lun Yu,* or the *Analects*, is a text remarkably similar to Plato's works in both form and content. Like his *Gorgias* and *Phaedrus*, the *Analects* is in the form of dialogue, sometimes between the master and his pupils, other times among antagonistic discussants. Also like Plato's works which disputably record the life of his teacher Socrates, the *Analects*, too, is said to have been put together by Confucius' students. Although neither develops any specialized treatises on rhetoric per se, both Socrates and Confucius have the power of language as their focus. In *Phaedrus*, Plato has Socrates contrast good and bad rhetoric to show the means to truth; in the *Analects* Confucius elaborates on Yan, or discourse, as a vehicle to social distinction. He devises a moral code called Li or ethical proprieties of relationships by which all human conduct is regulated. With its elaborate specifications concerning government and public affairs, Li, according to Bodde, covers "the entire gamut of ceremonial or polite behavior, secular as well as religious" (187). Its impact is no less broad than the tripartite model of the Aristotelian rhetoric: deliberative, epideictic, and forensic. This regulatory moral code clearly defines who one is in respect to other member(s) in any given discursive interaction. Knowing oneself, that is, zhengming or "rectifying one's name," is in fact a rhetorical act by which the context of discourse may be correctly evaluated, an act necessary for successful communication at all levels, thus helping to maintain the hierarchical social order, to eliminate uncertainty, and to promote stability.

Taoism, on the other hand, does not care about man-made codes, rules, or rites. Central to its philosophy is the concept of dao, which has traditionally been rendered as "the way." Callahan considers "discourse" a semantically more faithful translation in that it underscores "the verbal primacy of dao as a mode of action that entails communication among the parts constituting the event." From such an interpretation, Taoism as a whole can be seen, much like Confucianism, as a school of discourse. However, unlike Confucianism, which aims to regulate human relations, Taoism prefers to leave things to their own courses. It, too, is concerned with naming; but its emphasis is on knowing through naming. To a Taoist, "language is composed of names, and knowing [the names] is having the ability to manipulate and use these names towards a desired end" (Callahan). Thus whereas a Confucian approaches discourse from the relative position of the discourser, a Taoist would do so from a particular perspective of the thing or event named. In their own ways, both Confucianism and Taoism consider language use their focal concern and have continued to exert their rhetorical impact on the Chinese mind up to this day.

The legalists, featuring such prominent scholars as Guan Zhong, Shang Yang, and Han Fei-zi, became a rhetorically powerful group towards the end the Warring States. Unlike Confucianism which advocates benevolent government through proper rituals and rites, and unlike Taoism which believes in participation through non-participating, Legalism holds that humans are primarily born evil and selfish, hence indifferent to moral suasion to act altruistically. Wise rulers should establish a system of rewards and punishments. Laws, clearly coded and evenly applied regardless of social status, become the most powerful means of persuasion in the Legalist theory. Massive use of punishment, however, is in fact not what the Legalists intend. Han Fei-zi's (280 BC-233 BC) argument that, "when punishments are heavy, the people dared not to transgress, and therefore there will be no punishments" (qtd. in Bodde 182) is actually based on a psychoanalysis of fear, one of the Western classical "universal emotions" Aristotle has carefully delineated in the 2nd book of his *rhetoric*. Also like Western classical rhetoricians, Han Fei-zi produces a ranking of people by professions as does Plato in *Phaedrus.* To Plato, or to Socrates in Plato's description, "poets" and sophistic rhetoricians are among the worst kind of people; to Han Fei-zi, "scholars" and "speechmakers" are "vermin of the state" (Watson 116-117). Ironically his profound dislike of scholars and speechmakers did not stop him from being one of them, and an excellent one, too. His essay on "Difficulties of Persuasion," one of the 55 sections in his extant writings, remains till this day a masterpiece on political maneuvering and survival via speech. Among other things, the treatise analyzes the mind of a ruler in 10 different kinds of situations and shows the reader how to achieve persuasion without getting oneself in serious trouble. In spite all his shrewdness in theorizing how to persuade a ruler, and in spite, also, of his political ascent because of it, he eventually was rejected, imprisoned, and executed, a fate not entire unfamiliar to the theorists and practitioners of rhetoric in the West, as in the cases of Socrates, Cicero, and Boethius, to name a few.

Early Imperial Period

The establishment of the first unified empire in 211 BC. centralized political and economic powers. With it, debates and arguments, written or spoken, began to be viewed not as a means to truth, but as a threat to the new social order, challenging, and even endangering, the ruling of the empowered few. The "great book burnings and immolations of scholars" by Emperor Qin Shi Huangdi immediately following his taking control of the country marked the darkest moment for the lettered in Chinese history.

It did not take long for the learning and teaching of writing to come back, although oratory remained suppressed due to the political power structure. In order to further consolidate its control, the newly founded Qin regime made an effort to standardize units of measurements. The same effort also brought about the standardization and simplification of written characters. The use of brush was also introduced. After the replacement of Qin by the Han Dynasty (206 BC.), rigorous formal education, which in many ways hallmarked Quintilian's career about the same time, was not only resurrected among the rich and powerful in China, but extended to

> some peasants in local schools, to a level below that required of scholars intended for bureaucracy. Hundreds of books written on wood, bamboo tablets, silk and paper were stored in libraries, and by 145 BC. university chairs were established for each of the major divisions of learning. (Gough)

The Han dynasty also started a grand tradition that was in time to be known as the "civil service examination," a system "greatly elaborated in Tang and later dynasties as the instrument for recruiting the official bureaucracy" (Bodde 107).

Writing as a rhetorical practice continued to flourish without a strong spoken counterpart. Naturally the need for good writing began to appear as a subject matter proper in books. *Shi Ji* or "Historical Records" by the famous historian Sima Qian (145--90 BC.) was one of the first texts that spoke of the importance of narrative writing and served as an exemplar of it. Four hundred years later, when rhetoric took on a heavily religious tint in the Medieval Europe and was chiefly confined to hermeneutic reading of the Holy Scripture and its teaching (e.g. Augustine *On Christian Doctrine)*, in China, conceptualized treatises on literate creation began to appear. Lu Ji (AD. 261--303) wrote the first single subject treatise on the art of composition, titled *Wen Fu* or "The Art of Writing," as translated by Sam Hamill. "Only through writing and then revising and revising," Lu Ji claims, "can one gain the necessary insight." He describes writing as a complex process involving such stages as "early motion (I)," "beginning (II)," "choosing words (III)" and "forms (XII)," and "revision (VII)." He expounds "genres (V)," "coherence (VI)," and "originality (VIII)". His five criteria of good composition are musicality, harmony, feeling, restraint, and refinement (XI). To Lu Ji, the art of rhetoric is an instrument necessary for the maintenance of state apparatus, for personal attainment, and for clear thinking: "The art of letters has saved governments from certain ruin and propagates proper morals [sic]. Through letters there is no road too distant to travel, no idea too confusing to be ordered (XVI)." Lu Ji's influence as a rhetorician of written discourse has been so profound among the Chinese that it prompts Hamill to compare Lu's position in China to that of Aristotle in the West.

High Imperial Period

By the sixth century, as Western rhetoric continued its confinement to preaching and to practical matters such as letter writing (see Murphy *Principles,* and Krul), literate rhetoric in China proliferated--the small percentage of the educated notwithstanding. This created an urgent need for yet another more timely, and more comprehensive rhetorical guide for written discourse. Perceiving that need, Liu Xie (c. 465--522) wrote a fifty-chapter book on rhetoric entitled *Wen Xin Diao Long*. A versatile scholar and author of several well-known works, Liu Xie argued that the art of composing was of great importance to his time as it was indispensable in "government and education," in "practical affairs," and in "self-cultivation" (13-14). Granted that these three functions bore little resemblance to those in Western rhetoric, classical or medieval; but, just as Western rhetoric as a practical art was situated in their overall political and cultural climate and served then societal needs, Liu Xie's rhetoric of written discourse, too, was situated in the 6th century China, serving the needs of then China. These three functions were to meet the requirement for important governmental, social and

personal roles in the same way Aristotle's academy was to train students to be politicians, lawyers, and responsible citizens.

Wen Xin Diao Long has been translated into English by Vincent Shih with an English title *The Literary Mind and the Carving of Dragons*. This is a word for word translation and does not quite carry the spirit of its Chinese original. A more faithful one may be something like: "The Cultivating of the Mind and the Carving of the Dragon." In this four-word title, the nurturing of a literate mind, or the enliteration of it through writing, is likened to the carving of the dragon. This metaphor provokes a number of interpretations. First dragons as a symbol of power and royalty ever since ancient China imply the force and vitality of writing. Second, the carving of dragons, whether on a small piece of jade or on a huge mass of marble, always requires the most skilled craftsmanship and much talent, life-long practice, ultimate patience, and a thorough understanding of the activity and of the object of creation--a powerful analogy for writing. And finally, there is the indication of immortality with works of art, carved dragons and written discourse alike.

Wen Xin Diao Long begins with an attempt to justify its enormous undertaking in the first five chapters. Liu Xie foregrounds the trinity of <u>xin</u>, <u>yan</u>, and <u>wen</u> (mind, language, and writing) against a universe made up of a still larger trinity: <u>tian</u>, <u>di</u> and <u>ren</u> (heaven, earth and people). He thus formulates his own conception of <u>dao</u> or way of cosmology from which writing emerges.

PATTERN OF TAO

Taiji

(Ultimate Supremecy)

Tian	Di	Ren
(Heaven)	(Earth)	(Man)

Ri	Yue	Xin	Tise	Qinshou	Shanchuan	Xin	Yan	Wen
(Sun)	(Moon)	(Stars)	(Shape) (Color)	(Birds) (Beasts)	(Mountains) (Rivers)	(Mind)	(Language)	(Writing)
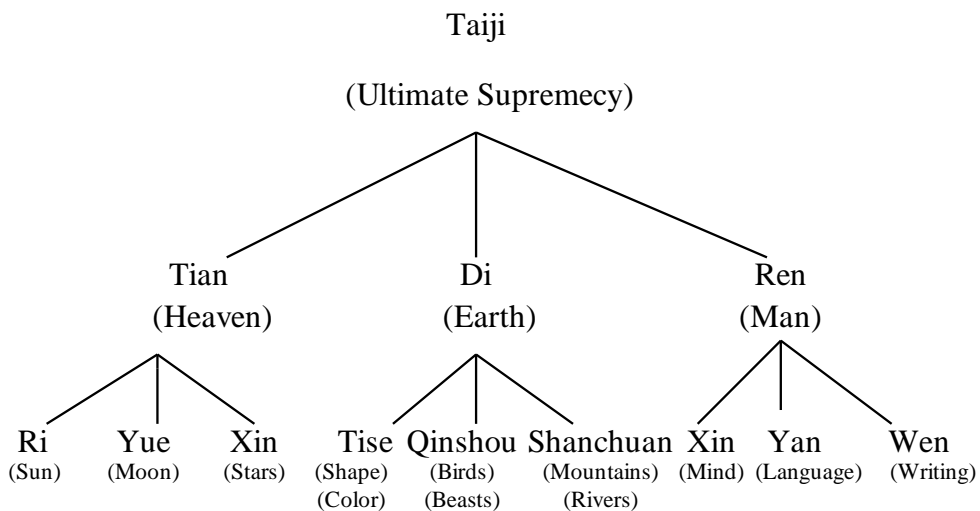
It is, so to speak, a philosophical justification as well as theoretical foundation for his rhetoric which, as carefully delineated in the rest of the treatise, is composed of three basic canons: typology of discourse patterns, process of composing, and strategies of organization.

Wen as Discourse Theory

Wenti Typology of Discourse	**Sanzhun** Process of Writing	**Fuhui** Patterns of Organization
e.g. poetry	e.g. speculation	e.g. words
inscription	investigation	sentence
edict	goal-setting	
paragraph		
Treatise	Drafting	Musicality
Diary	Revising	Style
...	...	...

Space constraint will not permit me to go into each of the three canons in this discussion. I will instead take a brief look at just one aspect in the second canon: the inventional acts in creating a written text.

How does one begin a piece of writing? Where does one get ideas for it? How does one determine the appropriate means (forms or genres) for conveying such ideas? How does one go about exploring for the relevant details to support the ideas? These are some of the questions Liu Xie contemplates and attempts to answer in the first four chapters in the second canon, which is composed of chapters 26-29: "Spiritual Thought or Imagination (Ch. XXVI)," "Form and Nature (Ch. XXVII)," "The Wind and the Bone (Ch. XXVIII)," and "Flexible Adaptability to Varying Situations (Ch. XXIX)." These chapters discuss discovering ideas, making judgments about observations, and exploring for supporting materials. They also discuss ways of doing so: imaginative thinking, investigating by appropriating the forms of choice as guidelines, and studying the rhetorical contexts in respect to wu (situation), qing (emotion), and ci (words) and all other strata of factors. As such, these chapters are in effect concerned with what in Western classical rhetoric are known as "issues of invention." Specifically, his theory of discourse initiation consists of two parts. They are--to borrow Ross Winterowd's taxonomy--content-oriented inventional acts and form-oriented inventional acts. Bound together by the specifics in given rhetorical situations, these two sets of acts complement each other rather than operating in isolation.

Liu Xie develops his content-based inventional act in the chapter Shensi or "Spiritual Thought or Imagination." As a compound word, shen means "magic," "supernatural," or "artistic;" When treated as a noun, shen could be a "talented person" or as in Vincent Shih's translation of *Wen Xin Diao Long*, "the spirited mind." Si means "to ponder," "to think" or "thought." The following figure attempts a graphic representation of shensi in operation:

I N T E R N A L

Zhi _____ Qing
(ambition or aspiration)   (feeling or emotions)

```
         |                                                      |
C        |                                                      |
O        |                                                      |
N        |                                                      |
S        |                                                      |
T        |                   Shen                               |
A        |              (spirited mind)              |        G
N        |                                                      |
T        |                                                      |
         |                                                      |
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Ci _____ Wu
(language or expression)   (reality or situation)

E X T E R N A L
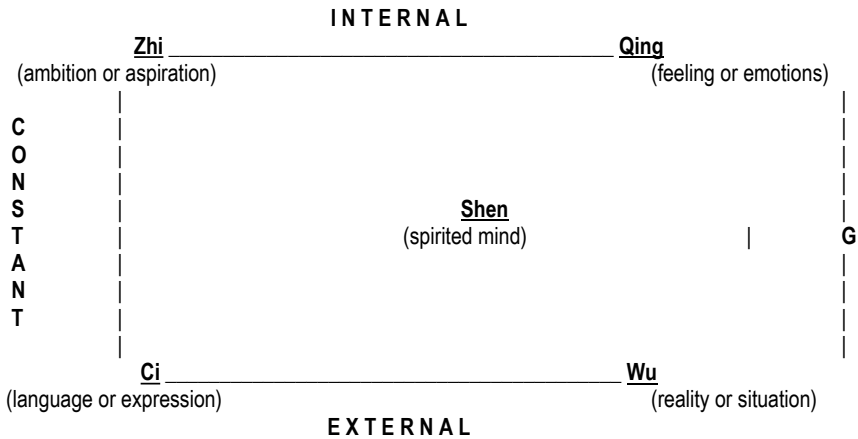
Shensi as Content-Oriented Inventional Acts

As shown in this figure, shen, that is, the spirit or spirited mind, commands the operation of shensi or spiritual thinking. The mind interacts with four factors that in turn interact with one another to generate ideas: aspiration, feeling, situation, and language. Operating here are two pairs of dichotomies. The first is between the internal and external factors, of which Liu Xie explains:

> Through the subtlety of the imagination, the spirit comes into contact with external things. The spirit resides in the mind, and the key to its secret is controlled by both the feelings and the inspiration. Physical things reach our minds through our ears and eyes, and the key to their apprehension is the skilled use of language. . . . This, in short, is the first step in the art of writing, and the main principle employed in the planning of a . . . piece [of discourse]. (Shih 154-55)

The second dichotomy has to do with the distinction between what is constant and what is changing, or what is perpetual and what is temporary. The personal aspiration and the command of language are factors that remain stable. Under normal circumstances they do not fluctuate with changing situations. Although the writer may sometimes experience slight undulation in individual cases, his overall performance with these two factors tends to remain steady. The other two factors--rhetorical situation and feeling--are ever so fluid. No two situations are the same; feelings aroused by varying situations are bound to differ at all times. As inconstant factors, their mastery is achievable only by mindful observation and analysis on an individual basis.

Liu Xie's Content-oriented invention, therefore, involves the active interaction between the mind on the one hand and four subordinating factors on the other: aspiration, feeling, language, and situation. The mind, motivated, enliterated, spirited, and equipped with the art of writing, responds to the physical situation through ears and eyes, allowing various feelings to emerge. This mind examines the selected segments of observation that have led to the emotional reactions and expresses the pertinent feelings through the skilled use of language. After the writer's "prolonged questioning and inquiring," ideas become articulated and take their initial shape (Shih 157).

As a counterpart to the content-oriented invention, a set of form-oriented inventional acts are advanced in the chapter Tixing or "Form and Nature." When separated as individual characters, ti means "body," "form," and "structure" in general and is a loose equivalent to "genre" and "style" in the meta-language of discourse. Xing is a harder term to define of the two. Free from disciplinary constraints, xing may be what is called "temperament" and "individuality." In Liu Xie's discourse theory, the word is said to mean something that is "partly the outcome of temperament and nature, and partly the result of a process of training" (Shih 159). The title of the chapter, with the two words combined, highlights an

integration between the convention of patterns and personal aptitude. The former is taught and learned, the latter innate and natural.

Form-oriented operation of invention under <u>tixing</u> usually begins after <u>shensi</u> or the content-oriented invention is accomplished. The way the two kinds of inventional acts complement each other is that, <u>shensi</u> (content-oriented) is intended as the initial acts in discovering rough ideas and relevant materials, and the <u>ti</u> (form-oriented) is to follow as a second set of acts, either to bring those ideas and materials to their consummation, or to help revise them in order to better assess and reflect the particular needs of the given rhetorical task.   In Liu Xie's words:

> When the emotions are moved, they express themselves in words; and when reason is born, it emerges in a pattern. For we start with the imperceptible and follow through to [the] revealed, and on the basis of inner realities seek [outer] realities in harmony with them. (Shih 158)

From the inner realities of feelings and corresponding ideas, the writer has to move, or deliberately and purposely "seek," to construct outer realities of a text. These two worlds, the inner and outer, must of necessity be in harmony. The form-oriented acts, therefore, become an extension of that process of invention which has been started with the content-oriented interrogation for ideas and details.

Here in the acts of form-oriented invention, two steps are suggested by Liu Xie: the first is to determine the right kind of <u>ti</u> or genre in accordance to the given exigency, and the second to explore for new thoughts and materials or simply revise the old by following the "established principles" with each and every genre (Shih 165). The need to apply established principles of the chosen form or genre sends the writer back to the typology of the first canon where all the details of every form are expounded. The following figure lists the major forms, 32 in all, in Liu Xie's typology.

WEN (rhymed)		**BI** (unrhymed)	
Chapters	**Types**	**Chapters**	**Types**
VI.	<u>Shi</u> (Poetry)	XVI.	<u>Shizhuan</u> (Historical Writings)
VII.	<u>Yuefu</u> (Musical Poetry)	XVII.	<u>Zhuzi</u> (Speculative Essays)
VIII.	<u>Fu</u> (Narrative Poetry)	XVIII.	<u>Lun</u> (Treatise)
IX.	<u>Song</u> (Ode)	XVIII.	<u>Shuo</u> (Discussion)
IX.	<u>Zan</u> (Pronouncement)	XIX.	<u>Zhao</u> (Edict)
X.	<u>Zhu</u> (Sacrificial Prayer)	XIX.	<u>Ce</u> (Script)
X.	<u>Meng</u> (Oath of Agreement)	XX.	<u>Xi</u> (War Proclamation)
XI.	<u>Ming</u> (Inscription)	XX.	<u>Yi</u> (Dispatch)
XI.	<u>Zhen</u> (Exhortation)	XXI.	<u>Fengshan</u> (Sacrifice to Spirits)
XII.	<u>Lei</u> (Elegy)	XXII.	<u>Zhang</u> (Memorial 1)
XII.	<u>Bei</u> (Inscription)	XXII.	<u>Biao</u> (Memorial 2)
XIII.	<u>Ai</u> (Lament)	XXIII.	<u>Zou</u> (Memorial 3)
XIII.	<u>Diao</u> (Condolence)	XXIII.	<u>Qi</u> (Memorial 4)
XIV.	<u>Zawen</u> (Miscellaneous Writings)	XXIV.	<u>Yi</u> (Commentary)
XV.	<u>Xieyin</u> (Satire)	XXIV.	<u>Dui</u> (Dialog)
		XXV.	<u>Shu</u> (Diary)
		XXV.	<u>Ji</u> (Epistolary Writing)

Liu Xie's Typology of Written Discourse

Ranging from "poetry" to "elegy" to "speculative essays" and personal diary and letters ("epistolary writing"), these forms show a continuum from the most esthetic at one end to the most practical at the other end. The first half, from "poetry" to "satire," are known as "<u>wen</u>" or "rhymed" forms of writing; hence the literary quality. The other half, "<u>bi</u>" or "unrhymed," are everyday writings done in a variety of social context: scholarly speculations, imperial edicts, court memorials, sales records, medical prescriptions, etc. Each of the thirty-two forms, elaborated on in Liu Xie's chapters 6 through 25, is analyzed in terms of emotion, style, occasion, length, tone, diction, musicality and other features. The basic characteristics of each form or genre lend themselves to more detailed and specified, form-oriented inventional explorations once the appropriate <u>ti</u> is selected.

Although the two kinds of inventional acts can be theoretically applicable in all contexts, in actuality, they can not be effective unless the particulars involved in the given rhetorical situation are determined and taken into full consideration. For this very reason, Liu Xie writes yet another chapter under the general discussion of invention, that is, Chapter XXIX "Tongbian" or "Flexible Adaptability to Varying Situations."   The very title of the chapter bespeaks Liu Xie's conviction that successful practitioners of his rhetorical theory, insofar as they desire to function effectively as rulers, community leaders and respectable members of society, must understand and act according to ever-changing situations.

This chapter elaborates on the three aspects of situation--time, place, and critic--in a manner amazingly similar to the Greek notion of *kairos*. In actuality, thought, its origin lies in the Mencius's doctrine of *tianshi, dili, renhe* or opportune time, favorable geo-physical conditions, and cooperative people. Supplemented by additional discussion on the same issues in three later chapters: XLV, Shishu or "Times and Events," XLVI Wuse or "the Physical World," and XLVIII Zhiyin or "Understanding Critic," the concept of rhetorical adaptability completes Liu Xie's theory of invention as represented in the following diagram.

Content-Oriented Inventional Acts
(XXVI: Spiritual Thinking; XXVIII: the Wind)

Form-Oriented Inventional Acts
(XXVII: Styles and Nature; XXVIII: the Bone)

Circumstantial Considerations
(XXIX: Flexible Adaptability to Varying Situations)

Liu Xie's Triangular Model of Invention
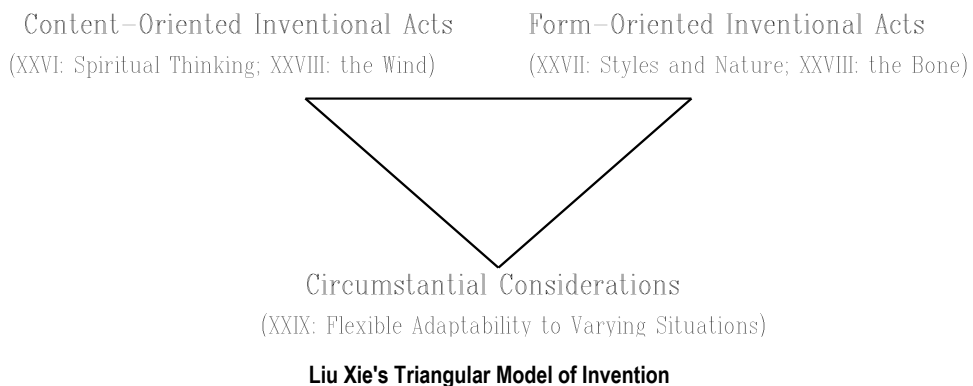
This overview of a single aspect of *Wen Xin Diao Long*, I hope, has served to show the grandeur of Liu Xie's entire undertaking as a Chinese rhetoric of written discourse. Even though written 15 hundred years ago, the treatise is still much admired and carefully read today by the Chinese and by scholars from countries whose cultures are closely related to the Chinese, such as Japan and Korea.

Neo-Confusian Period

The attention to language use in China did not stop with Liu Xie. The peak of pre-modern Chinese learning was yet to come. According to Sinologist Gough, Education flourished "in the Song period of the tenth to thirteenth centuries AD. Printing was widespread by 980, and a rapid form of cursive writing, comparable in speed to shorthand, was known by the tenth century and practiced by Chinese as far afield as Baghdad." By this time the imperial system was so well-established and in-trenched that ways to distinction became strictly controlled by the government. Reinforced by neo-Confucians like Zhu Xi, whose political views were adopted by the momarch, all forms of learning returned to the study of Confucian classics. Thinking was discouraged. Imitation and rote-memorization valorized. In order to achieve officialdom and become a member of the intelligenti, one must study to pass the numerous levels of "civil service examinations" that began a thousand years before and that had by now become extremely elaborate and difficult. The student must begin, as early as three or four, reading, remembering, and reciting the teachings of Confucius and Mencius. His first lessons looked invariably like the following:

> Let us present our work to father.
>
> Confucius himself
>
> taught three thousand

Seventy were capable gentlemen

You young scholars,

eight or nine!

work well to attain virtue,

and you will understand propriety.   (Miyazaki 14)

Formal education, whether in a temple, village, communal, or private school, began when the pupil was typically eight or nine years old. Over the next 6 years, that is, until he reached the age of 15, he would be studying and memorizing Neo-Confucian texts. His daily scholarly activities would typically be to recite a book "a hundred times, fifty times while looking at the book and fifty with the book face down" (Miyazaki 15). By the time he was ready for the first of a series of examinations that could potentially become his life-long challenge, and did, to many, the pupil should have read 431,286 characters by Miyazaki's calculation in the following 7 classics:

Analects	11,705
Mensius	34,685
Book of Changes	24,107
Book of Documents	25,700
Book of Poetry	39,234
Book of Rites	99,010
Zuo Zhuan	196,845

These books required 6 years of memorizing, at the rate of two hundred characters a day, raining or shining.

The examinations, which were carried all the way into the beginning of this century, took place at different levels. The lower level ones lasted merely three days while the high level went for as many as half a month. The first ones to take were the district and prefectural examinations. Tested at this level, as at later stages, would not only be materials from the classics, but also students' abilities to understand and imitate the classics as examples. They would typically have to write compositions following the classics in both theme and style. Those successful at this stage, according to Miyazaki, would move on to the "qualifying examination" (26), after which there would be the "annual and special preliminary examinations" (33), after which "the provincial examination and reexamination" (39), after which the "metropolitan examination and reexamination" (66), and after which, finally, the "palace examination and the court review" (74).

During this period, more treatises on different types of written discourse appeared, largely for assisting examinees to pass the tests. Among those that have been influential were *Wen Ze*, or "Principles of Discourse" by Chen Kuei of the Song Dynasty (960--1279), *Wen Shuo* or "On Composition" by Chen Yi-ceng of the Yuan Dynasty (1276--1368), *Wenti Mingpian Xushuo* or "An Introduction to Discourse Forms" by Xu Shi-ceng, and *Dushu Zuowen Pu*, or "A Guide to Reading and Writing" by Tang Biao of the Ming and Qing Dynasties (1368--1911). Perhaps due to the changed climate, few of these new works could match *Wen Xin Diao Long* in terms of depth, breadth, and originality, for they were by and large products of a new rhetorical culture driven by the need to write well enough to pass the civil service examinations.

Many questions must be asked about this elaborate examination system that sustained itself for over 1500 years. First of all, what were the benefits of this system? Miyazaki sees two: one is that the system promoted democracy, and the other is that it promoted fairness. It was democratic in that at least in theory the exams were open to all people, regardless of rank, wealth, or birth. It was fair because the system precribed strict rules that prohibited cheating of any kind. But from a rhetorical perspective, its ramifications went for beyond the above two Miyazaki had identified. For example, the system greatly encouraged learning among all people. It also provided a clear path toward distinction. It further enabled generations of emperors to prevail over aristocracy with a bureaucratic governing body made up chiefly of scholars who succeeded in the examinations. To a large extent, the political and economic success in the Tang and Sung dynasties, arguably the most illustrious in Chinese history, owed much to this examination system.

According to Miyazaki, the success in this process of selecting officials by examination strongly influenced some European countries where, traditionally long time officials were selected according to birth or power. "England, where democracy was most advanced, did not reach the point of using examinations for government service until after 1870. In the United States of America this began in 1883" (Miyazaki 124).

On the other hand, the system was also detrimental to the country's progress. The prescribed texts from a single school of thought thousands of years old inevitably lead to narrow-mindedness, nostalgia, and stagnation. The same obsession with the glory of classical Confucianism necessarily kept the Chinese mind from accepting ideas that were modern and/or foreign, leaving it dangerously contended with its heritage, erroneously contemptuous of other nations, and lethally blind of the advancement of the world surrounding it. The examinations, with their emphasis on rode memorization, also discouraged critical thinking, which, although precisely what the conservative political system wanted, only generated docile and dogmatic servants for the ruling class. Even the sounds and syntax of the texts and exams were those of Confucius and Mencius, totally out of tune with reality. The system by the end of the 19th century clearly had outlived its usefulness and had become a major obstacle to progress. So it was abolished when Dr. Sun Yat-sen's Republic of China ousted the last imperial dynasty of Qing in 1911.

Conclusion

I thus have come to an conclusion of this brief overview of Chinese rhetorical thoughts and practices. It must be said, as I fold up my sheets, that Chinese rhetoric has yet to be recognized as a respectable academic endeavor and be studied as such both in and outside of China. Recent interest among scholars of contrastive rhetorics has ushered in a new beginning in that direction; but much remains to be discovered, recovered, and established. As Karl Kao suggests, the numerous traditional sources that bear on the theory of rhetoric must be carefully sifted, and a taxonomy based on the nature of the Chinese language and culture be constructed. It is a difficult and challenging task, and it is all the more exciting precisely because of the difficulties and challenges lying ahead.

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Legal and practical aspects of bankruptcy proceedings in Albania and their role in the protection of stakeholders

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Abstract

Bankruptcy represents an effort to find the correct ratio between the need to protect economic assets left over from a subject in crisis and need to take care and realize greater extent the rights of creditors. Bankruptcy in Albania, for the first time was adjusted in the Commercial Code of Zogu, " Book six – Bankruptcy". Today in the Republic of Albania the law in 2002 "On bankruptcy" amended by law in 2008. This law is largely a continuation of adjustments made in 1995. This paper will address the news that the new law brings, regarding the procedures to be followed and the conditions to be met for a person debtor, can be downloaded from the remaining obligations. Regulated recognition of a foreign bankruptcy procedure and the opening of a secondary procedure, as well as collaboration between the higher of the two bankruptcy proceedings. Also, according to recent changes have envisaged by the law, Bankruptcy Supervision Agency" which is a public legal entity. We will treat the compatibility of our legislation with EU Regulation of 2000. The methodology used in the paper is the analysis of legislation and practical decisions. The conclusions show a positive tendency of legal norms to protect creditors, but the level of jurisdiction decisions and practice seems more embryonic. Relevance of this topic is related to social, legal but also economic aspects.

Keywords: companies, bankruptcy, credit line, agency surveillance, territorial competence.

Introduction

Bankruptcy law[1] is a barometer of the two biggest changes that affected Europe in the late twentieth century: the consensus in favor of market economy and the need to control unemployment. Regarding the main purpose of bankruptcy, in world literature there are different views about this item.

Supporters of the classical theory, say that the aim all procedures in the process of bankruptcy is willingness to realize the right of creditors to an enterprise in crisis, for equality of treatment as regards their execution undertaken that is compelled by the state of insolvency of the company (debtor) in crisis. According to modern views and trends that present bankruptcy legislation today, the purpose of bankruptcy proceedings is the elimination from the market of enterprises (companies) in crisis when their business continuity results not productive for the economy in general. (K. Katro, 2004)

The way companies are managed, in the world of today represent a broad spectrum of regulations that revolve around corporate governance, which often emphasize the importance of guaranteeing stakeholders affected by the proper management. The purpose of this paper is to shed an overview on some specific aspects of bankruptcy in Albania, dealing with how a debtor entity protected creditors front.

Methodology found in this paper includes qualitative methods of analysis of legal provisions, contemporary literature of different authors, as well as analysis of judicial practice. Central hypothesis in this paper is related to the Albanian legal framework, which is of a high standard, but that does not come in straight line with the case law and effective enforcement in protecting stakeholders.

Below, we will discuss, first, the historical evolution of bankruptcy legislation in Albania, in addition, some international standards in this field, further, the current legal approach to them and in the end, the Albanian judicial practice in this area.

Historical developments on Bancruptcy in Albania

[1] For "Mbi zbatimin e ligjit të Falimentimit",Tiranë 1999, fq 77-83. see K.Katro, 2004

The historical overview for bankruptcy and its origin, shows that Europe is divided into three main currents[1]. In fact, these aspects have an impact on each other, especially the Napolonik direction has influenced the Romanic one, but they still make different regulations .

Albanian legislation bankruptcy since 1995, enters the Germanic trend, if not that current law makes similar arrangements with German law. The first Albanian law of bankruptcy in Albania is Zogu "Book VI of the Commercial Code "[2] and all the rest of the Zogu's commercial legislation is based on the Italian Commercial Code, of 1882. (K. Katro 2004) Bankruptcy and privatization are different institutions, with their own objectives and procedures, and in many cases former state enterprises are simultaneously subject to two procedures. State enterprise can restructure through _ bankruptcy type (state-owned enterprises that survived the procedures stipulated by law of 1992) and then to privatize.

After the changes in '90 for the first time after a very long period, bankruptcy is regulated by Law no. 7631, date. 29.10.1992, "On Bankruptcy of State Enterprises." He had a total of 40 articles. This law stipulated that a single procedure can lead to the rehabilitation of the company or its liquidation. Thus, in Chapter II predicted the possibility of a reorganization agreement so that it can be preserved subject and can be verified if there was a possibility that the company extracted from insolvency.

The only obligation of the state rose after the liquidation of the enterprise, to laid off employees, but the obligation, although projected in bankruptcy law[3], belonged to a relationship that was regulated by another law, he "For social support for unemployed persons arising from the implementation of economic reform "[4].

International developments on Bancruptcy in Europe

On a study in 2004, the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) completed two major insolvency-related studies: the Insolvency Sector Assessment (ISA) and the Legal Indicator Survey on Isolvency (LIS). Bancruptcy and insolvency legal systems are often incorrectly thought to be solely about helping creditors recover loans made to debtors. In fact, these legal systems encapsulate a number of commercial,social and political values of society. The methodology of the assessment involved constructing a list of 97 fields of inquiry, created using the most widely accepted international standards adopted by World Bank and the United Nations Commission on International Trade and Law, among others. These fields were grouped into the five core areas:-commencement of proceedings;-treatment of estate assets; -treatment of creditors;-reorganization processes; and -terminal liquidation processes.   (M Uttamchandani, EBRD 2004). In virtually every case, practitioners in each country were to verify the assessments of the EBRD experts. In the end, a final numerical score was assigned to each country and the countries were then grouped according to their level of compliance with international standards, ranging from "very high" down to "very low", as illustrated in table 1. (2004 10 JIBLF, page 1-5)

Table 1: The Level of legislative compliance with international standards and best practices of insolvency				
Very Low compliance	Low Compliance	Medium Compliance	High Compliance	Very High Compliance

---

[1] The currents, according to Piero Pajardi 1998 have been: 1 – The Romanik, who backs in Roman law and Italian law where legislation includes Italian Belgian Spanish Luxembourg; 2 - Napolonike which relies heavily on the Napoleonic Commercial Code and in French bankruptcy legislation which include Greek, Portuguese, etc.; 3 - Germanic which is based in the German bankruptcy legislation which include legislation, Danish German Dutch Austrian, etc.. K. Katro, 2004

[2] Zogu's Commercial Code " The Sixth book _ - Bankruptcy; under this law the trader was considered in the state of Bankruptcy when dismiss the payments made for obligations (liabilities) of his trade. The particular of the law of Zogu's was that predicted that within 24 hours of receipt of the decision to declare bankruptcy for _ specific trade the chief judge shall transmit to the State Attorney copy of the sentence, and all relevant information for which the court has been informed. The prosecutor was obliged to investigate whether there were elements for the criminal proceeding. Even if for the debtor was initiated a criminal proceeding, bankruptcy procedures continued uninterrupted. Thus two procedures kept independent of each. This law as general Bankruptcy legislation, he put all creditors in the same position but it create _ sequence preference. K. Katro 2004.

[3] Law nr. 7631, dt. 29.10.1992 "Për falimentimin e ndërmarrjeve shtetërore", article 39.

[4] Lae nr. 7521 dt. 30.10.1991, ndryshuar me Ligjin nr. 7579, dt.02.07.1992 "Për përkrahjen sociale për personat që dalin të papunë nga zbatimi i reformës ekonomike"

Lithuania	Azerbaijan	Armenia	Albania	
Tajikistan	Georgia	Belarus	Bosnia and Herzegovina	
Turkmenistan	Hungary	Czech Republic	Bulgaria	
Ukraine	Latvia	Estonia	Croatia	
	Slovenia	Kazakhstan	Moldova	
	Uzbekistan	Kyrgyzstan	Romania	
		Macedonia	Serbia and Montenegro	
		Poland		
		Russian Federation		
		Slovak Republik		

Table 1: Butterworths Journal of International Banking and Financial Law-December 2004

On international terms has been continuous efforts in Europe to bankruptcy problems[1].Thus, the EU Regulation[2] on bankruptcy procedures is expressed for automatic recognition of the foreign judgment to the start of bankruptcy, and this is reflected in German law (Sections 335-338 of the Ins-os).

On the EU Regulation on bankruptcy procedures reciprocity is ensured , because each member state is obliged to recognize the decision to start the procedure of bankruptcy of another member state.

On contrast, Swiss law provides as a condition of recognizing the existence of reciprocity (Article 166, paragraph 1, letter ce IPRG), but the majority of Swiss authors criticize such a solution to Swiss law making efforts to alleviate this through interpretations in different ways[3]..

EU Regulation concerning jurisdiction gives courts of the Member State in whose territory the debtor has the center of its main interests, the power to initiate bankruptcy proceedings.

How is defined "the center of main interests"? Explanatory notes of Regulation protects the principle of Virgos Schmit Convention of 1995, according to which the concept of the place where the debtor corresponds regularly administers its interests, the country which is recognized by third parties.

However, there is conflicting tendencies, when, if we refer to the fact that the main bankruptcy proceedings includes all the debtor's assets in each member state, which means that there is overlap with the assets that must be managed in a secondary bankruptcy process, who has territorial force in another state, after the main proceedings is applicable where the secondary procedures has started

Article 33 is one of the practical rules of hierarchy that enables operation between bankruptcy proceedings. So, according to it, the liquidator (administrator) of the main procedure of bankruptcy requires to the court, who has open secondary bankruptcy proceedings, suspension of the latter.

The law applicable is , under Article 4 (1), each set of bankruptcy procedures governed by *lex consursus* or by the law of the Member State in whose territory procedures have started.

Lex Concurcus law is applicable to all matters dealt with in the bankruptcy process and their consequences. Regarding Labor contracts, employees are vulnerable party status during bankruptcy proceedings, so it would not be right to step their

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[1] In 5 June 1990 in Istanbul was the current European Conventions on "Some International Aspects of Bankruptcy" which was asigned only by eight countries of which only one has ratified. In 1995 the European Union adopted a Convention on Insolvency Proceedings. None of these conventions have entered into force. European Convention on Certain International Aspects of Bankruptcy

[2] Regulation was adopted in 29 May 2000 and entered into force in EU member states _ May 31, 2002.Council Regulation on Insolvency Proceeding (CE), N. 1346/2000, dt.29.05.2000.

[3] Simpoziumi i Ohrit, fq 63, K Katro, 2004

special protection under the election of law rules. The order of the employees' claims for unpaid wages under the contract shall be governed by the lex concursus. (P Torremans, 2004)

Bankruptcy procedures after 2002 in Albania

Bankruptcy law in 1995 defined a table of priorities specific to the bankruptcy procedure, clearly defining orders, determination underlying this procedure. Also, he had very definite actions objectionable, which clearly distinguished fraud standards, terms of visibility behind, although these were somewhat short.

Currently, the Republic of Albania is applicable the 2002[1] law "On Bankruptcy". It is mainly a continuation of adjustments made in the previous law, but they are more detailed and filling gaps previously unnoticed. Law no. 8901 brings a new nine-part "Removal of the remaining liabilities", which includes procedures to be followed and the conditions to be met in order for a debtor person can be discharged from the remainder of its obligations.

A better arrangement than the previous law and in the spirit of Regulation 1346/2000 of the EU, made the current law in the Eleventh Part "bankruptcy procedure associated with other countries", which is regulated as a recognition of a foreign bankruptcy procedure _ (when the conditions provided for by law), and the opening of a secondary procedure, as well as the cooperation among higher bankruptcy structures among two open procedures.

An innovation that brings current Bankruptcy legislation is the fact that has envisaged "Bankruptcy Supervision Agency" which is a public legal entity. It operates in accordance with civil service legislation. The rights, duties and responsibilities they are defined in law.

The law provides that the request for the opening of a _ of a bankruptcy procedure can be rejected by the court if the debtor's assets are insufficient to cover the costs of the bankruptcy proceedings[2], costs which include court costs and the compensation and expenses of temporary Bankruptcy administrator , the Bankruptcy administrator and the creditors committee members (if any). So, it seems clear that the costs of the bankruptcy proceedings are the first order of obligations that must be met and even the fullest extent.

The law provides the fact that is respected the table of preferences set by Civil Code Article 605, with those changes that specifically provides Bankruptcy law. On this respect, the law provides that secured creditors are entitled to special repayment[3], so staying if a sequence preference above other creditors, even by those eligible.

Jurisprudence aspects of bankruptcy and the and the protection of stakeholders

The Regional Taxation Department against Eljo & Co. in 2008, , about the competence of the Court

In Albania, cases of conflict of jurisdiction between courts bring a practical case, where the Regional Tax Directorate, Dibër, sues the company Eljo & CO. 2008 , and requires the opening of bankruptcy proceedings of this company, under Article 104[4] of law "On Tax procedures in the Republic of Albania".

The respondent party is a limited liability company and operates in the District of Mat. Mat District Court, _ found a lack of competence to adjudicate the dispute[5] and decided: "To declare its non the trial of this matter. But, as a rule, when the respondent is a legal person, the claims are raised at a locality court in where the legal person has its center. [6]

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[1] Law nr 8901, dt 23.05.2002 "Për Falimentimin" shtuar dhe ndryshuar me ligjin nr. 9919, dt. 19.05. 2008 "Për disa shtesa dhe ndryshime në ligjin nr 8901, dt. 23.05.2002 "Për Falimentimin".

[2] Law nr.8901, dt 23.05.2002 "Për Falimentimin", neni 18, pika 4,b.

[3] Law nr.8901, dt 23.05.2002 "Për Falimentimin", neni 41.

[4] The plaintiff has requested the initiation of bankruptcy after the verification results that this subject last 2 years from 2009 to 2010 did not carry any kind of activity verified this by DRT specialized services Dibër. Law No. 9920, dated 19.05.2008 "On Tax procedures in the Republic of Albania".

[5] According to law No. 8901 dated 23.05.2002 "On Bankruptcy" specifically regulating this relationship, "Review of issues should be made within 30 days of submission of the application to the secretary of Tirana District Court of commercial section" (Article 3 made by the law).

[6] Article 43 of Albanian Civil Procedure Code

Moreover, the 2008 law defines so contradictory that "The bankruptcy proceedings is the duty of the commercial sections of the district court (the bankruptcy court)." In paragraph 3 of the same article stipulates that "review of issues should be made within 30 days of submission of the application to the secretary of the District Court, Tirana, commercial section." [1]

Regarding territorial responsibility, bankruptcy procedures is reviewed at the commercial section of the district court where the debtor who is a person resides or headquarters. But if a bankruptcy is in the competence of some commercial district courts, the direct responsibility for the review adjudication of the case is for the commercial section of the district court where it was originally submitted the request for the opening of bankruptcy proceedings. Commercial section of the district court, which has responsibility for a bankruptcy judge, is the only court responsible for civil claims raised for bankruptcy ".

The High Court said that the decision, made by the District Court of Mat, was taken in the breach of the law and the matter is subject to review under the jurisdiction of the Administrative Section of the District Court Mat. The legislator, by a change of conduct in the 2008, has decided to add paragraph 3 of Article 3, which states: "*Review of issues should be made within 30 days of submission of the application to the secretary of District Court of Tirana , the trade section* ".

According to the Supreme Court this change shows a flagrant contradiction of its content not only with the general procedural provisions on territorial jurisdiction of the Civil Procedure Code but even with exhaustive arrangements of special provisions for the purpose of Articles 4 to 8 of the same law law No. 8901 dated 23.05.2002 "On Bankruptcy".

The High Court considered that if in the various laws or within the same law contained provisions that, contrary to each other provide different solutions on jurisdiction, in principle, the court dealing with the case follows the regulation which is in the harmony with the general procedure for determining the competent court in the the Albanian legal system increasingly in view of the forecast of tools as effective and efficient to the courts to administer justice.

"Belle Air" Case and the protection of stakeholders

In November 2013 persons who had purchased tickets to fly with Belle Air was announced through the media that the company with a sudden decision suspended all flights. Later Belle Air informed that those who seek to be reimbursed should be presented to the bank (this applied only for those who had paid in the bank street) to pull the money.[2]

The decision to declare bankruptcy by company executives brought great damage to all passengers who in the terms of corporate social responsibility are considered one of the most important stakeholders in the This case. The Court of Tirana granted the request to open bankcruptcy proceedings for Belle Air[3], despite conflicting facts that appear in the the way of its management.

The case is still pending, as is clear from the facts[4] that the shareholders and directors of the company according to NRC historical extract were members of the same family. Moreover the transactions made clearly reflect the company's management and hiding the abuses of its revenue. Finally in the response to aspects of social responsibility that corporations carry nowadays, the latter represents one of the most typical cases of violation of this responsibility.

Conclusions

Corporate governance is a system that interacts with different scientific profiles also with numerous components such as legal labor law, bankruptcy law, environmental law etc.. The concept of social responsibility is quite innovative in Albania but does not exclude recent trends to implement in different policies of the company . In the above submissions, it seems that the consequences of non-compliance with these concepts in the practice are quite harmful.

This work consisted in the examination of legal framework in Albania, seen in an evolving perspective and also thw current developments. Hereinafter, we took an overview of the international treatment of this topic and also, the approach and harmonization of Albanian legislation with the European one. In conclusion we bring practical illustration of two cases from

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[1]Article 3 of law nr.8901, date 23.05.2002

[2]http://www.shqiptarja.com/ekonomi/2733/belle-air-mister-falimenti-i-nje-kompanie-miliardere-188752.html#sthash.0mNMvFGj.dpuf

[3] "Belle Air" company owned 55% of the market of aviation transport in Albania and 830 thousand passengers a year with a _ turnover of 115 million euros a year; daily turnover of 315,000 euros. She owned a private bank debt to 8.5 million euro. Over the last 5 years, the company " " had not paid a fee of $ 10 per ticket in the state budget. It should be added that the company has sold 55 thousand tickets to March 2014 taking advance money and consequently has received an amount of 8.5 million euros.   found at:http://www.shqiptarja.com/ekonomi/2733/belle-air-mister-falimenti-i-nje-kompanie-miliardere-188752.html#sthash.0mNMvFGj.dpuf

[4] http://www.qkr.gov.al/nrc/Kerko_Per_Subjekt.aspx

the vague jurisprudence that exists in this field in Albania. In the first case there is a clash between the legal provisions of the current law _ on jurisdiction, of the court. While in the second case which constitutes one of the cornerstones in the history of Albanian companies, because of the economic importance of Belle Air, we brought some facts about bankruptcy procedure which is still in progress.

The protection of creditors of a company represents one more guarantee due to wider implementation of the concept of social responsibility of a company. Results of this study identify and ascertain the contemporary bankruptcy legal provisions however in some cases contradictory as is the case with the Supreme Court decision. Also there is a distinct lack of bankruptcy court decisions. According to statistics of the Court of Tirana the last 4 years[1] have increased requirements for opening bankruptcy proceedings but it also found delays in completing the process.

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[1] http://www.gjykatatirana.gov.al/

AN ANALYSIS OF THE NUMBER OF WOMEN AND NUMBER OF MEN IN ALBANIA

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Abstract

In this study we make an analysis of several indicators of the population: the number of births, number of deaths, population increased, and the difference between the number of men and women in Albania during the period 2001-2014. Analyzing the trend of the time series built with these data obtained by INSTAT. Estimation of the coefficients of linear regressions will be build by the method with ordinary least squares (OLS) estimate and will compare these estimates with estimates obtained from the bootstrap method. Forecasting on time series is done using automated statistical software packages and programming languages, such as R. Data processing will be done in the software R. Trend of regression of the difference between the number of males and number of females is not linear decreasing and might have a social impact. There are many reasons for this "abnormal" trend and need further study.

Keywords: regressions, bootstrap, forecasting, trend, time series.

Introduction

This article is composed of two parts. The first part contains an analysis of the number of Albanian population in the years 2001-2013, births and deaths during the period 1990 to 2013.We will describe the trend and will present them through time-series graph respectively. The commands for construction of a plot in R will only illustrate the total population graphic, while the other graphs will be obtained in a similar manner. Relying on these graphic and data provided by INSTAT, will draw conclusions for the Albanian population. Part two begins with a linear regression model. For finding linear regression will be used OLS method. We will describe the bootstrap method to assess linear regression model.

1.   Population demographic estimates

This section presents mainly preliminary population estimates for Albania, in the year 2013 along with a detailed analysis of components of population growth, like births, deaths and emigration. The population estimates released today is based on the 2011 Census. In 2013 Albanian population was estimated at 2898782. The percentage of men and women is respectively 50.3%   and 49.7%. The population has declined around 6% compared to the 2001 census, where the enumerated population was 3063320 residents. The factors which affected this phenomenon are: the decline trend of the number of births and relatively high emigration.

A graphical view of the number of population according to years for this period is shown in the figure 2. We are presenting only the construction of time series for population growth through the R from the preliminary data provided by INSTAT (Albanian Institute of Statistics).

```
> popullationgrowth<-read.csv(file.choose(),header=T)

>PGR<-popullationgrowth

> PGR[,6]<-ts(PGR[,6],start=2001,freq=12) #the data  for total population are puted in col 6

> plot(PGR[,6],main="Population growth rate",col="red",ylab="population",xlab="years",type="l",lwd=2)
```
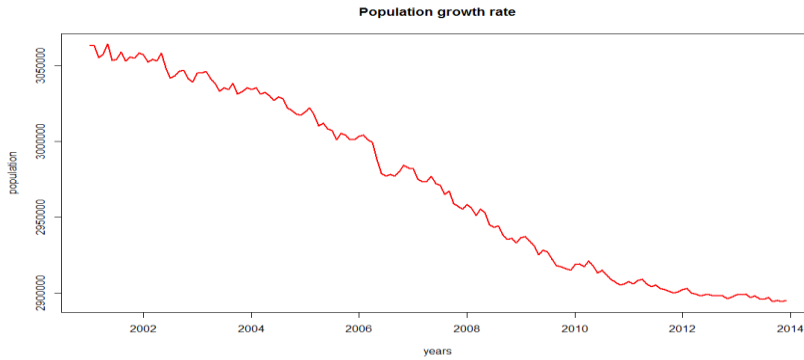
Figure 1. *Time series that shows the period from 2001-2013*

We have no data about emigration, but we can estimate the emigration number by population number of 2001 plus natural increase for period 2001-2013 minus population in 2013. Natural increase is the difference between the number of births and deaths. Emigration number according to preliminary data for period 2001-2013 was estimated with this formula:

$$N_{em} = P_{2001} + I_{2001-2013} - P_{2013}$$

N_{em} -emigration number

P_{2001}, P_{2013} - population number in 2001 and 2013 in Albania

$I_{2001-2013}$ - increase number in 2001-2013

The estimated emigration number is 398241 or 14 % of the whole population in this moment. This number includes other factors which we have not taken in consideration, for example immigrants and returning emigrants.

The number of deaths is almost constant and does not affect in the decline phenomenon of population number. The plots below indicate the decline trend of births number and the trend of the deaths number.
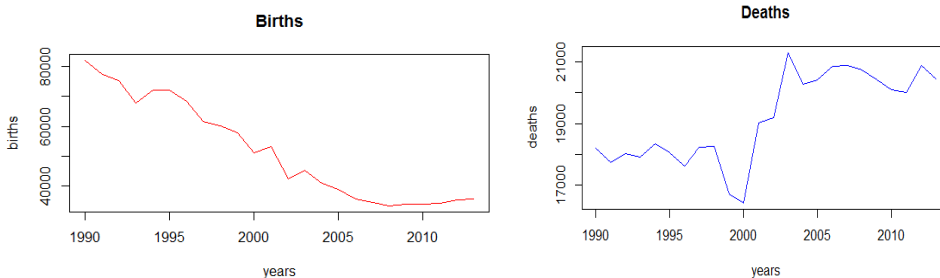
Figure2. *On the left: plot of births number by year, 1990-2013. On the right, plot of deaths number by year, 1990-2013.*

According to the earliest studies the number of births has been at high levels and in the period of 1990-2007 is shown a decreasing trend, in the 2007-2013 seems that the number of births has a constant trend. In 2013 the nativity scale per woman is 2.4% which compared to other countries in Europe is still at high levels.

If we analyze the period of 2001-2013 for mortality, the minimal number of deaths per year is 19013 and corresponds the year 2001 and the maximal value of deaths per year is 21294 that correspond the year 2003. The number of mortality along this period does not have a big change to affect in the general population growth. Although the number of births has fallen in comparison with other years, again compared with the number of deaths is higher. Natural increase is positive and the total population has decreased from 2001 to 2013 with 164538. Main factor of the decreased trend has been the emigration.

The number of males in comparison with the number of females is increased. In 2001 the number of males was 1529478 while the number of females in this year was 1535822. Female number is 8324 more than the male number. In 2013 the number of males was 1457332 and the number of females was 1441450. In this year 2013 female number was 15882 less than the male number. We are going to present this data with a plot:
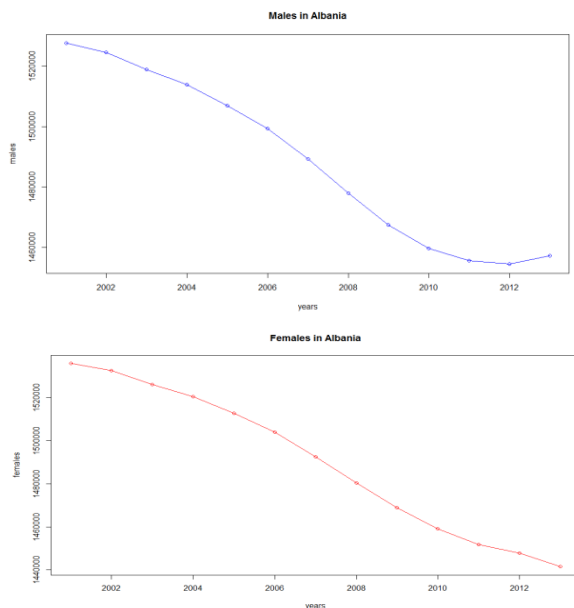
Figure 3. On the left the number of males from 2001-2013, on the right the number of females from 2001-2013.
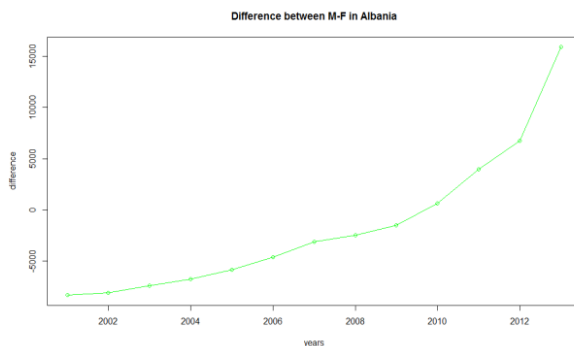
Figure 4. It is given the difference between males and females from 2001-2013

The number of males and the number of females during this period 2001-2013 has a decreasing trend but the difference between them is increasing fast. The number of male births is higher than the number of births to women. Life expectancy of women is higher than men's life expectancy. We think that these two factors balance each other. The difference between the number of males and number of females that is relatively large comes from a third factor which we think comes from emigration

2. To find the regression model

Suppose $Y = X\beta + \varepsilon$, where the design matrix X is $n\,x\,p$. Suppose that X is fixed and has full rank. The parameter vector β, is to be estimated by OLS. The errors $\varepsilon_1, \ldots \varepsilon_n$ are with mean 0 and variance σ^2, also unknown.

The bias in OLS estimator $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y$ is 0 and the covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$ is $\sigma^2 = (X'X)^{-1}$; we would estimate σ^2 as the mean square of the residuals.

Again, suppose we have forgotten the formulas but have computer time on our hands. We will use the bootstrap to get at bias and variance. We do not want to resample the Y_i's, because they are not $IID: E(Y_i) = X_i\beta$ differs from one i to another, Y_i being the i the row of the design matrix X. The ε_i are IID, but we can't get our hands on them.

Suppose there's an intercept in the model, so the first column of X is all 1's. Then $\bar{e} = 0$ where $e = Y - X\beta$ is the vector of residuals. We can resample the residuals, and that's the thing to do. There residuals $e_1, \ldots, e_n$ are a new little population, whose mean is 0. We draw n times at random with replacement from this population to get bootstrap errors $\varepsilon_1^*, \ldots, \varepsilon_n^*$. These are IID and $E(\varepsilon_i^*) = 0$. The ε_i^* behave like ε_i.

The next step is to regenerate the Y_i's:

$$Y^* = X\hat{\beta} + \varepsilon^*.$$

Each e_1 comes into ε^* some small random number of times (zero is a possible number) and in random order. So e_1 may get paired with Y_7. The e_1 may not come into the sample at all. The design matrix X doesn't change, because we assumed it was fixed. Notice that Y^* follows the regression model: errors are IID with expectation 0. We've imitated the original model on the computer. There is a difference, though. On the computer, we know the true parameter vector. It's $\hat{\beta}$. We also know the true distribution of the disturbances - IID draws from $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$. So we can get our hands on the distribution of $\hat{\beta}^* - \hat{\beta}$, where $\hat{\beta}^*$ is the bootstrap estimator $\hat{\beta}^* = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y^*$

Bootstrap principle for regression. With a reasonably large n, the distribution of $\hat{\beta}^* - \hat{\beta}$ is a good approximation to the distribution of $\hat{\beta} - \beta$. In particular, the empirical covariance matrix of the $\hat{\beta}^*$ is a good approximation to the theoretical covariance matrix of $\hat{\beta}$.

What is an "empirical" covariance matrix? Suppose we generate N bootstrap data sets, indexed by $k = 1, ..., N$. For each one we would have a bootstrap OLS estimator, $\hat{\beta}_{(k)}$. We have N bootstrap replicates, indexed by k:

$$\hat{\beta}_{(1)}, ..., \hat{\beta}_{(k)}, ..., \hat{\beta}_{(N)} .$$

The empirical covariance matrix is

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left[\hat{\beta}_{(k)} - \hat{\beta}_{ave} \right] \left[\hat{\beta}_{(k)} - \hat{\beta}_{ave} \right]' \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{\beta}_{ave} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \hat{\beta}_{(k)} .$$

This is something you can work out. By way of comparison, the theoretical covariance matrix depends on the unknown σ^2 :

$$E \left\{ \left[\hat{\beta} - E(\hat{\beta}) \right] \left[\hat{\beta} - E(\hat{\beta}) \right]' \right\} = \sigma^2 (X'X)^{-1} .$$

There's no bias : $E(\hat{\beta}) = \beta$. $\hat{\beta}$ is the estimated of β in the real data , and is what we told the computer to take as the true parameter vector. And the $\hat{\beta}_{ave}$ is the average of N bootstrap replicates $\hat{\beta}_{(k)}$, which is a good approximation to $E\left[\hat{\beta}_{(k)} \right]$.

On the computer, we imitated the sampling model for the data. By assumption, real data came from a regression model with fixed X and IID errors having mean 0. That is what we had to simulate on the computer: otherwise, the bootstrap would have been doing the wrong thing.

We've been talking about distribution of $\hat{\beta}^* - \hat{\beta}$. This is conditional on the data $Y_1, ..., Y_n$. After conditioning, we can treat the residuals which were computed from $Y_1, ..., Y_n$ as data rather than random variables. Randomness in the bootstrap comes from resampling the residuals. Again the catch is this. We'd like to be drawing from the real distribution of the ε_i 's. Instead, we're drawing from the empirical distribution of the ε_i 's. If n is reasonably large, this is a good approximation.

Autoregression. There are parameters β_0, β_1. These are unknown. For $i = 1, 2, ..., n$, we have

$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{i-1} + \varepsilon_i$. Here, Y_0 is a fixed number. The ε_i are IID with mean 0 and variance σ^2, unknown. The equation has a lag term Y_{t-1}: this is the Y for the previous i. We are going to estimate β_0 and β_1 by OLS, so let's put into the format of a regression problem $Y = Y\beta + \varepsilon$

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ Y_2 \\ \vdots \\ Y_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & Y_0 \\ 1 & Y_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & Y_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \varepsilon = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

The i th row in the matrix equation $Y = Y\beta + \varepsilon$ gives us $Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y_{i-1} + \varepsilon_i$ which is where we started. The OLS estimator is $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1} X'Y$. We write $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ for the two components of $\hat{\beta}$.

There is a correlation between X and ε. Look at the second column of X. It's full of ε's tucked away inside the Y's. maybe we shouldn't use $\hat{\sigma}^2 = (X'X)^{-1}$? And what about bias? Although the standard theory doesn't apply, the bootstrap works fine. We can use the bootstrap to estimate variance and bias in this non standard situation where explanatory variables are correlated with errors.

The bootstrap can be done following the pattern set by the previous regression model, even though the design matrix is random. We can fit the model, getting $\hat{\beta}$ and residuals $e = Y - X\hat{\beta}$. We freeze the Y_0 as well as $\hat{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\beta}_0 \\ \hat{\beta}_1 \end{pmatrix}$

and ℓ's to get bootstrap disturbance terms $\varepsilon_1^*, \ldots, \varepsilon_n^*$.

The new point is that we have to generate the Y_i^*'s one at a time, using $\hat{\beta}_0, \hat{\beta}_1$ and the ε_i^*'s:

$$Y_1^* = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 Y_0 + \varepsilon_1^*,$$

$$Y_2^* = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 Y_1^* + \varepsilon_2^*$$

$$\vdots$$

$$Y_n^* = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 Y_{n-1}^* + \varepsilon_n^*$$

The first line is OK because Y_0 is a constant. The second line is OK because when we need Y_1^*, we have it from the line before. And so forth. So we have a bootstrap data set:

$$Y^* = \begin{pmatrix} Y_1^* \\ Y_2^* \\ \vdots \\ Y_n^* \end{pmatrix}, \quad X^* = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & Y_0 \\ 1 & Y_1^* \\ \vdots & \\ 1 & Y_{n-1}^* \end{pmatrix}, \quad \varepsilon^* = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1^* \\ \varepsilon_2^* \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n^* \end{pmatrix}$$

Than we compute the bootstrap estimator, $\hat{\beta}^* = \left(X^{*'} X^* \right)^{-1} X^{*'} Y^*$. Notice that we had to regenerate the design matrix because of the second column. (That is why X^* deserves its $*$). The computer can repeat this procedure many times, to get N bootstrap replicates. The same residuals ℓ are used throughout. So ε^* changes from one replicate to another. So do X^*, Y^*, and $\hat{\beta}^*$.

Bootstrap principle for autoregression. With a reasonably large n, the distribution of $\hat{\beta}^* - \hat{\beta}$ is a good approximation of the distribution of $\hat{\beta} - \beta$. In particular, SD of $\hat{\beta}_1^*$ is a good approximation to the standard error of $\hat{\beta}_1$. The average of $\hat{\beta}_1^* - \hat{\beta}_1$ is a good approximation to the bias in $\hat{\beta}_1$.

A regression linear model of number of population over time is:

P= 2978916 – 15770* t. which is found with the ordinary least squares method OLS.

P- population number in t time. Coding the years $t \in \{-6,-5,-4,-3,-2,-1,0,1,2,3,4,5,6\}$ which corresponds to the years 2001, 2002, ..., 2013. We can prove this regression through interpolation. For example, the 2001 corresponds the t=-6, then P_{2001} = 2978916 – 15770* (-6)=3073536.

We can forecast the number of population in Albania with the extrapolation.

$$P_{2014} = 2978916 - 15770 * 7 = 2868526$$

Conclusions

Demographic projections are important for the social, economic and cultural field of a country. We have come to the conclusion that Albanian population has entered in a decreasing period which may affect the economic, social parameters and not only. The main factor of this decreasing trend for Albanian population number is emigration. The decreasing births number can lead to the increasing average age of a country. The difference between males and females number is great and is increasing which can cause social problems. The purpose of introducing the bootstrap method for linear regression is to apply the bootstrap to more general regression models that have no mathematical solutions: where the regression function is non-linear in the parameters β , and where we use fitting methods other than least- squares.

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Social Protection for Orphaned and Vulnerable Children in Kenya: Initiatives, Opportunities and Challenges

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Abstract

HIV/AIDS, conflicts and other crises have swelled the number of OVC's in sub - Saharan Africa, thereby threatening the realization of the Millennium Development Goals in the areas of Education, Health, Nutrition, and Poverty reduction. In Kenya, Social Protection is explicitly prioritized in Vision 2030, the newly promulgated Constitution of Kenya 2010 and in the National Affirmative Action Policies. Between 2005 and 2010, expenditure on Social Protection rose from Ksh. 33.4 billion to Ksh57.1 billion, which is equivalent to 2.28 per cent GDP.The above notwithstanding, discourse analysis involving a critical review of existing literature indicates that Poverty and vulnerability remain high in the country. Hence, clearly, there exists knowledge gaps on the response to the OVC situation, and in Particular, the impact of the various Policies and strategies aimed at interventions for the welfare of OVC's in the country. This paper attempts to synthesize current knowledge on the models and practice of policies targeting OVC's in Kenya with a view to bringing out discontinuities in order to inform future initiatives, especially those emerging from the framework of the newly promulgated constitution. Data was obtained mainly from secondary sources including: Sessional Papers, National Development Plans and Statistical abstracts. It is recommended that: Development of a Management Information System to capture information about OVC's, Strengthening Community Based support systems, Mainstreaming social protection in the programmes of all Government Ministries as opposed to the current six, Providing training and facilitation alongside the financial means to care – givers in vulnerable families, Prioritizing provision of Psycho –social support in addition to the material support currently offered, and reflecting OVC as a priority special needs in all sectoral policy planning and strategy process will go a long way in guarding against the escalating crisis of the vulnerable children which threatens to tear at the very fabric of childhood.

Key Words: Childhood, Vulnerable Children, Social Protection, Social Policy, Social Action, Vision 2030

Introduction

Orphan hood and Vulnerability pose numerous challenges to the wellbeing of children globally (World Bank, 2004; Patterson, 2005; Kumara et. al, 2011) and is recognized as an issue with Social, economic, and human rights dimensions (Biemba et. al, 2009). In sub- Saharan Africa where HIV has spread rapidly, both the percentage and the absolute number of children who are orphans are rising dramatically (Mwakalobo, 2007; Hunter, 2003). The region has the highest rates of absolute poverty in the world; hence, the probability of not attaining the Millennium Development Goals is particularly high for the continent's countries experiencing the risk. Moreover, the region has the highest rates of absolute child poverty in the world (Gordon. et. al, 2003; Barrientos et. al, 2005)

In Kenya, children under the age of 14 years constitute 42.9% of the estimated 38.9 Million People, while those aged 18 years and below stand at 16.9 Million (Kenya, Republic of, 2009; PBR, 2012).Despite the children representing a significant majority of the country's population; they are the most vulnerable group. A Rapid assessment, Analysis and Action planning process conducted Kenya in 2004 found that 1.8 Million children were orphans having lost one or both parents (Kenya, Republic of, 2004) with nearly 25% of them living in extreme poverty.

According to the National Aids Control Council (NACC) there were additional 600,000 children who were not orphans, but vulnerable, as their safety wellbeing and development are threatened (NACC, 2008).

The newly Promulgated constitution of Kenya contains a comprehensive bill of rights in which Article 43 guarantees all Kenyans economic, social and cultural rights. It asserts the "right for every person to social security and binds the State to provide appropriate social security to persons who are unable to support themselves and their dependants (Kenya, Republic of, 2010).

Childhood in Kenya is largely defined by the fact that over 50% of Kenyans live in absolute poverty, which means that many children live below the poverty line. The Plight of the children is at stake, with the number of vulnerable children expected to rise dramatically in the coming decades. The drivers to the vulnerability have been attributed to among others HIV/AIDS pandemic and the rising poverty levels.

Factors associated with child vulnerability in Kenya

As already pointed out, HIV/AIDS accounts for the major humanitarian crisis for families in the African Continent. Despite the two decades of its control and prevention on the African continent, its spread continues unabated (O'Manique, 2004).Over and above the colossal personal suffering, the dire Social and economic consequences for fragile Nation states such as Kenya are unbearable, not only in health but also in Education, Industry, Agriculture, Human Resources and Social welfare provision in general (Poku et.al, 2007).

The Kenya AIDS indicator Survey (2007) estimates the average HIV prevalence among the general population aged 15-49 at 7.4% while the KDHS 2009 estimated the prevalence for the same population at 6.3 % (KDHS,2009). It is estimated that more than 2.4 Million children are Orphans and half of them are due to HIV/ AIDS. Besides depriving the children of their basic needs and exposing them to extreme vulnerability, AIDS increases the risk that the children will end up in the streets, where they will be sexually abused or infected with HIV/AIDS or caught up in criminal activities.

Secondly, the magnitude and expansion of poverty in Africa and the grave threat that it poses to social, political, and economic stability make it one of the greatest challenges facing the region (Kankwenda et al, 2000). According to Ainsworth (2002), there is a well-established link between poverty and Vulnerability. While situations vary from country to country, the poverty situation is influenced by a wide range of factors, including; Poor people's lack of access to income earnings and productive activities and essential social services (Health, Education, Safe water, and clean environment).Their low level of participation in political processes and their lack of influence on the political life of their countries and the indirect consequences of external economic and financial actors over which African countries have no control. Furthermore, even where governments have drawn up general policy guidelines on poverty reduction, problems and lack of progress persists. Poverty remains high in Kenya despite the government's efforts to address it over the last four decades.

In Kenya, as elsewhere in Africa, poor people have little if any say in government decisions that affect them or in choice of services designed for them and poverty reduction policies continue to be Top-down. Compared to other regions of the world, Africa has the highest incidence of children at risk of poverty, disease, malnutrition, mortality and orphan hood (Kempe, 2008). Poverty is the primary cause of child vulnerability. It results to inadequate access to basic goods and services (Hope, 2004)

The poverty has tended to impact more on those who cannot generate an income or access livelihoods independently, such as orphans and vulnerable children, child headed households, older persons and people with severe disabilities. The Kenya Government has committed itself to the attainment of Millennium Development Goals, beginning with the implementation of the Economic Recovery Strategy for employment and wealth creation ERS, 2003- 2008 and presently - The Vision 2030, being implemented through five year medium - term plans, with the first one covering the period 2008-2012.More specifically, there is proposal to establish a social protection policy on the most vulnerable members of the society.

The OVC Policy initiatives in Kenya

Kenya has a long history of investing in social protection and was one of the first countries in the region to develop a National plan of action to address the needs of children without parental care (IATTCHAWGNPLA, 2008). However, prior to 2003, when the NARC Government took over the country's leadership, the main form of safety net support offered to the poor and the vulnerable populations was in form of humanitarian relief in response to crises.

In the 1990's, when it was realized that the Structural Adjustment Programmes were increasing the vulnerability of certain groups, social safety nets intended to provide targeted income support and access to basic social services to the poorest population groups were introduced.

As a consequence of the ratification of the convention of the rights of the child (CRC), the Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women and other international conventions relating to women and children, the Kenya government embarked on extensive reforms relating to women and children. Soon after the ratification of the CRC, the Attorney- General directed the Kenya Law Reform Commission (KLRC) to hasten the review of laws pertaining to children, a process which had begun in 1984 when KLRC was established. The Commission established a multi-disciplinary task force which commenced its work in 1991, preparing a draft children's bill – 1993.

The enactment of the children's Act, an initiative that sought to consolidate primary laws dealing with children, makes extensive provisions on the right of the child as enshrined in the international instruments, including protection against Physical, sexual and Psychological Violence. The Act establishes statutory structures to facilitate the administration of and safeguard the rights of children, including the creation of the National Council for Children Services (NCCS), a body

cooperate whose general mandate is to exercise general supervision and control over Planning, financing and coordination of child rights and welfare activities.

As already pointed out, Kenya was one of the first countries in Sub - Saharan Africa to carry out a RAAAR in order to quantify the OVC situation, which eventually led to the development of the National Plan of Action for OVC's 2007-2010. Published in 2009, the NPA includes policies and guidelines on OVC intervention in the country. The first priority area in the strategy is strengthening the capacity of families to care for OVC at the household level (Kenya, Republic of, 2009). In an attempt to provide systematic support for OVC by strengthening the households to take care of OVC, the Kenyan Cash Transfer (CT-OVC) was inaugurated in 2005.

 Initially, the Program roll - out began at three pilot districts in 2004 with 500 households and expanded to 37 districts by June 2008 covering 25,000 beneficiary households and by end 2011, it had evolved to become the largest social protection program in Kenya covering 125,000 households inhabited by 350,OOO OVC's .

The impact of Social Protection Programmes on OVCs in Kenya

Numerous studies carried out to examine the effects of the CT- OVC programmes in Kenya show that the programme has had far reaching impacts on household welfare. For instance, there has been a significant increase in household consumption, reduction of on-farm child labour and significant positive impact on enrolment of children in secondary schools (Bryant, 2009; Davis et. al, 2012,).At primary school level (with primary enrolment as programme indicator), although no much sensitivity has shown (The insensitivity is attributed to another programme i.e. FPE which had already made this free at the point of entry), enrolment has increased for small households. Truancy is also seen to be declining and beneficiaries report primary school children being send home for school fees is less. In terms of other aspects of Human Capital Development- a major goal of the CT-OVC programme - Improvements in health and retention of OVCs within the households and communities and childcare behavior change have been attained. Additionally, there has been inclusion of community voice in targeting, with local OVC Committees comprising community leaders, among others overseeing community validation of targeting of targeting lists hence increasing transparency and reducing suspicion of bias or corruption in selection of beneficiaries(Jackson et al,2011).

Lastly, there is evidence to indicate that the poverty targeted cash transfer programme in Kenya has helped reduce HIV risk among Orphans and Vulnerable Children (Handa et. al, 2012)

Policy Implementation Gaps and Challenges

Kenya has clearly made strides to ensure, at policy level, a coherent framework for social protection. Furthermore, the numerous Sector review exercises clearly demonstrate the political will and the government's commitment to expanding both qualitatively and quantitatively the childrens' access to social protection as outlined in the Country's Bill of Rights (Kenya, Republic of,2010).The Development of a National Social Protection Policy (NSPP) which was recently ratified by the cabinet, with the aim of progressively expanding coverage of social security in line with the Government's constitutional commitment is a clear attestation to this fact . The above notwithstanding, there clearly exists glaring policy and implementation gaps as shown in the preceding discussion;

a)   Limited Emphasis on Psycho - social Support in National policy and implementation

Orphan hood, including its prelude and consequences affects the Psycho- social development and wellbeing of children (UNAIDS 2004).

A study in Uganda's Rakai District to determine the nature and emotional problems of orphaned children found out that majority felt angered about their parents' death, especially those living with relatives (Sengendo.et.al, 1997) and that many of them were showing signs of stress and trauma. Orphans may experience additional trauma from lack of nurturance, guidance and a sense of attachment, which may impede their socialization process- through damaged self-confidence and motivation. When a parent dies from AIDS, Trauma is often accompanied by stigma and discrimination. At school, AIDS orphans may be singled out or rejected by their peers, which can create barriers to healthcare, education and access to social events (Subbarao et .al, 2004).

In Zimbabwe, a study conducted to determine children's needs found out that the OVCs were worried most of the fact that they were growing up without parents (24%), while 6%, 19%, 5%, and 21% mentioned ill health, Poverty, shelter and not completing school respectively as their greatest concerns (UNICEF, 2005).Similarly in India, studies indicated that the material poverty was not the barrier most frequently cited by the affected children and their caregivers

In Kenya, though, there has been most notably the steady expansion of social cash transfer programs both in terms of geographic areas and in the number of households covered; a significant gap exists in the CT-OVC's efforts to prioritise the child's mental Health and psychological wellbeing.

(b) Participation of OVC's

Until the late 1990's Child welfare agencies treated children largely as immature, passive and vulnerable beings in need of protection and services. Adults were assumed to know what is best for children and consulting children considered a waste of time (O'Kaine et al, 2005).This view has been challenged by UNCRC and children are now regarded as active participants in society whose views should be sought and involved in decisions affecting them (Prout et. Al, 1997)

In a study in Andra Pradesh to find out barriers to OVC children's wellbeing, it emerged that the children had very little say in decisions affecting their lives and that no advice was given to them nor were their opinions sought(UNICEF,2007). In Nepal, child involvement via child clubs has enhanced self-esteem, self-confidence and awareness on a whole range of issues including child protection. The children sit and participate in local policy development and allocation of resources (Government of Nepal, 2006).

In Kenya, although the child protection system structure has been decentralized to location level , representation at the Location Area Advisory Council does not provide fair representation to the OVC's.Out of a membership of 10, only 2 slots are allocated for the children(20%).In its goals and strategies for the first medium term plan ending in 2012,the Vision 2030 Policy document has indicated the "ensuring of adequate representation of Vulnerable groups in decision making as one of its strategies to reduce Vulnerabilities"(Kenya, Republic of , 2007)

(c) Care givers

In Kenya**,** Most of the Orphans have been absorbed into the extended family networks, many of these extended family care givers are aging and often impoverished grandparents .Savings for old age in Kenya is relatively low at about 18 percent compared to over 45 per cent for comparable countries (Kenya, Republic of, 2007) .The old age of many primary care givers has major implications for the future support and livelihoods. In a study investigating the experiences of family caregivers in South Africa, the respondents expressed difficulty in coping with teenage rebellion and that family care givers experience lack of welfare and family support in their care of HIV/AIDS orphans (Adetto et.al, 2005). Mechanisms for providing care and support to OVCs and their care givers by improving incomes and productivity and establishing sustainable food security systems at the household level helps to strengthen the capacity of the household's in the care for OVCs.The gradual collapse of the extended family and the compounded impact of poverty and the high HIV/AIDS prevalence rates, has already aggravated the already precarious situation of the OVC.Consequently, household food insecurity is increasingly becoming a critical problem among the most vulnerable households caring for OVC.There is therefore need to facilitate individual OVC and households with OVC to organize themselves into cooperative groups for undertaking economic activities in their communities and provide micro finance facilities.

Evidence from the CT-OVC Programme demonstrates the vital role played by caregivers (the majority of whom are women). Despite legal guarantees of ownership rights, Kenyan women continue to have unequal access to productive assets due to patriarchal customs, hindering the potential for asset accumulation, which could help build resilience in the provision for OVCs in Kenya.

Recommendations for policy

Generally, Child vulnerability presents a significant and pressing development challenge in Kenya but existing evidence suggests that social protection initiatives for vulnerable children have had a mixed impact at best and that there is significant potential for programme implementation modifications if genuine transformation in children's lives is to be achieved. In particular, the following key areas need to be prioritized;

1) Promoting greater focus on women's and caregivers wellbeing. Including complementary programmes to help address other sources of vulnerability such as skills training for income generation, access to gender based violence prevention and redress services and support in forming savings and credit associations. In addition it is imperative to strengthen community based support systems by building on existing community structures such as women and church groups.

2) Prioritize provision of psycho- social support as the greater need for OVC is psychological wellbeing and mental health of the affected OVC's.A significant gap in the CT- OVC programme is the absence of efforts to train households and strengthen families.

Pervasive anxiety, sadness, fear and hopelessness among children and adolescents during their parents' AIDS related illness and death, and subsequently in orphan hood. Currently, the greater focus is on material needs at the expense of the psychological needs of children.

3) There is urgent need to reflect OVC as a priority special needs group in all sectoral policy, planning and strategy process, just as children with disability are catered for in such processes

4) Kenya's Social protection programmes are heavily dependent on international donors. Despite the greater policy commitment by the government over the last decade, the bilateral multilateral agencies are responsible for contributing 88% of all funding (Aston et al, 2012).There is need to institutionalize the programmes within the national philosophy, policy and the budgetary system

5) Design a clear exit strategy especially for OVC's to reduce over- dependency and burden of the programmes.

6) Mainstream Social Protection in all relevant government Ministries and departments. Currently only Agriculture, Education, Lands, Health, Special programmes and Gender are actively involved.

7) Design and implement an effective Management information System not only for Capturing OVC data at all levels but also for continuous Monitoring and evaluation.

Conclusion

The foregoing review points to the fact that there are a myriad of opportunities which the country needs to capitalize on in its quest to further develop its social protection policies and programmes for OVC's. To begin with, the country can tap the existing enabling policies so far formulated to improve the welfare of its children, notably the current Master Development Blue print – Vision 2030. Similarly, there is evidence of renewed considerable interest by many bilateral and multi- lateral development partners whose contribution will go a long way in enabling the country achieve its targets aimed at achievement of Vision 2030, the ratified and locally domesticated international instruments and the Millennium Development Goals.

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DIFFERENCES IN THE RELATION BETWEEN OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR DUE TO COLLAR

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Abstract

In today's increasingly competitive, developing technology, new management techniques, factors such as businesses turns into a complex structure and, therefore, some problems arise between employees and the organization. Staff work alienated, yields are falling and jobs come from sabotaging dimensions. The main condition to obtain good results is to ensure the integration of employees' affairs and organizations. At this point, however, positive or negative, non-verbal or written contract type that is serious effects occur: Psychological Contract. People and the organization in which the business relationship between the parties which are not expressed verbally to each other to give or receive from each other in a psychological type of agreement has emerged expect. In summary, if the employee has signed an employment contract to begin work to be useful beyond the psychological contract difficult upgrade create his organization, to participate in the awareness improving, motivation becomes low, organizational commitment, job satisfaction is considered to be of vital importance to organizations today, as developed organizational citizenship behavior will occur exactly. This is to avoid negativity, such as the concept of the psychological contract consciously addressed and needs to be examined. The aim of this study implies that the psychological contract is to investigate the effect of organizational citizenship behavior. Working primarily tried to explain the concept of psychological contract and organizational citizenship behavior and medium-sized business covering the white and blue collar workers in terms of organizational citizenship behavior survey, based on the psychological contract has included a study comparing the differences between collars.

Keywords: Psychological Contract, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, White Collar and Blue Collar Workers

PSİKOLOJİK SÖZLEŞME VE ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK İLİŞKİSİNDE YAKASAL FARKLILIKLAR

ÖZET

Günümüzün artan rekabet, gelişen teknoloji, yeni yönetim teknikleri gibi faktörlerle işletmeler karmaşık bir yapıya bürünmekte ve dolayısıyla da çalışanlar ile örgüt arasında bazı problemler ortaya çıkmaktadır. Çalışanlar işlerine yabancılaşmakta, verimleri düşmekte ve işlerini sabote edecek boyutlara gelmektedirler. Başarılı sonuçlar elde etmenin temel koşulu çalışanların işleriyle ve örgütleriyle bütünleşmesinin sağlanmasıdır. İşte bu noktada sözlü veya yazılı olmayan ancak olumlu ya da olumsuz ciddi etkileri olan bir sözleşme türü ortaya çıkmaktadır: Psikolojik Sözleşme. Kişi ve içinde bulunduğu örgüt arasında sözle ifade edilmeyen ancak tarafların iş ilişkisi içinde birbirlerinden almayı veya birbirlerine vermeyi bekledikleri psikolojik bir anlaşma türü ortaya çıkmıştır.

Özetle, eğer çalışan işe başlarken imzaladığı iş sözleşmesinin ötesinde psikolojik sözleşmesini oluşturmazsa örgüte yararlı olması zorlaşmakta, görev alma bilinci gelişmemekte, motivasyonu düşük olmakta, örgütsel bağlılığı, iş tatmini gelişmediği gibi günümüzde örgütler için hayati öneme sahip olduğu düşünülen örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı da tam olarak oluşmayacaktır. Bu gibi olumsuzluklarla karşılaşmamak için psikolojik sözleşme kavramının bilinçli olarak ele alınması ve irdelenmesi gerekmektedir (Mimaroğlu, 2008:03).

Bu çalışmada, beklentiler üzerine kurulan psikolojik sözleşme ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ilişkisinde beyaz ve mavi yakalı işgörenler arasındaki yakasal farklılıkların ölçülmesi amaçlanmıştır. Psikolojik sözleşme ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ölçekleri kullanılarak geliştirilen anketler yardımıyla elde edilen veriler, SPSS programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Psikolojik sözleşme, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık, Beyaz ve Mavi Yakalı İşgörenler

GİRİŞ

Yoğun rekabet şartlarında var olmak isteyen işletmeler hem yönetim sistemlerini şartlara uygun esnek bir yapıya adapte etmeli hem de bilgi ve insan unsurunun önemli bir rekabet avantajı sağladığını kabullenerek çalışanlarını memnun etmelidir. Çalışanlardan en yüksek verimi almak ve onları örgüt amaçları doğrultusunda yönlendirmek isteyen günümüz işletmelerinin örgütsel bağlılığı arttırmaya yönelik faaliyetlere önem vermeleri gerekmektedir. Örgüte bağlı olan çalışan, örgütün üyesi olmaktan gurur ve mutluluk duymakta, örgüt amaç ve değerlerini benimsemekte ve örgüt yararı için çaba

göstermektedir. Çalışanlar gösterdikleri çabanın karşılığını alamaz ve bireysel amaçlarını gerçekleştiremezlerse verimleri düşecek ve örgütte kalmak istemeyeceklerdir. Bu yüzden örgütün de bu olumsuzluğu ortadan kaldıracak faaliyetlerde bulunması gerekecektir.

İnsan Kaynakları Yönetiminden yetenek yönetimine doğru bir geçişin yaşandığı günümüzde yetkin çalışanların örgütte tutmak zorlaşmaktadır. Bu sebeple örgütsel tutundurmanın güçlendirilmesi gereği ve psikolojik sözleşmenin bu konuda örgüte büyük fayda sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir (Demiral ve Doğan, 2009, 48).

Psikolojik sözleşme, örgüt ile çalışanların karşılıklı olarak birbirlerinden ne bekledikleri ve başarılarının veya başarısızlıklarının sonuçlarını ortaya koyan, açıkça dile getirilmemiş bir anlaşmadır. Tarafların birbirlerine karşı yükümlülüğünü yerine getirmemesi ilişkiyi bozmakta ve karşılıklı yükümlülüklere yönelik inançları azaltmaktadır. Genellikle örgüt tarafından ihlal edilen psikolojik sözleşme, verimsizlik, gizli işsizlik, saldırganlık gibi davranışlara yol açarken, çalışan tarafından yapılan ihlal ise işverenin çalışana yönelik olumlu düşüncelerinin değişmesine sebep olmaktadır (Cihangiroğlu ve Şahin 2010: 2).

PSİKOLOJİK SÖZLEŞMENİN KAPSAMI VE TANIMI

Örgütsel davranış literatüründe psikolojik sözleşme kavramı ilk defa Argyris'in 1960 yılında yayınlamış olduğu "Örgütsel Davranışın Anlaşılması" adlı kitabında yer almıştır. Argyris kitabında örgütleri yaşayan ve karmaşık yapılar olarak nitelendirmiş, örgütlerin ve bireylerin birbirleriyle sürekli etkileşim halinde oldukları ve yöneticilerin etkinliğini çalışanlarıyla geliştirecekleri psikolojik sözleşmenin varlığına bağlamıştır. Ancak Argyris psikolojik sözleşmeyi örgüt içinde yaşanan çatışmalar, işe devamsızlık, iş tatminsizliği gibi olumsuz durumların ortadan kaldırılmasına yardımcı olan bir kavram olarak ortaya koymuştur. Levinson ise Argyris'in çalışmalarının tersine psikolojik sözleşmenin sadece olumsuz koşullarda kullanılmayacağını belirtmiş ve psikolojik sözleşmeyi örgüt içinde yöneticiler ile çalışanlar arasında karşılıklı beklentilerin yerine getirilmesi olarak tanımlamıştır.

1990'lı yıllara gelindiğinde ise Lucero, Alllen, Scmedemann, Robbinson, Rousseau ve Morrison gibi araştırmacılar psikolojik sözleşmeye ilişkin ortaya atılmış görüşlerden, bu kavramı farklı ve değerli kılan iki özellik ortaya koymuşlardır (Demiral ve Doğan, 2009: 54-55).

- Psikolojik sözleşme, çalışanların kendi istihdam ilişkilerindeki yükümlülüklerine ilişkin inançlarıdır.
- Psikolojik sözleşme, algılanan taahhütlere dayanmaktadır. Taahhüt ise, gelecekteki amaçlara yönelik iletişim biçimi olarak tanımlanmaktadır.

Tüm bu bilim adamlarına göre psikolojik sözleşme genel olarak; konuşulmayan sözler, işverenin ne vereceği ve karşılığında çalışanın ne vereceğine dair iş sözleşmelerinde yazılı olarak ifade edilmemiş konuların bütünüdür. Bu sözleşmenin konuşulmamasının nedenleri arasında, her iki tarafında beklentileri hakkında birbirlerine açık olmamaları veya gerçekten bilgi sahibi olmamaları, bazı beklentilerin doğal olarak görünmesi, bu yüzden karşı tarafa söylenmesine gerek duyulmaması, bazı beklentilerin konuşulmasının hoş karşılanmaması, her iki tarafın beklentilerini açıkça ifade etmesinin karşı tarafta hayal kırıklığı yaratacağı endişesi sayılabilir.

Psikolojik sözleşmenin bir ayağını, işverenin çalışandan; bağlılık, dürüstlük, iş kurallarına uyma, nitelikli iş yapma gibi beklentileri oluştururken, diğer ayağını; çalışanın işinde nasıl değerlendirildiği ve kendisine, bilgisini, yeteneklerini ve sorumluluklarını geliştirme olanakları verilip verilmediği, iyi ilişkilerinin oluşturulması ile ilgili psikolojik beklentileri oluşturmaktadır (Cihangiroğlu ve Şahin 2010: 2).

PSİKOLOJİK SÖZLEŞMENİN OLUŞUMU

Psikolojik sözleşmede taraflar birbirine gereksinim duyacaklarını umarlar ve teknik olarak birbirlerine bağımlıdırlar. Morrison bu bağlılığı şu şekilde ifade eder: birbirine bağımlı olmak, ilişkide bir bağımlılığı yönetmenin bir yoludur, kim kime gereksinim duyar? sorusunu yanıtlar. Rousseau (1995) çalışanların, psikolojik sözleşmenin koşullarını üç esas yolla belirlediklerini ileri sürmüştür. Öncelikle bireyler işe başvurma sürecinde, iletişimde olduğu diğer kişilerden örgütle ilgili ikna edici bilgiler alabilirler. İşe alım sürecine geçildiğinde, adaylar görüşmecilerden açık veya örtülü sözler alabilirler. İşe alındıktan sonra ise çalışma arkadaşları veya üstleri, çalışan ve işveren arasında var olan yükümlülüklere dair kendi bakış açılarını yansıtarak bireyin kendi psikolojik sözleşmesinin belirlenmesinde rol oynayabilir.

İkinci olarak, çalışanların, çalışma arkadaşlarının ve üstlerinin nasıl davrandığını ve örgüt tarafından nasıl bir muamele gördüklerini gözlemlemeleri, çalışanların kendi sözleşme yükümlülükleri konusunda sosyal ipuçları verir. Üçüncü olarak da örgüt, çalışanların psikolojik sözleşmelerinin yaratılmasında önemli rol oynayan resmi ücret, ek olanaklar, performans değerlendirmeleri ve örgütün misyonunu içeren örgütsel literatür ile, çalışanlara psikolojik sözleşme oluşturma

yolunda yapısal sinyaller sunar. Çalışan bu süreçte anılan çeşitli yollardan topladığı bilgilerden yola çıkarak kendi psikolojik sözleşmesini oluşturmaya başlar. Psikolojik sözleşmeler, resmi politika ve sözleşmelerden daha gerçekçidir.

Özetle, çalışanların işverenlerine ve işverenlerin de çalışanlarına ne borçlu oldukları konusundaki karşılıklı algılamalarını ifade eden bir kavram olarak kullanılan psikolojik sözleşmeyi anlamanın temelinin iş sözleşmelerine dayandığını söylemek mümkündür. İmzalanan iş sözleşmelerinde var olan boşluklar ve belirsizlikler psikolojik sözleşmelerin oluşmasına zemin hazırlamıştır. İş sözleşmelerinde yer alan boşluklar çalışanların zamanla oluşturdukları algılarla birleştiğinde iş sözleşmelerinde belirtilmeyen eksik maddelerin psikolojik sözleşmelerle doldurulmasına neden olmaktadır (Mimaroglu, 2008: 48-49). Psikolojik sözleşmenin doğal yapısı Tablo 1' de gösterilmiştir.

Tablo 1: Psikolojik Sözleşme

Birey Tarafından Yapılan Katkılar		Örgüt Tarafından Verilen Teşvikler
- Çaba - Yetenek - Bağlılık - Beceri - Zaman - Yeterlik	→ ←	- Ücret - İş Güvencesi - Ödüller - Kariyer Fırsatları - Statü - Terfi Fırsatları

Kaynak: (Mimaroglu, 2008: 48)

Buna göre; kişi, çalıştığı örgütün ihtiyaç ve gerekliliklerini karşılamak için çaba, yetenek, beceri, zaman, bağlılık gibi birçok farklı katkı sağlamaktadır. Bu katkıların karşılığında ise örgüt kişiye bir takım teşvikler sunar. Bu teşviklerden bazıları maddi olan ücret, kariyer fırsatları, bazıları da maddi olmayan iş güvencesi, statü gibi teşviklerdir. Şekilde de oklarla gösterildiği üzere kişi tarafından sunulan bu katkıların örgütün ihtiyaçlarını karşılaması, örgüt tarafından sunulan teşviklerin de kişinin ihtiyaçlarını karşılaması gerekmektedir. Bunun nedeni kişinin örgütün bir üyesi olmayı kabul ettiği zaman cazip ücret alacağına ve gelişim fırsatları bulacağına ilişkin beklentileridir. Eğer hem kişi hem de örgüt psikolojik sözleşmenin adil ve eşit olduğunu algılıyorlarsa karşılıklı ilişkilerinden tatmin olacak ve bu ilişkiyi sürdürme konusunda istekli davranacaklardır Diğer taraftan, taraflardan birinin eşitsizlik algılaması sonucunda bu durum değişime yol açacaktır. Örneğin kişi, ücret artışı ya da terfi beklentisine girdiğinde, örgüte sağladığı katkıyı azaltabilir ya da yeni iş fırsatları arayışına girebilir. Örgütte yaşanabilecek değişim ise, eğitim yoluyla kişinin becerilerinin artırılması, kişinin transferi ya da iş anlaşmasının feshi olabilir (Mimaroglu, 2008:49).

PSİKOLOJİK SÖZLEŞMENİN İHLALİ ve SONUÇLARI

Psikolojik sözleşme ihlali, kişilerin psikolojik sözleşmelerindeki bir ya da birden fazla yükümlülüğün örgüt tarafından yerine getirilmemesi olarak tanımlanır. Çalışan ile yönetim arasında oluşan psikolojik sözleşme bazı etkilerden dolayı bozulmaya oldukça uygundur. Bu bozulma taraflar arasında "ihlal" olarak algılanmakta ve çeşitli sonuçları beraberinde getirmektedir (İşçi, 2010: 24).

Algılanan ihlal, kişinin verilen söze karşılık aldıklarının bilişsel olarak hesaplanması sonucu ortaya çıkar. Burada önemli olan nokta bilişsel algılardaki farklılıklar nedeniyle kişilerin psikolojik sözleşme ihlali algılarının bazen gerçek bir ihlalden bazen de gerçek bir ihlalin çok net görülmediği durumlardan kaynaklanmasıdır.

Sözleşme ihlali, çalışanın örgüte olan güvenini azaltır bu da çalışanların örgüte sağladıkları katkıyı azaltmalarına neden olur. Başka bir ifadeyle, eğer verilen sözler tutulmazsa bu durum çalışanda güvenin yitirilmesine neden olur ve çalışanlar ilişkiye yatırım yapmayı bırakırlar. Sözleşme ihlalinin davranışlara yansıması ise çoğunlukla örgütsel vatandaşlığın azalması, performansta düşüş ve işten ayrılmalar olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır (Mimaroglu, 2008: 65-66).

ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞI

Yoğun rekabetin yaşandığı günümüz iş dünyasında, çalışanların yalnızca iş tanımlarında yer alan şekilde çalışmalarının yanında, gönüllülük içeren bazı davranışları da sergilemeleri gerekmektedir. Bu davranışlar örgütsel davranış yazınında "örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı" olarak ifade edilmektedir. Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı kavramı, toplumsal vatandaşlık kavramı düşünülerek işletme yazınına kazandırılmıştır. Kavram, ilk defa Bateman, Organ ve Smith'in 1983 yılındaki çalışmaları ile ortaya çıkmıştır. Aslında temelleri Organ'ın 1977'de geleneksel ve çok bilinen performans ölçme yöntemlerinin çalışanın performansına ilişkin tüm bileşenleri içermediği görüşü ile atılmıştır. Bu bakış açısı ile eksik

kalan performans bileşenlerinin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı kapsamında ele alınabileceği ifade edilmiştir. Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı tanım olarak, Organ (1988) tarafından, çalışana ya da kuruma yarar sağlayan bazı unsurlar ile örgütün ödüllendirme mekanizmasında yer almayan, fazladan rol davranışları olarak ifade edilmiştir. Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı kavramının anlaşılması açısından biçimsel ve fazladan rol davranışından bahsetmek gerekmektedir (İşçi, 2010).

    • Biçimsel rol davranışı, kurumda kabul edilmiş, yönetim tarafından işin yapılması için gerekli olduğu varsayılan teknik davranışları içermektedir.

    • Biçimsel rol davranışı, kurumsal sistemler, politikalar, kurallar ve örgütsel etkinlik için gerekli olan tekniklerin kullanılması olarak ta tanımlanabilir.

    • Biçimsel rol davranışı yapılması gereken, beklenen, çalışanda olması gereken davranışları ve örgütsel yapının temelini oluşturmaktadır.

    • Biçimsel rol davranışı kurumun ödül sistemi tarafından ödüllendirilmektedir.

    • Biçimsel olarak performans değerlemede ölçülmeyen, ödül sistemi ile bağlantılı olmayan ve örgütsel olarak beklenenden daha fazlasını ortaya koyan davranışlar ise fazladan rol davranışı olarak adlandırılmaktadır.

    Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı kurumun etkinliğine katkıda bulunan ve oldukça zor fark edilen davranışlara ilişkindir ve çoğunlukla sosyal temelli davranışlar ile birlikte ele alınmaktadır. Burada üzerinde durulması gereken önemli nokta örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının gönüllülük esasına dayalı olmasıdır. Dolayısıyla bu tür davranışlar, iş tanımında yer almamakta, kurumun kural ve işleyişinin gerektirmediği ve yönetici ile diğer meslektaşlar tarafından çalışandan beklenilmeyen davranışlardır.

    Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, çalışanın kurum için gereğinden çok daha fazlasını yapması, fedakâr davranmasıdır. Bu davranışların kapsamı iş ve rol tanımının dışında olmasından anlaşılır. İş sözleşmesinde yer almaz ve çalışanın yapması konusunda zorlama olamaz. Yapılan ilk çalışmalarda kavram, (Organ,1977) "gönüllü olarak yapılan işler" olarak ta ifade edilmiştir(Dan, 2008).

    Katz ve Kahn 1978'de ele aldıkları bu konuyu "fazladan rol davranışı" olarak adlandırmışlardır. Günümüzde bu kavram daha kapsamlı olarak ele alınarak örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı olarak değerlendirilmektedir. Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının en önemli işlevi, bir kurumda kurum fonksiyonlarının işlemesini kolaylaştırmasıdır. Ayrıca örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı diğer çalışanlarla işbirliği içinde olma, iyi niyet jestleri, diğerkâmlık ve buna benzer sosyal temelli davranışlar olarak ifade edilmektedir. Örgütsel davranış konusunda çalışan araştırmacıların, çalışanların kurumda ihtiyaç duyulması durumunda kendiliğinden herhangi bir zorlama olmaksızın yaptıkları sosyal temelli davranışlar üzerinde yoğun çalışmalar yaptıkları söylenebilmektedir.

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı Yaklaşımları

    Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı işlevsel, rol kimliği ve bütünleşik çerçeve olarak üç yaklaşım altında değerlendirilmektedir. Aşağıda bu yaklaşımlar ele alınmıştır (İşçi, 2010);

İşlevsel Bakış

    Aradaki ilişkinin anlaşılması için ilk yaklaşım işlevsel bakıştır. İşlevsel bakış belirli ihtiyaç ve motivasyonları tatmin için çalışanların gönüllü davranması üzerinde durmaktadır. Penner ve arkadaşları işlevsel bakışı içeren araştırmalarından örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışının üç motivini açık olarak tanımlamışlardır. Bunlardan ikisi göreceli olarak bireysel olmayan ve kurum ile ilgili motivasyonlardır. Diğeri ise çalışma arkadaşlarına yardım etme arzusudur. Yardım etme arzusu bir açından izlenim yönetiminden kaynaklanmaktadır. Belirli bazı ödüllere ulaşmak için yardımsever biri olarak algılanma arzusu izlenim yönetiminin hareket noktasıdır. Kişiyi harekete geçiren bu tür motivasyonların sosyal temellilik ve izlenim yönetimi arasında dolaşan bir ranjı vardır. Bu motivatörler farklı kişiler için farklı işlevleri, bazı durumlarda ise aynı kişi için farklı işlevleri yerine getirmektedir. Araştırmalarda diğerlerine yardım etme arzusu ve izlenim yönetimi ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasında pozitif yönde kuvvetli bir ilişki saptanmıştır.

Rol Kimliği

    Gönüllülüğü anlamaya çalışan ikinci yaklaşım rol kimliğidir. Rol kimliği gönüllülüğün ortaya çıktığı zamandaki sosyal duruma odaklanmaktadır. Bu bakışa göre bireyin kendi ile ilgili görüşü, çok sayıda sosyal rol kimliğinden oluşmaktadır. Bu kimlikler tek bir belirli rolü temsil etmeye başladığında, bu rol içselleştirilir ve bireyin asıl kimliği haline gelir. Böylece zaman içinde başkalarının bireyden beklentileri olan kimlikler bireyin kendi rol kimliği olur. Bu kimlik grubu

kişinin gelecekteki davranışlarını doğrudan etkiler. Çünkü birey bu kimliği sabit tutmak amacıyla mücadele etmektedir. Bahsedilen süreçte gönüllülük aslında bireyin ne yaptığı değildir, bireyin ne olduğudur ve nasıl algılandığıdır.

Bütünleşik Çerçeve

Penner, gönüllülük süreci için bunun iki bileşenini (işlevsel ve rol kimliği) birleştirerek tek bir bütünleşik çerçeveye dönüştürmüştür. Bu bakışa göre gönüllüğün iki öncülü vardır. Bunlar motivasyon ve başkalarının beklentileridir. Bireyin gönüllülük süresinin başındaki tecrübeleri kişiyi gönüllü bir rol kimliğine yönlendirmektedir. Bu gönüllülük tecrübesini yaşadıkça bu kimlik daha da netleşmektedir. Sonuç olarak bu kimlik gönüllüğün sürekliliğin sebebi olmaktadır.

Vatandaşlık davranışı örgütsel davranış yazınında çok farklı şekillerde tanımlanmasına karşın Organ'ın 1988'deki tanımı en fazla kabul görenidir. Organ'a göre örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı gönüllü bir birey davranışıdır. Burada gönüllüğün anlamı iş sözleşmesinde yapılması gerekenlerin, iş tanımının ya da rolün zorlayıcı gerekliliği dışında kişisel seçim olarak yapılan bir davranış olması ve ihmal edilmesi ya da yapılmadığında ceza alınmamasıdır (Paille, 2009).

Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışının Boyutları

Çalışanların vatandaşlık davranışını benimsemeleri için bunun daha önceden tanımlanmış bazı iş ve görevlerin ötesine geçmeleri gerekmektedir. Vatandaşlık davranışı Organ ve arkadaşlarının 1980'lerde yaptığı çalışmalarda diğerkâmlık ve vicdanlılık olarak iki formda ele alınmıştı. Daha sonra bunlara sportmenlik, nezaket ve yurttaşlık erdemi eklenmiştir. 1994'te Padsakoff ve Mackenzie yaptıkları çalışma sonucunda, vicdanlılığı boyutlara dâhil etmemeyi uygun bulmuşladır. Buna gerekçe olarak vicdanlılığın iş esnasında yöneticiler tarafından beklenen bir davranış olduğu, dolayısıyla gönüllü olarak değerlendirilmeyeceğini savunmuşlardır. Padsakoff ve Mackenzei vatandaşlık davranışının üç ana formunun centilmenlik, yurttaşlık erdemi ve yardımseverlik olarak tanımlamıştır. Vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde çalışan çok sayıda araştırmacı, davranış türleri için farklı terimler kullanmıştır. Buna göre örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı boyutlarını aşağıdaki şekilde özetleyebiliriz (İşçi, 2010).

Centilmenlik: Organ 1990'da centilmenliği, bir insanın kaçınılmaz olarak uygunsuz bir durumla karşılaştığında ya da işini yerine getirmesi esnasında kötü niyetli bir yaklaşımla karşılaştığında şikâyet etmemesi olarak tanımlamıştır. Centilmenlik kurum üyelerinde genel olarak kuruma karşı saygılı tutum geliştirmeyi sağlamaktadır. Hemen hemen tüm kurumda kaçınılmaz olarak zorluklar yaşanmaktadır. Centilmenlik sahibi kişi bu durumlara katlanır ve küçük meseleleri fazla büyütmeyen şekilde davranmaktadır.

Yurttaşlık erdemi: Yurttaşlık erdemi çalışanın kurumu algısı ve kuruma olan ilgisi ile ilgilidir. Çalışanın kurumun imajını, itibarını ve toplum içindeki saygınlığını arttırmasına yönelik davranışları ile tanımlanmaktadır. Aynı zamanda bir bütün olarak örgüte bağlılığı, kuruma ilgiyi, kurumun kültürüne aktif ve gönüllü olarak katılımı ifade eder. Ayrıca yönetime katılma konusundaki isteklilik, zorunlu olmayan toplantılara katılma, iş tanımında yer almayan görevleri kabul etme, kurumun önündeki fırsatları ve tehditleri gözlemleyerek yöneticiye destekte bulunmak ile kurum için en iyiyi yapmaya çalışmak gibi davranışlar bu boyut kapsamındadır.

Yardımseverlik: Nerdeyse tüm araştırmacıların üzerinde hem fikir olduğu boyut yardımseverliktir. Yardımseverlik, kurumun üyelerinin zorluklarla karşılaştığında birbirlerine yardım etme isteğini ifade etmektedir. Örneğin yeni bir çalışanın oryantasyonunda, iş arkadaşlarının özel bir cihazı kullanmasında, bilgisayar programını anlamasında ve ağır iş yükünü hafifletmede yardımcı olmaktadır. Yardımseverlik diğer vatandaşlık davranışı boyutlarına göre çok daha kapsamlı ve karmaşıktır. Bu boyut bazı kaynaklarda özgecilik olarak adlandırılmaktadır.

Nezaket: Çalışanların, diğer çalışma arkadaşları için sorun yaratabilecek konuları önceden belirleyerek, çözüm önerilerinde bulunma, yardımcı olma ya da sorunun ortaya çıkmasını engelleyici nitelikteki davranışlarını içerir.

Çevrenin korunması: Son yıllarda örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı kapsamında çevre sorunlarına karşı tutumda yer almaya başlamıştır. Kurumda bu tür davranışlar genelde gönüllülükten daha çok resmi kurallara uymak için yapılmaktadır. Bu davranışlar arasında temiz havanın şehirlerde korunması, ekosistemin bozulmasını engelleyici davranışlar vb. gelmektedir.

PSİKOLOJİK SÖZLEŞME VE ÖRGÜTSEL VATANDAŞLIK DAVRANIŞI İLİŞKİSİ

Psikolojik sözleşmeye uyulmasının ya da sözleşmenin ihlal edilmesinin, çalışan davranışları üzerindeki etkisi önemli olsa da, psikolojik sözleşmenin türü de çalışan davranışlarını etkileyecek önemli mesajlar içerebilir. Örneğin, çalışanlar, işverenlerinin geniş çerçeveli bir sözleşme (ilişkisel ve dengeli sözleşmelerde olduğu gibi) yükümlüğüne sahip olduğuna inanırlarsa vatandaşlık davranışları sergileme meyilleri artacaktır. Ancak çalışanların işverenlerinin kısa dönemli (işlemsel sözleşmede olduğu gibi) ekonomik bir değişimden yana olduğuna inandıkları durumda ise görev-dışı (extra-role)

davranışlarının kendilerine bir getirisi olacağına dair inançları daha az olacaktır. İlişkisel sözleşmeler, işlemsel sözleşmelerden daha fazla vatandaşlık davranışlarına neden olacaktır. Bu görüşten hareketle işlemsel ve ilişkisel psikolojik sözleşmelerin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları üzerindeki etkilerinin ayrı ayrı incelenmesi gerektiği değerlendirilmektedir (Öztürk, 2010).

Turnley vd. (2003) tarafından yapılan araştırma sonucunda, psikolojik sözleşmenin ilişkisel boyutunun önemi ön plana çıkarken işlemsel boyutun önemli derecede etkin olmadığı görülmüştür. Bu durum en azından bu araştırmaya katılanlar için örgütün vaatlerini yerine getirmesinin ve çalışanlarına karşı saygılı ve destekleyici olmasının, ödemeler konusunda verdiği vaatleri yerine getirmesinden daha önemli olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu sonuçların bir açıklaması da, yöneticilerin çalışanların iş arkadaşlarına yönelik vatandaşlık davranışlarından çok örgüte yönelik vatandaşlık davranışları hakkında daha fazla bilgi sahibi olmalarıdır. Psikolojik sözleşme, kişisel becerilerin örgütle bütünleşmesinde önemli bir role sahiptir. Gizli beklentilerin mevcudiyeti tarafların bu beklentilerden haberdar olmasını güçleştirmektedir. İşgören ve firma düzeylerindeki dengesiz güç ilişkisi, bir tarafın beklentilerini artırabilmekteyken diğer tarafın beklentilerinin törpülenmesine sebep olabilecektir. Firmaya sağladıkları katma değer bünyesinde değerlendirilecek işgörenlere, aynı katma değeri sağlama olanaklarının verilmemesi beraberinde örgütsel bağlılıkta kopukluğu da beraberinde getirecektir (Öztürk, 2010).

Bu yönüyle psikolojik sözleşme ve örgütsel vatandaşlık ilişkisinde yakasal farklılıkları ortaya çıkarmak için geliştirilen hipotezler;

H1: Beyaz yakalı işgörenlerin psikolojik sözleşmelerinin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde pozitif yönde etkisi vardır.

H2: Mavi yakalı işgörenlerin psikolojik sözleşmelerinin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde pozitif yönde etkisi vardır.

YÖNTEM

Genel literatür taramasında psikolojik sözleşme ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ilişkisinin sıklıkla incelendiği, ancak genel olarak araştırma evreninin sektörel temelli değerlendirildiği görülmüştür. Bu nedenle, araştırma evreni çalışmada çalışan statüsü düzeyine indirgenmiştir. Örneklem büyüklüğünün belirlenmesi aşamasında Sakarya' da hem ihracat hem de ithalat yapan ve imalat sektöründe faaliyet gösteren ve çalışan sayısı bakımından bölge ortalamanın üstünde 420 personel istihdam eden bir firma seçilmiştir.

Veri toplanması sürecinde Millward ve Hopkins (1998) tarafından geliştirilen psikolojik sözleşme ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Kullanılan örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ölçeği, Türker'in çalışanların rol tanımlamalarının örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışına etkisini incelediği çalışmasından alınmıştır. Bunun yanında ankete demografik bilgilerden (yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim, medeni durum ve firmadaki çalışma süresi) oluşan bir kısım eklenmiştir.

BULGULAR VE SONUÇ

Çalışmada öncelikle Psikolojik Sözleşme ve Örgütsel Vatandaşlık kavramları açıklanmaya çalışılmış ve orta ölçekli bir işletmeyi kapsayan beyaz ve mavi yakalı personel anketine dayalı olarak, psikolojik sözleşmenin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerindeki etkide yakasal farklılıkları kıyaslayan bir araştırmaya yer vermiştir. Oluşturulan hipotezler doğrultusunda, beyaz ve mavi yakalı işgörenlerin beklentilerine dayalı olarak şekillenen psikolojik sözleşmelerinin iş tatmini değişkeni üzerindeki etkilerinin sınanmasına çalışılmıştır. Bu doğrultuda, öncelikle psikolojik sözleşme ve örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerindeki etkilerini saptamaya yönelik olarak Pearson korelasyon analizi sonuçlarına yer verilmiş, daha sonra ise çalışanların psikolojik sözleşmelerinin ilgili örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerindeki etkilerini belirleyen doğrusal regresyon analizi sonucunda elde edilen bulgulara yer verilmiştir. Pearson korelasyon analizi sonuçlarına göre, mavi yakalı işgörenlerin psikolojik sözleşme değişkeni ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları arasında, %99 güven aralığında düşük düzeyli ve pozitif bir ilişki (r=0,293) bulunurken, beyaz yakalı işgörenlerde orta düzeyli ve pozitif bir ilişki (r=0,497) bulunmuştur.

Doğrusal regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre, psikolojik sözleşme değişkeninin mavi yakalı işgörenlerin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları değişkeni üzerinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı (p<0,05) ve pozitif (β=0,29) bir etkisi vardır. Aynı şekilde psikolojik sözleşme değişkeninin beyaz yakalı işgörenlerin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları değişkeni üzerinde de istatistiksel olarak anlamlı (p<0,05) ve pozitif (β=0,37) bir etkisi vardır. Doğrusal regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre elde edilen bulgular psikolojik sözleşmenin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışları üzerindeki etkilerinin kuramsal açıklamalarıyla örtüşmektedir. Bu nedenle, "Beyaz yakalı işgörenlerin psikolojik sözleşmelerinin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde pozitif yönde etkisi vardır" ve "Mavi yakalı işgörenlerin psikolojik sözleşmelerinin örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı üzerinde pozitif yönde etkisi vardır" şeklinde ifade edilen H1 ve H2 hipotezi kabul edilir.

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THE NATIONAL ADOPTION PROCEDURE FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF CURRENT REGULATIONS IN THE FIELD

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Abstract

One of the measures of alternative protection that can be taken with respect to a child in Romania, under Law no. 272/2004, on the protection and promotion of children's rights, is adoption. This measure can be taken for the purpose of protecting every child who is temporarily or permanently deprived of parental protection, or who cannot be allowed to their care in order to protect its interests. According to current regulations, forms under which adoption can be found are: internal adoption and international adoption. Adoption is internal if both the adopter or adoptive family and the adoptee habitually reside in Romania. In what follows we will analyze the internal adoption procedure in terms of its governing legislation: New Civil Code, Law no. 273/2004 on the legal status of adoption and the Methodological Norms for applying Law no. 273/2004 on the legal status of adoption.

Keywords: child, protection, national adoption, best interests of the child

1. Introduction

A child who, whether temporarily or permanently, is deprived of parental protection or who cannot be allowed to their care in order to protect its interests, benefits, under art. 44 para. (1) of Law no. 272/2004 on the protection and promotion of children's rights, from the right to alternative protection. This protection is conferred by:

- establishing guardianship;

- special protection measures: foster care, emergency foster care, specialized supervision; or

- adoption.

The current regulation on adoption, comprised in the New Civil Code (Baias, Chelaru, Constantinovici, Macovei, 2012), Law no. 273/2004 on the legal regime of adoption, and, in terms of procedural aspects, in the New Code of civil procedure, is the result of various legislative changes in the matter. These legal provisions are complemented (Imbrescu, 2006) by those of Law no. 272/2004 on the protection and promotion of children's rights (Bodoaşcă, 2005); and those of Government Decision no. 350/2012 for approval of the Methodological Norms of application of Law no. 273/2004.

In the terms of the Civil Code, "adoption **is the legal operation by which filiation is created between the adopter and the adoptee, while also creating kinship between the adoptee and the adopter's relatives" (art. 451**).

In legal doctrine, adoption (Stoica, 1993; Bacaci, Dumitrache, Hageanu, 2012) has been complexly defined as the legal operation by which, on the initiative and with the consent of the persons involved, having the assent of the court, civil kinship arises between the adoptee and his descendants, on the one hand, and the adopter(s) and his relatives, on the other hand, while extinguishing the natural kinship that tied the adoptee and his descendants to the adoptee's natural parents and their relatives (Florian, 2008).

The forms of adoption are: internal adoption and international adoption. Internal adoption involves meeting the condition that both the adopter or adoptive family and the adoptee have their habitual residence in Romania [art. 2 let. c) of Law no. 273/2004]. Conversely, adoption is international if the habitual residence of the adopter or adoptive family and of the child for whom adoption is desired is in different states; after the adoption is approved, the child will have the same habitual residence as the adopter [(art. 2 let. d) of Law no. 273/2004)].

Regardless of the form of adoption, the principles that must be cumulatively respected to achieve adoption, according to art. 452 of the Civil Code, are: the best interests of the child (Florian, 2007); the need to ensure the child's upbringing and education in a family environment; the continuity of the child's upbringing and education, considering its ethnic, linguistic, religious and cultural origin, and timeliness in performing any acts referring to the adoption procedure. Primordial among these, in application, are the best interests of the child (art. 263 C. civ.)[1], which concern the child's right to normal physical and moral development, social and emotional balance, and family life [art. 2 para. (2) of Law no. 272/2004].

An overview on children's right to be cared for in a family is given by the document *Socio-economic analysis for scheduling 2014-2020 European funds in social affairs and social inclusion*. With reference to the children's right to be care for in a family, Romania was found to have attained significant progress by reducing the number of children in foster care centers and the emergence of familial services. The number of children protected in residential services, public and private foster care centers, has decreased by more than half (from a maximum of 57,181 in December 2000, to 23,240 in December 2011) (Advisory Thematic Committee, 2014). Although this progress has been attained, by the end of 2011, for the first time in the last 15 years, the number of institutionalized children increased (M.M.F.P.S., D.G.P.C. 2011), as consequence of impoverished population and budget cuts for familial services.

As regards the protection measure of adoption, according to the Statistic Report of the Ministry of Labor, Family, Social Protection and Elderly Persons, in December 2012 about 63,448 children were registered in the special protection system, only 600 of which were declared adoptable. Nevertheless, not one of them was adopted by any of the 1,222 families authorized to adopt, on the same date.

2. Substantive and formal conditions required for the approval of internal adoption

The achievement of valid adoption requires the fulfillment of certain substantive and formal conditions.

The substantive conditions of adoption are regulated by the Civil Code and Law no. 273/2004 and refer to the capacity of the parties, the consent to adoption, the age difference between the adoptee and the adopter, the **moral guarantees and the material conditions of the adopter/adoptive family,** or the lack of kinship between the adoptee and the **adopter/adoptive family (**Bodoaşcă, Drăghici, Puie, Maftei, 2013**)** etc. Some of these conditions target the adopter/**adoptive family**, while others refer to the person to be adopted.

It is worth noting that adoption only applies to children who are included in the records of the general directorate for social work and child protection and for whom an individualized protection plan was prepared, aimed at adoption.

The provisions of the Law of adoption prohibit the adoption of a child whose natural parents are under 14 years old (art. 10), and for the minor parent who has reached the age of 14, they establish the obligation to express consent, assisted by their legal guardian (art. 11).

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[1] Art. 263 of the Civil Code enshrines the general character of the application of this principle, extending its scope to any measure adopted towards the child, and regardless of its author: parent or authorities with competences in the area of protection and promotion of children's rights. The penalty for failure to comply with the principle of the best interests of the child upon the achievement of adoption consists of absolute nullity.
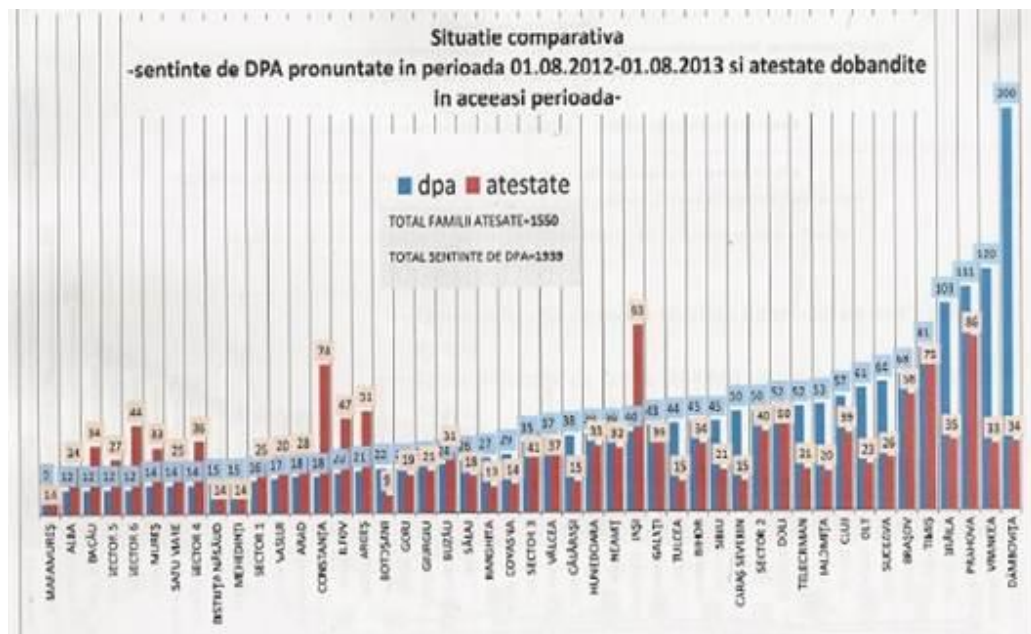
Figure 1. Comparative study between the opening sentences of the internal adoption procedure 01.08.2012-01.08.2013 and certificates acquired during this period
Source: Romanian Office for Adoptions - ador.copiii.ro

The comparative study conducted by the Romanian Office for Adoptions[1] shows a large number of existing adoptable children as of August 2013, i.e. 1,939, exceeding by some hundreds the total number of families authorized to adopt, i.e. 1550. By interpreting these figures, one can infer that the openness of society towards the idea of adopting a child is not sufficient, which causes a large number of adoptable children to be placed in child protection institutions, unable to benefit from the warmth of a family environment.

Also useful in this context is the comparative analysis with the existing situation prior to the amendment of Law no. 273 on the legal regime of adoption. In this sense, according to the data provided by the Romanian Office for Adoptions (O.R.A.) on the period 2005-2009, there was a considerably larger number of peoples/families fit to adopt in that period (around 2,500 annually) (Buzducea, Lazăr, Panait, 2011); likewise, since the amendment of Law no. 273, i.e. April 2012, and until March 2013, 999 children were adopted, of which 221 applications were submitted to the courts before April 2012. Thus, since the amendment of the law and until March 2013, only 778 children were adopted[2], whereas 1,730 children were adopted in Romania in 2009, 1,921 in 2010, and 1,736 in 2011[3].

On a related note, there is a category among adopted children, known as "less adoptable children" (Buzducea, Lazăr, Panait, 2011) which has the following characteristics: the child is over 3 years old at the time of adoption; belongs to ethnical or racial minorities; has emotional problems, chronic illnesses, physical and/or mental disabilities; was subject to various forms of abuse and/or severe neglect; has several siblings and, according to the principles of child protection, the possibility of placing them together should be considered.

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[1] Disestablished under G.E.O. 11/2014 on the adoption of reorganization measures in central public administration and for the amendment and completion of normative acts, published in the "Official Gazette", Part I, no. 203 of 21 March 2014, its prerogatives having been taken over by the National Authority for the Protection of Children's Rights and Adoption.

[2] The article *La mai bine de un an de la schimbarea legii, numărul copiilor adoptaţi s-a înjumătăţit. De ce-i ţine statul pe cei mici în sistem*, published on 11 July 2013 (available at: gandul.info).

[3] *Idem.*

3. The internal adoption procedure

This procedure is regulated by the provisions of Law no. 273/2004 and those of G. D. no. 350/2012 for approval of the Methodological Norms of application of Law no. 273/2004. Likewise, under a procedural aspect, these legal texts are complemented by the provisions of the Code of Civil Procedure (Leş, 2013), which came into force on February 2013.

The provisions of the Civil Code are brief regarding the adoption procedure, being limited to stating that the regulation of the adoption procedure is carried out by special law (emphasis added: Law no. 273 on the legal regime of adoption), and assigning competence in matters of approving adoption to the guardianship court.

From analyzing the incidental normative acts in the matter, it follows that the adoption procedure involves undergoing the administrative procedure, then the judicial procedure for approval of adoption (Bacaci, Dumitrache, Hageanu, 2012; Lupaşcu, Crăciunescu, 2012).

The administrative procedure involves the intervention of certain administrative bodies with prerogatives in the adoption procedure. There are: the National Authority for the Protection of Children's Right and Adoption and the general directorate for social work and child protection.

The National Authority for the Protection of Children's Right and Adoption is a specialized body of central public administration, with legal personality, subordinate to the Ministry of Labor, Family, Social Protection and Elderly Persons. It took over the prerogatives in the area of child protection from the Ministry of Labor, Family, Social Protection and Elderly Persons and in matters of adoption from the Romanian Office for Adoptions. Its tasks in matters of adoption are aimed at:

- coordinating and supervising adoption activities, and achieving international cooperation in the field of adoption;

- fulfilling, as the central Romanian authority in this matter, the obligations provided in the Convention on child protection and cooperation in matters of international adoption, concluded in the Hague on 29 May 1993, and ratified by Law no. 84/1994;

- fulfilling the obligations taken by the Romanian state in matters of adoption through the international conventions and treaties to which Romania is a party, the application, pursuit and assurance of unitary application of legislation in the matter of adoption.

The general directorate for social work and child protection is a public institution with legal personality, subordinate to county councils, or the municipal councils of the districts of Bucharest city, under the conditions of law. Among the tasks that it exercises with regard to adoption are:

- issuing the authorization for people or families that are fit to adopt, in the case of a favorable result of evaluation;

- notifying the court with jurisdiction over the child's area of residence to commence internal adoption procedure for children registered by it;

- monitoring the progress of adopted children, as well as the relations between them and their adoptive parents.

In the phase of the administrative procedure, certain steps must be taken. A first such step involves the obtainment of information on required documentation, measures and duration of adoption internal procedures, from the private authorized directorates or bodies, by people who wish to adopt.

Subsequently, the person or family applying for adoption must obtain the authorization as person or family fit to adopt. This is obtained as a result of a written application for evaluation submitted to the general directorate for social work and child protection from their area of residence. The evaluation of the adopter or adoptive family seeks to identify parental abilities, verify the fulfillment of moral guarantees and material conditions of the adopter or adoptive family, as well as prepare them for knowingly assuming the role of parent.

According to the Methodological Norms of application of Law no. 273/2004, the evaluation process of the adoptive person/family comprises: social evaluation, psychological evaluation and preparation for knowingly assuming the role of parent [art. 13 para. (2)]. After completing the three steps of the evaluation process, the members of the evaluation team must prepare the final evaluation report of the adopter/adoptive family's capacity to adopt, which will be communicated to the adopter/adoptive family within 5 working days of its approval, by the head of the directorate.

If the result of the evaluation is favorable, the directorate will issue the authorization as person or family fit to adopt.

The duration of validity for the authorization is one year, and can be extended *ipso jure* [art. 16 para. (6) of Law no. 273/2004].

As an exception from the obligation of obtaining the authorization, the provisions of art. 24 of the Law of adoption state that it is not necessary in the following situations: if the adoption of a person who has obtained full capacity of exercise is desired, or if the adoption of the child is desired by the spouse of the natural or adoptive parent.

The entirety of incidental norms in the matter leads to the conclusion that the judicial procedure of adoption comprises several steps:

- opening of the internal adoption procedure;
- compatibility between the child and the adoptive person/family;
- entrustment of the child for adoption;
- approval of adoption.

The first step of the analyzed procedure consists of opening the internal adoption procedure. This is done based on the individualized protection plan[1], regulated by Law no. 272/2004 regarding the protection and promotion of children's rights. The provisions of art. 26 para. (1) – 27 of Law no. 273/2004, corroborated with those of art. 46 - 49 of the Methodological Norms of application of Law no. 273/2004 foresee several situations and conditions in which adoption is established as an end of the individualized protection plan, namely:

- if, after a one-year period has passed since the date of introducing the special protection measure, the child's natural parents and/or relatives up to the fourth degree could not be found or do not cooperate with the authorities to carry out reintegration/integration measures;

- if, after the special protection measure was introduced, the child's parents and relatives up to the fourth degree who could be found declare, in writing, that they do not wish to raise and care for the child, and do not withdraw this declaration within 60 days;

- if the child was registered at birth as having unknown parents.

In this context, we must state that the opening of the internal adoption procedure is not necessary in the hypothesis of adoption of a child for whom the guardianship was established, or in that of adoption of a child by the spouse of its natural or adoptive parent (art. 50 of the Methodological Norms of application of Law no. 273/2004).

After the establishment of adoption as an end of the individualized protection plan, the internal adoption procedure is opened.

The court with jurisdiction over the child's area of residence must be notified by the directorate to open the internal adoption procedure within 30 days of the registration of the application and is judged by summoning the child's natural parents or, as applicable, the legal guardian and the directorate in whose jurisdiction the child's residence is located (art. 28 of Law no. 273). It is worth noting that, in the case of a child for whom guardianship was established, the internal adoption procedure is opened by the directorate in whose jurisdiction the child's residence is situated, on the initiative of the guardian.

The approval of the opening of internal adoption procedure[2] is conditioned by fulfilling certain requirements: the individualized protection plan aimed at internal adoption; the above-mentioned situations and conditions in which adoption is established as an end of the individualized protection plan are met, and the child's parents or, as applicable, the guardian, express their consent to adoption, under the law.

The provisions of art. 29 para. (5) of Law no. 273 emphasized the effects of the final judicial decision (emphasis added: the term "irrevocable" must be replaced under the conditions of the current Code of civil procedure) by which the court approves the application for opening the internal adoption procedure: suspension of parental rights and obligations

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[1] According to the provisions of art. 4 let. e) of Law no. 272/2004, the individualized protection plan is the document scheduling the services, performances and special protection measures for the child, based on its psychosocial evaluation and that of its family, having the purpose of integrating the child who was separated from its family into a permanent, stable family environment, as soon as possible.

[2] With regard to the child for whom guardianship was established, the approval of opening the internal adoption procedure after applying to the directorate in whose jurisdiction the child resides, is conditioned by the consent to adoption expressed by the child's parents or, as applicable, the guardian, and the court judges that opening the internal adoption procedure is in agreement with the best interests of the child [art. 29 para. (3) of Law no. 273].

for natural parents or, as applicable, those exercised by individuals or legal entities and their exercise by the president of the county council or, as applicable, by the mayor of the district of Bucharest city in whose jurisdiction the child resides; preservation of parental rights and obligations exercised at the moment of approval of application by the president of the county council, the mayor of the district of Bucharest city in whose jurisdiction the child resides or, as applicable, by the legal guardian.

In the same vein, the effects of the judicial decision to open the interne adoption procedure case *ipso jure* if, within 2 years of the date of the final decision (emphasis added*:* the term "irrevocable" should be replaced under the conditions of the current Code of civil procedure), the directorate has not identified a suitable person or family for the child.

A significant aspect in the matter is the right conferred by art. 30 et seq. of the Law on adoption to the adoptable child's natural parents and the directorate who requested the opening of the internal adoption procedure to submit an application to revise the decision if, after the final judicial decision (emphasis added*:* the term "irrevocable" should be replaced under the current procedural law) of opening the adoption procedure, the cause which, under the law, determined the impossibility of one of the parents expressing the consent to adoption, disappears. The deadline within which this application can be submitted is the date of pronouncement of the decision to approve the adoption. The effects of this application are significant, so that its submission determines the suspension of the solution of the application to entrust the child for adoption or, as applicable, to approve adoption, if any of them are registered by the court. After suspension, if the parent who was unable to express consent opposes adoption, the application to entrust the child for adoption or, as applicable, to approve adoption will be re-registered on the request of the directorate and rejected.

Detailed provisions are dedicated by Law no. 273 and its Methodological Norms of application to the phase of theoretical and practical matching between the child and the adoptive person/family within the internal adoption procedure.

In this sense, we must specify that matching is a preliminary stage to the entrustment for adoption, which seeks to identify and select the most suitable person/family authorized to adopt, which responds to the identified needs of the child, but also to establish compatibility between the child and the adoptive person/family. The matching process is aimed at children for whom the opening of the internal adoption procedure has been approved and the adopter/adoptive family with habitual residence in Romania holding a valid authorization, registered in the National Register for Adoptions (R.N.A.).

The matching process involves a theoretical component and a practical one. Theoretical matching is initiated by the National Authority for the Protection of Children's Rights and Adoption (under the conditions of disestablishment, we believe that the expression "Romanian Office for Adoptions" to which both the Law of adoption, and its Methodological Norm of application refer, should be replaced) for children in its records and who are to be entrusted for adoption, by identifying and selecting, from the National Register for adoptions, the authorized persons/families who best respond to the children's needs.

The commencement of the theoretical matching procedure by the competent national authority requires the directorate to submit information regarding authorized adopters/adoptive families, as well as the children for whom the opening of the internal adoption procedure was approved.

Theoretical matching must also be performed at directorate level, clear prerogative in this sense being assigned to the child's case manager and psychologist from the specialized compartment. Together with the case manager(s) of the adopters/adoptive families, they analyze the information on the child, its natural parents/extended family and adopter/adoptive family and select, from the list submitted by the Office, 3 adopters/adoptive families who will be included in the summary theoretical matching list, giving priority to the above-mentioned.

The procedure will be continued by verifying practical matching with that adopter/adoptive family who best fulfills the theoretical matching criteria. Practical matching seeks to verify compatibility and gradually achieve the child's bonding to the adopter/adoptive family, and consists of meetings between the child and the adopters, the provisions of art. 67 para. (3) second thesis of Methodological Norms stipulating a minimum number of 4 meetings. Any aspects observed during these meetings must be recorded at the end of practical matching by the case manager of the child and of the adopter/adoptive family in a matching report containing conclusions referring to the compatibility between the child and the adoptive person/family, as well as the proposal concerning the notification of the court for the entrustment of the child for adoption. After the matching report is prepared, the directorate in whose jurisdiction the child's residence is located shall notify, within 5 days, the court for entrustment of the child for adoption. If, during practical matching, experts conclude that the child does not bond to the adopter/adoptive family, the matching procedure is ceased, and then started again with the following adopter/adoptive family who best fulfill the theoretical matching criteria.

A very important step for bonding between the child and the adopter/adoptive family is the entrustment of the child for adoption. This is regulated by the provisions of art. 40 et seq. of Law no. 273/2004 and those of art. 71-72 of the Methodological Norms of application of Law no. 273/2004.

The approval of adoption by the court, expect for situations stipulated by law, can only granted after the entrustment of the child for adoption[1] for a period of 90 days to the person or family who wishes to adopt it, as stated by the provisions of art. 40 para. (1) of the above-mentioned law. The term for entrustment is calculated beginning on the date of the child's taking up residence with the adopter/adoptive family.

The decisions solving applications for entrustment for adoption benefit from an enforceable character from the date of pronouncement.

During the entrustment of the child for adoption, its residence is with the person or family to whom it was entrusted.

The tracking of the progress of the child entrusted for adoption and the relations between this child and the adopter/adoptive family is essential in the matter. In this sense, according to art. 74 para. (1) of the Methodological Norms, the directorate in whose administrative and territorial jurisdiction the adopter/adoptive family resides[2] must track the progress of the child throughout the entire period during which it is entrusted for adoption, and prepare bimonthly reports on it.

At the end of the period of entrustment for adoption, the directorate, according to the observed aspects, can decide on two solutions: preparing a final report on the progress of relations between the child and the adopters, which it communicates to the competent court in order to solve the application for entrustment of adoption[3]; another solution consists of notifying the court for the purpose of revocation or, as applicable, extending the measure of entrustment if, during the period of entrustment for adoption, the directorate in whose jurisdiction the adopter or adoptive family resides concludes that the child did not bond with the adoptive person or family, or that there are any other reasons that are likely to prevent the completion of the adoption procedure.

Approval of adoption is another important stage for the procedure of adoption. It is a stage that enters in the court competence.

The application for the approval of adoption may be entered directly by the adopter or adoptive family, when the person has acquired full capacity exercise, and if the child is adopted by natural or adoptive parent's spouse. In all other cases An application of adoption will be introduced either by the adopter or adoptive family or by the direction of their homes at the end of entrustment for adoption or, where appropriate, to the end of the terms provided for the child in certain situations [art. 74 para. (1) from Law no. 273].

It can be observed that the district court shall grant the application for a approval of adoption only if based on the evidence, and it appreciates that the adoption is in the best interests of child.

Within 5 days from the final remaining of the judicial decision (emphasis added: the term "irrevocable" should be replaced under the current procedural law) of court to approve the adoption, the directorate in whose jurisdiction is the residence of the child shall notify the approval of adoption to the natural parents and the Romanian authorities competent to issue the identity or travel documents for the adopted child.

The legal provisions in the matter comprise certain relevant procedural norms. In this sense, all applications stipulated by the Law of adoption are assigned to the competence of Romanian courts, if at least one of the parties has their habitual residence in Romania.

From the viewpoint of material competences, applications stipulated by Law no. 273 are the competence of the district court (emphasis added: under the conditions of art. 94 of the current Code of civil procedure, the competent court

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[1] According to art. 72 para. (3) of the Methodological Norms, the child's taking up residence with the adopter/adoptive family must be recorded in a document prepared in two copies and signed by the representative of the directorate and by the adopter/adoptive family.

[2] The provisions of art. 75 para. (1) of the Methodological Norms provide that, in the period for which the entrustment for adoption was ordered, experts from the specialized compartment must offer support to adopters/adoptive families. Likewise, art. 75 para. (3) from the same methodology states that the case manager or psychologist shall discuss directly and separately with the child during each visit made to track the progress of the child entrusted for adoption, retaining and recording its opinion.

[3] Under the conditions of art. 44 para. (4) of Law no. 273, the application for approval of adoption submitted to the court has the effect of extending *ipso jure* the period of entrustment until the solution of the application by final judicial decision (emphasis added: the term "irrevocable" must be replaced).

is the district court, and not the general court, as stipulated by Law no. 273 which was not correlated to the new procedural provisions), and under the aspect of territorial competence it is assigned to the district court (emphasis added) in whose jurisdiction the adoptee's residence is located [art. 74 para. (3) of the Law of adoption].

Other important procedural rules from Law no. 273 state that applications for adoption are solved by specialized panels of the courts, in the council chamber, with the mandatory attendance of the prosecutor, and the directorate must present the social survey report on the child.

As regards the dates of hearings, the Law of adoption states that they cannot be longer than 10 days, and the judicial decision must be written down and communicated to parties within 10 days of its pronouncement.

A significant procedural norm stipulates that applications for opening the internal adoption procedure, applications for entrustment of the child for adoption and applications for approval of adoption are judged in the lower court, according to the rules stipulated by Book III – General provisions on non-contentious procedures in the Code of civil procedure, with certain exceptions provided by the Law of adoption [art. 74 para. (4)].

Likewise, on the solution of the application for opening of the internal adoption procedure, the application for entrustment for adoption, the application for dissolution of adoption, as well as the application for nullity of adoption, Law no. 273/2004 stipulates that children who have reached the age of 10 must be heard, and on the approval of the adoption for a child who has reached the age of 10, its consent must be sought.

The application for opening the internal procedure adoption is exempt from the judicial stamp fee and is solved rapidly (Lupaşcu, Crăciunescu, 2012).

4. Effects of internal adoption

These effects (Berlingher, 2012) are regulated by Law no. 273/2004, as well as by the New Civil Code and are produced since the date of the final judicial decision to approve adoption (art. 469 of the New Civil Code).

The main effect of adoption is the emergence of civil kinship; thus, adoption generates filiation between the adoptee and the adopter, and kinship between the adoptee and the adopter's relatives (Bacaci, Dumitrache, Hageanu, 2012).

Adoption also involves the obtainment of obligations and the exercise of parental rights by the adopter [art. 471 para. (1) of the New Civil Code]. The **adoptee has, towards the adopter the same rights and obligations that any person has towards their natural parents.**

Other effects generated by the approval of adoption refer to the obtainment of the adopter's surname by the adoptee, the adoptee's taking residence with the adopter, the exercise of the legal support obligation towards the adoptee.

Also significant are the provisions of the Law of adoption, which stipulate the right of adoptees to know their own origins and past and benefit from support in contacting their natural parents or biological relatives. Natural parents or biological relatives of adoptees can obtain general information on the adoptee even with the express consent of the latter or, as applicable, the adoptive person or family.

5. Conclusions

The authorized institutions: the former Romanian Office for adoptions, currently the National Authority for the Protection of Children's Rights and Adoption, the general directorates for social work and children's protection, on the initiative of mass-media[1], have taken steps to improve legislation in the field. Thus, currently, according to art. 26 para. (1) of the Law of adoption in its republished form, children whose natural parents and relatives up to the 4th degree cannot be found or do not co-operate with the authorities for the purpose of reintegration or integration of the child in the family within one year are declared adoptable, without consulting the family. Likewise, the above-mentioned law also improves the situation of children remaining in the system for several years until the authorities locate their relatives up to the fourth degree. In this sense, if the child's parents and relatives up to the fourth degree that could be found declared, in writing, that they do not wish to raise and care for the child and if, within 60 days, they do not withdraw this declaration, the child is declared adoptable.

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[1] See the PROTV Campaign "Vreau şi eu părinţii mei!" ("I want parents of my own!") which gave back the chance of having a family to a number of 40,000 children (stirileprotv.ro).

In the legislative area, the adoption of certain significant normative acts by the authorities is noted. In this sense, for the purpose of ensuring an effective framework for the implementation of the main priorities in the field of children's policies of the Governing Program, the 2014-2020 National Strategy for the protection and promotion of children's rights was drafted. This important document was based on certain regulations with an impact in the field, such as: the Strategy on the promotion of social inclusion and fight against poverty, the Europe 2020 Strategy, the Council of Europe Strategy for the Rights of the Child 2012-2015, the Commission Recommendation 2013/112/EU - Investing in children: breaking the cycle of disadvantage, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, etc. The plan for monitoring and evaluating actions conducted on the basis of the strategy will target:

- strengthening the use of fact-based approaches and making full use of existing statistics and administrative data;

- improving the rapid data availability for monitoring the children's situation;

- improving the statistical capacity, especially as regards measuring access to qualitative and financially accessible services, especially monitoring the situation of the most vulnerable of children.

Among the specific objectives of the Operational Plan for implementing the National Strategy for the protection and promotion of children's rights are:

- preventing undesired pregnancies among adolescent girls by providing reproduction health and family planning services for children and adolescents;

- continuing the transition from the institutional care of children to community care by: increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of the current system of familial care services; developing alternative services to institutional care, etc.

The statistical data analyzed above show that, in spite of these legislative efforts to improve the legislation in matters of adoption, the number of adoptions has not increased, but on the contrary, it has dropped. I believe that this is due to certain reasons, such as: for the relevant authorities the child's reintegration in its natural family is extremely important, even if it is not always the best solution for that child; the individualized protection plan, as regulated by Law no. 272/2004 on the protection and promotion of children's rights, as subsequently amended, is aimed at internal adoption if 4th degree relatives are consulted.

Regardless of these endeavors, we believe that the main reason why Romanian society cannot provide a family for all children in the social protection system is due to the current socio-economic context.

In this respect, a greater involvement is needed from the state in the protection of the family environment by making appropriate social policies, and strengthening the existing ones to create balance between the real needs of children and their legislative coverage, for example: increasing the state allowance for all children (both adopted and cared for by their natural families), shortening the adoption period[1].

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[1] Furthermore, even the provisions of art. 263 of the Civil Code referring to the principle of the best interests of the child request that the procedures referring to children take place over a reasonable time, so as not to otherwise impair the best interests of the child and family relations.

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Effects of Cultural Interactions between the Romanian and Turkish Peoples, as Reflected on the Romanian Language

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Abstract

Beginning with the assumption that language is one of the basic dynamics of a society's culture, in this study we intend to point out some of the effects of the cultural interactions between Romanians and Turks that occurred on Romanian territory, and their reflection on the Romanian language. Due to the existence of certain words coming from Turkish to the Romanian language spoken today, we shall use empirical methods, and we shall examine the interplay between social and cultural factors, as compared to sociological factors, as well as historical research methods. By using these methods we shall try to identify the social and structural conditions that underlay this linguistic "crossbreeding". Unlike other Balkan countries, Romania, one of the most important countries of South-East Europe, has never been under the direct rule of the Ottoman Empire. However, considering that the presence of the Ottoman Empire in the Balkans lasted for about 500 years, the interferences between the Turkish language and culture and the Romanian language and culture are extremely numerous and noticeable. At the linguistic level, even though the young generations of Romania do not fully notice, the number of words of Turkish origin in the basic vocabulary of the Romanian language depending on the region is between 2000 or more, especially in the lexicon used in gastronomy, clothing, agriculture or trade.

Keywords: Romanian, Turkish, culture, society, civilization, nation, nationality, language

Introduction and Background

Language is one of the basic dynamics of the culture of a society. Just as language has paved the way for culture, in a like manner, culture, in its turn, has influenced the language. The renowned American anthropologist and linguist Edward Sapir points out this phenomenon in an article entitled "The Status of Linguistics as a Science": "Language is a guide to `social reality`. Though language is not ordinarily thought of as of essential interest to the students of social science, it powerfully conditions all our thinking about social problems and processes" (Sapir, The Status of Linguistics as a Science, 1929, p. 210). For many social scientists, language is more than just a means of communication; it is a very important phenomenon that helps us perceive the world around us. Therefore Sapir brings a different definition for languages spoken in a society when referring to it in sociology:

"*The value of linguistics for sociology in the narrower sense of the word is just as real as for the anthropological theorist. Sociologists are necessarily interested in the technique of communication between human beings. From this standpoint language facilitation and language barriers are of the utmost importance and must be studied in their interplay with a host of other factors that make for ease or difficulty of transmission of ideas and patterns of behaviour*" (Sapir, General Linguistics , 2008, p. 222).

From this point of view, we have to state that the intersection of these two languages (Romanian - Turkish) also occurred on Romania's territory. Due to the existence of some words coming from Turkish (Ottoman) into the Romanian language spoken today, by using empirical methods, we shall examine the interplay between social and cultural factors, as compared to sociological factors, as well as historical research methods. By using these methods we shall try to identify the social and structural conditions that underlay this linguistic "crossbreeding". And with the help of observation and the interview, we shall investigate the sources of different languages. At the same time, many sources have been found that can be used to moderate and even combat biased / subjective materials.

Romanians, unlike other Balkan peoples, were never under the direct (total) rule of the Ottoman Empire. Although regarding the administration of internal affairs, the Romanian principalities Wallachia and Moldavia were independent, in terms of foreign affairs, they were dependent on the Ottoman Empire. In the fifteenth century, Sultan Mehmet II Fatih (the Conqueror) was the first to appoint a Romanian prince and after Sultan Mehmet's days princes (voivodes) who were considered suitable to be vested with this authority were installed. But when it comes to Dobruca and the Danube, Turks and Romanians lived together in this area. In the age of the Ottoman Empire, the Turks interfered neither with the language nor with the religion of Romanians and did not force them to adopt the Ottomans' religion or

language. From the viewpoint of culture and language, these two peoples have developed a special relationship as compared to that adopted towards other nations of the Balkans. Since the Romanian population in this area has not been dislodged by the Turks, our article we shall tackle the cultural similarities arising from this coexistence between Romanians and Turks.

The Turkish-Romanian Interaction in the Field of Culture

Among all Balkan countries, Romania has greatest population. Geographically considered, it is situated in South-East Europe, in the North of the Balkan Peninsula and on the North-Western coast of the Black Sea, having fertile lands and rich natural resources. Due to its geographical position, at the crossroads between Europe and Asia, Romania was an important commercial route, a transit area and the link between the two continents, so throughout the centuries, it was under the rules of the Roman Empire, the Byzantine Empire and the Ottoman Empire. The Western Roman Empire and the Eastern Roman Empire (Byzantine Empire), Orthodox and Catholics, Islam and Christianity, the East, more recently (the Warsaw Pact), and then the West (NATO), all swept over the Balkans (Oruç, 2009, pg. 49-59).

The Ottoman presence in the Balkans lasted for about 500 years. The Enlightenment (the Age of Reason) in the eighteenth century and nationalist movements have had a major influence in the Balkans, playing, actually, an active role in all cultural and ideological currents of Europe (Todorova, 2009). With the increasing influence of the Enlightenment in the Balkans, the political and cultural impact of the Ottoman Empire began to decline, so that in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, with the entry of the Russians in the Balkans and the end of the Russo-Turkish War (1877-1878), the Ottoman Empire lost its control over this area. Since in the course of time Romania was in the vicinity of and many times within the corridors of culture, it couldn't help being involved in the cultural interaction in this space. We shall present the elements related to our topic on the interaction between Romanian and Turkish people.

The Carpathian Basin was occupied by Turkic populations starting from the eighth century; in the first half of the fifth century the Huns raided, and from the sixth century until the eighth century, this territory was invaded by migratory peoples (Rasonyi, 1938, pg. 107-122). During the Ottoman Empire, as a result of the policy of founding Turkish communities they managed to bring Turks from Anatolia, convinced them to settle down in Dobruca, where they would keep their own customs (Aksu, 2005, pg. 11-27). Under the Ottoman Empire, as in any other region conquered by it, there also appeared mosques, inns, hamam`s ([Turkish baths](#)) and drinking fountains. The Turks in these areas, while under the occupation of the Ottoman Empire, enjoyed a life of ease (comfortable), but after their defeat in the battle of Plevna, their situation changed. Part of the Turks who had come to Dobruca began to return to Anatolia, while those who remained, making them a minority, were obliged to engage in religious, political, social and cultural activities in order to protect their identity. After the withdrawal of the Ottomans from this region, the Turks remaining in Dobruca had to set up organisations in order to defend their political and social rights. When the communist government came to power, the Turks were deprived of their rights to maintain their culture, and therefore printed increasingly fewer magazines and newspapers (Aksu, 2005, p. 26).

Interaction between the Romanian and the Turkish Language

Romanian, belongs to the Indo-European group, descending from the Latin language. The core of the Romanian vocabulary (main structure) is Latin, to which words were added from Slavic and many other languages. A Romance language, Romanian is considered to be a branch of Eastern Latin and in daily use is referred to as "Romanian". Romanian itself can be analysed in two groups, the first of which is the dialect used in Wallachia, and the second, the dialect spoken in Moldova.

As of the tenth century, Romanian society is geographically surrounded by communities speaking different languages but none of Romanic origin (Slavic, Hungarian and Turkish). Under these circumstances, the community speaking the Romanian language as their basic language had to break its relations with the Latin-speaking community for a long period of time. In the middle Ages, while the words coming from French, Italian and Spanish, which descend from Latin, continued to develop their grammatical and lexical structure, the Romanian-Latin language went on growing outside this influence. Subsequently, between the fourteenth and nineteenth centuries words assimilated from French as well as from English will enter Romanian, Italian, Greek and Turkish. (Calabrese & Wetzels, 2009, p. 117).

The Ottoman Empire over the centuries influenced the formation of the vocabulary of the Romanian language through linguistic and cultural contacts. The main factors which contributed to this influence are the following: temporary or permanent external influences and important historical events, socio-economic development, trade relations, scientific

and technical progress, fashion, reforms, workforce migration (domestic and international), traveling for educational purposes, tourism and business travels. As a result of the contacts with the Turkish population and the Ottoman Empire as a whole, from the fourteenth century until the eighteenth century, many Turkish words entered the Romanian vocabulary (Calabrese & Wetzels, 2009, pg. 117-118). The Turkish language became an important tool in bilateral relations, and whereas in the previous period there were only small Turkish-speaking communities, this caused their number to be increased. Later, in the Balkans and Romania, once the Turkish population became citizens of the countries they live in, which is especially true in the Danube Basin and Dobruca, more and more Turkish words began to be used in Romanian (Capidan, 1942). The use of these words confirms Köktekin's statement: "When a language borrows from another language, it does not take the respective element identically to the one from the original language. The borrowed element suffers a profound change in pronunciation and meaning" (Köktekin, 2007, p. 122). In Romanian, Turkish words were used and adapted to their own structure. Although the spelling of certain words is not the same as in Turkish, their sound resembles the original. Nowadays we can see this in the everyday speech of individuals. For instance, in the villages situated along the Danube, especially those surrounding the town of Giurgiu, the fence of a house (gard in Romanian) is designated by the word *duvar*, (wall in Romanian), i.e. wall, and the headscarf worn by peasant women is called *cimber* and *basma* all of which have Turkish origins.

In Romanian, about two per cent of the basic vocabulary is borrowed from Turkish making it the sixth among the languages from which Romanian borrowed words. (Gruyte & Haspelmath, 2009, p. 239). It is worth mentioning that Turkish verbs did not really enter the Romanian vocabulary. Ten percent of the Turkish words borrowed by the Romanian language are words related to the house, house structure and family life. Although there are many examples in Romanian, the words selected below are among the most frequently used:

Table 1 - Some frequently used Turkish originate words

Turkish	Romanian	English	Turkish	Romanian	English
kadife	catifea	velvet	kerpiç	chirpici	adobe
lale	lalea	tulip	makara	macara	crane
misafir	musafir	guest	cam	geam	window
keyif	chef	pleasure	soba	sobă	stove
bayram	bairam	eid/feast	ocak	hogeag	chimney
balta	baltag	axe	şerbet	şerbet	sorbet (sherbet)

According to the renowned Turkish historian Halil İnalcık, specialist in the history of the Ottoman Empire, the number of words taken from the Turkish culture by today's Balkan languages depending on the region, varies between 2000-5000 words, and even nowadays the Ottoman legacy is visible in Balkan peoples' clothes, popular music, cuisine and drinking (Inalcik, 2005, p. 31). In Romanian, Turkish words borrowed from other semantic areas are related to "agriculture and vegetation" (4.7%), "food and beverages" (4.5%), "clothes" (4.5%) (Gruyte & Haspelmath, 2009, p. 245). The above-mentioned examples are the result of the close ties in terms of policy and trade maintained with the Ottoman Empire. In the field of trade, words such as "para" and "amanet" are used in Romanian with the same form and meaning of "*para*" (money) and "*emanet*" (pawn) in Turkish.

In some cases, Turkish words have been taken into Romanian without apparent semantic differences, just as synonyms. An obvious example, as part of the Romanian rural culture, is the word "păstor" (shepherd) descending from Latin, and its Turkish synonym "çoban". Although the word *păstor* is of Latin origin, the Romanian people usually prefer to use the word *cioban* (shepherd), borrowed from the Turkish *çoban*.

Another point worth noting is that in Romanian many negative antonyms of words tend to be from Turkish. Even though the word for clean, "curat", is not of Turkish origin, its antonym is "murdar" which is. Another example of the same case is for the word friend, "prieten" not being Turkish but received the antonym "duşman" which is the word used

for enemy in Turkish (düşman). Nowadays we can find Turkish words in Romanian with almost unchanged meanings but used with similar pronunciations:

Table 2 - Turkish words in Romanian with almost unchanged meanings

Romanian	Turkish	Romanian	Turkish	Romanian	Turkish
anason	anason	*cazan*	kazan	*magiun*	macun, reçel
arpagic	arpacık	*dud*	dut	*sarma*	sarma
atlas	atlas	*chihlimbar*	kehribar	*mucava*	mukavva
baclava	baklava	*chimen*	kimyon	*năut*	nohut
basma	basma(eşarp)	*curmal*	hurma	*pătlăgea*	patlıcan
bidinea	badana	*fildeş*	fildişi	*satâr*	satır
bostan	bostan	*ienibahar*	yenibahar	*sidef*	sedef
burghiu	burgu	*ghiveci*	güveç	*şalvari*	şalvar
cais	kayısı	*harbuz*	karpuz	*şerbet*	şerbet

Currently we meet Turkish words used in a sarcastic and ironic way which betrays the comic connotation they acquired in Romanian, such as: *alişveriş, başca, calabalâc, fistichiu, marafet, muşteriu, tabiet, tertip, zuluf* (i.e. in English: cheating, additionally, belongings, weird, crotchet, customer, habit, trick, ringlets). Some of the borrowed words have lost their initial meaning and underwent a semantic change. For instance, the word *hain* (in Turkish meaning traitor, villain) is used in Romanian with the meaning of "evil / bad". However, colloquially, there are some phrases and words that have survived until now while maintaining their original meaning, such as "a-şi face cheful", in Turkish "*keyif böyle yapılır*", i.e. the way to enjoy the pleasure of.

Analysing different sources, we can state that at present there are around 2000 words in Romanian derived from Turkish, whose etymology is certified by the "Etymological Dictionary of the Romanian Language" (Ciorănescu, 2007). However, it should be noted that, from the same source, there are words which, although mentioned as coming from Albanian, Arabic or Bulgarian are actually all descending from Turkish (Ottoman). It is only natural that part of the words used in the countries which were under Ottoman influence passed into the Romanian language, and not directly from Turkish. It is no longer possible to establish the exact number of words that were taken into Romanian from Turkish, however it is estimated that their number is much higher than that given in the Etymological Dictionary.

In contemporary Romanian, the greatest contribution is from the French language. Especially the Romanian intellectuals of the eighteenth century were deeply influenced by French, due it being fashionable to use it for written and spoken means. During this period, political influence of the Ottoman Empire was reduced and nationalist and independence movements were multiplied resulting in the Romanian language distancing itself from its Turkish connections. This fact triggered changes parallel with the loss of power of the Ottoman Empire's economic sphere and its decline of trade routes. The main difference in the effect of these two languages on Romanian is that Turkish was located and developed "among the people", whereas French was used by Romanian intellectuals with the intention to contribute to its development and modernisation. According to the Bulgarian scientist Maria Todorova, renowned for her studies on the Balkans, no matter how different Balkan countries might be, they all tried to purge the Turkish originated words in everyday use and place names (Todorova, 2009, p. 180).

Turkish Cuisine and Names of Dishes

In Romanian gastronomy, as well as in other Balkan countries, Turkish influence is quite obvious. Turkish (Ottoman) cuisine is considered an important cultural element that has helped shape a specific Balkan cuisine, but has been neglected for a long period of time by scientific researchers. The source of food culture (gastronomy) common or similar in the Balkan area is the Ottoman Empire. Nevertheless by adopting different types of Turkish dishes, and often by adapting them according to their own tastes, the peoples of the Balkans created numerous new dishes. Today it is rather difficult to detect the origin of the names of different dishes, therefore the origin of these words.

In the traditional Romanian cuisine, which was under the influence of different civilisations, different interactions can be observed whose intensity depends on each region's diversity. According to Carmen Costea, in

Romanian gastronomy the following interferences mingled: in the Transylvanian region an Austrian influence through the Habsburg dynasty is noted; in the Moldavian region a Russian gastronomical influence and in Wallachia a combination of French, Italian and Greek cuisines. The Dobruca region as stated before was highly influenced by the Ottomans (Turkish) and their cuisine in this case (Costea Carmen, 2011, p. 39). It is noteworthy that the most lasting aspect of the Ottoman Empire's legacy can be found in gastronomy, which is an undeniable fact all over Romania (Lupșor, 2012). For a start *çorba* – ciorbă (soup), *pilav* – pilaf (pilaff), *sarma* – sarmale (cabbage rolls), *köfte* – chiftele (meatballs), and *biber dolması* – ardei umpluți (stuffed peppers) are just a few of the first dishes that come to mind. Certain dishes, known as the traditional Romanian cuisine, adapted local tastes and ingredients which actually originated from the Turkish cuisine. Moreover, many foods and beverages from the Turkish-Ottoman cuisine have been taken with their original Turkish names, for instance: *baklava* – baklava (baklava), *helva* – halva (halvah), *lokum* – rahat dulce (Turkish delight), *kahve* – cafea (coffee), *kaymak* – caimac (cream), *çullama* – ciulama (thick pancake usually with chicken slices), *güveç* – ghiveci (stew), *imambayıldı* - imam-bayildi (stuffed aubergine, literally the imam fainted), *yahni* – iahnie (ragout), *yoğurt* – iaurt (yogurt), *musakka* – musaca (moussaka), *pastırma* – pastrami (pastrami), *rakı* – rachiu (brandy), *sarma* – sarmale (cabbage rolls), *salep* – salep (beverage made from dried orchid tubers), *meze* – mezelic (appetizer), *afyon* – afion (opium), *turfanda* – trufanda (firstling).

The Turkish habit of eating bread is also found in the Romanian society, where bread is a prominent culinary feature, and there are many dishes where bread is an indispensable component. After the Romanian Revolution of 1989, Turkish entrepreneurs have made the largest investments in the bakery businesses (bread ovens), for which they obtained a significant market share as a consequence of the Turkish habit of eating bread.

The Romanian intellectuals of the eighteenth century, relinquishing Eastern (Turkish) culture and faced the West (France), a fact which is also reflected in their food culture (gastronomy). But Romanian intellectuals could not impose this tendency to the majority of the population, who kept on eating and loving Turkish food. Today, many dishes adopted by the Romanian people and which are regarded as belonging to the Turkish cuisine, support and enhance the claim that they are a legacy of Ottoman cuisine. The clearest evidence for this may be observed at the level of interest towards a particular festival in Bucharest. The Turkish Festival organised by Turkish NGO's and voluntary participants of both Turkish and Romanian ethnicity since 2012 hosts more than a hundred thousand visitors in three days each year where the most emphasis is on the Turkish cuisine. (Festivalul Turcesc, 2014)

Influence of Language on Commercial, Matrimonial and Literary Activities

Due to the trade relations between Romania and Turkey, both sides had to learn each other's language, in order to succeed in business. Turkish merchants began to settle on the Black Sea hinterland in the fifteenth century. Analysing trade relations between Romania and the Ottoman Empire in the Balkans, we note the transformation of administrative-military towns, with the development of trades and traditional Ottoman crafts, into commercial cities. In the fifteenth century a clear proof of the importance of the trade practiced by the Ottoman Empire in the Balkans, by penetrating new foreign markets, such as Brasov (Transylvania), was the use of the silver coin "asprul" (*gümüş akçe*), issued by the Ottoman Empire, in commercial transactions. The thriving trade practiced in those areas is also proved by the use of customs charters in these commercial centres (Inalcik, 2005, p. 35). In the nineteenth century, the great pioneer of Balkan historiography Jireöek C., followed by the famous Romanian historian Nicolae Iorga, demonstrated that the order imposed by the Ottoman Empire in the Balkans led to peace, trade and urbanization. The small border crossings and customs existing hitherto in the Balkans disappeared and in their place a unified system of customs tariff was created (Inalcik, 2005, p. 36). Just like the existence of a common market today, with economic and political structures subject to consistent and rigorous regulations, close commercial relations existed in the past between Balkan countries and the Ottoman Empire.

The historical trade relations continue today in Romania and according to the data provided by the Institute of Statistics, there are 10,833 Turkish companies in Romania, 3rd most after Italy and Germany. Even though according to statistics, in terms of capital, Turkish investors ranked 11, there are many Turkish companies, which have made large investments, not only in Romania but also on the European market, proving that Turkish companies are ranked higher than this 11th position. For instance, a Turkish bank headquartered in the Netherlands, which operates in Romania, in statistics appears as a Dutch and not as a Turkish bank. And we can continue with similar examples from other business areas. Turkish companies have provided thousands of jobs for Romanians, while also creating the possibility of expanding Turkish trade culture. At the same time, these Turkish companies through their business relationships have provided the opportunity to work in Romania for many Turkish citizens and for them to learn the Romanian language. On

the other hand, there are many Romanians who learned Turkish, and who settled and worked in Turkey. In addition, we note an increased interest in the Turkish language of Romanian employees who work in Turkish firms.

In Romania there have been intense cultural interactions between Romanians and Turks, not only through trade relations, but also through marriages. Due to these marriages, in many regions, especially in the Danube Basin and Dobruca, there are still surnames of Turkish origin. Generally, at least three or more generations earlier, surnames with Turkish roots acquired by marriage can be observed. Here are some examples of Turkish surnames: Baba, Turcescu, Tuzla, Talaş, Eminescu, Eminovici, Eminoviciu, Paşa, Paşaluc, etc., as well as names indicating a Turkish origin: Turc and Turcescu. As a result of the interviews conducted on people bearing these names, it turned out that in their family there were once marriages with Turks. Thus, in time, the nicknames given to ancestors were formalised and began to be used as surnames.

The Turks that are found in Romania are different from those who left to live in Europe. While the first three generations of Turks who had left for Germany came from rural areas and had low levels of education (workers), things are quite different in the case of the Turks established in Romania. After the fall of the Iron Curtain the entrepreneurs who came first possessed a minimum capital, whose business activities for various reasons were not going well in Turkey, after 2000, entrepreneurs with higher (stronger) capitals began to settle in Romania. Although, in terms of education, the Turks in Romania can have all levels of education, most of them have at least a high school education. According to the data from 2011, there are over 9.000 (legal) immigrants from Turkey (After Republic of Moldova with 15.86% of the total number of the legal immigrants. Statistics show that 23.9% of the Turkish immigrants are married to a Romanian resident (The General Inspectorate for Immigration, 2014). Following the observations and interviews conducted on this type of families it turned out that the children speak better Romanian taught by their mothers than the Turkish spoken by their father. As an exception, there are also families in which the children do not speak Turkish at all. Many families are concerned about this issue, and that is why they send their children to the schools opened by Turkish entrepreneurs to ensure that they will learn Turkish as well. In the case for the Turkish minority in Romania according to 2011 statistics, 85.6% of people speak Turkish at home whereas the rest prefers to speak in Romanian and considers Romanian as their mother language. (National Institute of Statistics, 2014)

Interactions between the Turkish and Romanian language are also extremely present and visible in the literary sphere. Thus, in the nineteenth century, one of the most prolific eras in Romanian literature, highly celebrated Romanian writers such as; Vasile Alecsandri, Mihai Eminescu, Ion Creangă, I. L. Caragiale, Constantin Negruzzi, Alexandru Odobescu, Alexandru Macedonski, Anton Pann, Duiliu Zamfirescu or Nicolae Filimon carried out their literary activity with words borrowed from Turkish. To illustrate this assertion two examples selected from the work of the last novelist mentioned in the list above, Nicolae Filimon (1819-1865) who is best known for his most important work, "Boyars of Old and New", published in 1863, a brilliant fresco of Romanian society in the early nineteenth century will be cited. Filimon writes: *Beyzade opened his hand and found in it fifty-three mahmudiye, which were punctually paid by the baron* (Adrian Costache, 2004). The word "beyzade", taken from Turkish, kept its original meaning, namely the son of a ruler, as well as the word "*mahmudiye*" which means old Turkish gold coin. Moreover: *I get that this game has the devil in him, said chamberlain Andronache Tuzluc*, where the name "Tuzluc" is also borrowed from Turkish. It is true that some of these words are obsolete, being perceived as archaisms, but the fact that the works of these writers are still studied in textbooks and moreover are compulsory readings, even being played on the stages of major theatres or screened becoming famous movies helps these linguistic borrowings we are dealing with to perpetuate from generation to generation, and remain present in contemporary Romanian vocabulary.

Conclusions

The Balkan Peninsula, termed in the classical history as "Haemus", and subsequently, due to the Turkish occupation in the area, began to be referred to as "the Balkans". In some recent sources the name given to the region is "South-East Europe", however it has failed to replace the term "Balkans", which continues to be widely accepted. The substitution of the name Balkans with another word is an attempt meant to erase the Turkish influence in the region (particularly from the cultural standpoint). It can be observed that the culture of the Balkans is actually a mixture of the similar and common cultural heritage of the region with Turkey's cultural heritage. Nevertheless, the historical trend of the states which were formed in this region, in order to create their own national identity, was the attempt to deny or eliminate the Ottoman heritage, yet they were unable to differentiate the cultural factors, in particular the cultural elements, due to the interactions with the Turkish language. This is because "besides the political and diplomatic relations between states

and their populations, there are ties (relationships) based on language, which are more difficult to control" (Kahl, 2009, p. 11). The example given by Kahl regarding Balkan countries is also perfectly true for the study we have conducted.

History has shown that due to the waves of intercontinental migrations, for political, commercial, religious and other reasons, confrontation of different cultures became inevitable. From this point of view, the Balkans was a region where such clashes were experienced in great intensity. Romania, in this region was throughout history a cultural bridge for the Islamic world (Norris, 1993, p. 271). The Romanian historian Răzvan Theodorescu draws our attention to an important aspect by using the term "cultural corridor", as an idea which from at least two tangent points of view is characterised by complexity and mainly entails the possibility to realise and perceive a spiritual geography of the history of civilisation (Giura, 1982, p. 59).

In Romania, the story of this case continues even today. In Germany, due to the different culture and religion of the Turkish people, there are racist prejudices (ethnocentric) in the German society against Turks, which, however, does not occur in the Romanian society. However being a foreigner (and here Turks are being referred to) in Romania does not mean being humiliated or being treated as an inferior creature, but sometimes even provides the opportunity of a positive discrimination. One of the most interesting reflectors of a society's behaviour towards others is during a football game. It is observable that during a Romania-Turkey match the supporters of both teams can peacefully watch the game together whereas if it were a Romania-Hungary game this would be unimaginable by both sides.

One of the thorniest issues of our times, i.e. "inter-cultural conflict", can be avoided, but this cannot be done without being sensitive to cultural differences and similarities. "Common (conventional) intercultural conflicts tend to transform our demarches, but we can develop in a multicultural world with a more comprehensive way of thinking" (Oetzel & Toomey, 2001, p. 195). With the help of education and respect one should accept a different approach to different worldviews, an approach based on creativity, due to the possibility that one can adapt and be flexible. Yet in conflictive situations, different methods, a multiple approach should be jointly used. However, we must be aware of the one-sidedness of people, of the instantaneous and hasty assessments that is made regarding a person, based on ethnocentric (racist) prejudices and of basic cultural references. If only for this reason the benefit of the Turks' presence in the Balkans and their cultural legacy should be appreciated. The Turkish community in Romania, using its own culture and its own values, has demonstrated that it is possible to build bridges of dialogue with other cultures and with other societies. Taking the positive attitude of Romania towards Turks as a starting point we should reassess the Ottoman legacy in the Balkans. In this context, in order to avoid possible cultural conflicts within the former Ottoman Empire, more effective ways of communication between different cultures are yet to be found.

The cultural elements of a society are the ones that define the spirit of national identity and the basic values of society and are even more enhanced when they meet other cultures. The visible part of culture as evinced by gastronomy, architecture, literature, factors such as the legal system and customs can be noticed in the form of rituals and types of conduct. In every culture there are values visible only to a researcher, which cannot be perceived by the members of the respective society, but the researcher using certain methods and behaviours, detects what is accepted by the society, as well as the values of good-bad, true-false, meaningful-nonsensical, useful-useless, thus establishing the genuine social values. Society is a reciprocal relationship between the individuals composing it and those who have a common way of living and sharing the same space. In a society there are unique differences between the individuals composed in terms of religion, politics, family structure, economy, education.

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International Competitiveness of the Food Industry in European Union Member States

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Abstract

The primary purpose of the study was to assess the international competitiveness of the food industry in EU member states in trade to the world market and its changes in the years 2005-2012. The food industry was defined on the basis of the aggregation of departments at the two-digit level 01-09 and 11 of the Standard International Trade Classification SITC Rev. 3. The study uses the following indexes based on foreign trade. The share of export in the global market, the revealed comparative advantage index RCA, in index of import coverage with export and index the Grubel-Lloyd index of intra-industry trade were calculated. Due to the numerous aspects of the competitiveness phenomenon, the aggregate variable was also used for a complex assessment. A synthetic measure of international competitiveness was developed on the basis of the factors referred to above. Data published in the UN Comtrade database was used for the calculations. The conducted research indicates that the international competitive position of the food industry of particular EU member states was diverse. The highest places in the competitiveness ranking were occupied by states of the old EU, such as: the Netherlands, France, Spain and Denmark. Only their order changed, depending on the adopted time criterion. A particular improvement was observed among Central-Eastern European countries which belong to new member states. However, it mainly resulted from the low level of export in the initial period. On this basis, we may state that we should not expect significant changes in the level of international competitiveness of the food industry in particular EU member states in the future (maintaining the present conditions).

Keywords: competitiveness, food industry, international trade

Introduction

Competition is one of the basic economic mechanisms of the market economy. Competing with other entities, understood as rivalry to achieve benefits related to functioning on the domestic and international markets (Misala 2007) is an indispensable element of the activity of each entity. Despite the fact that research on competitiveness has been going on for more than 40 years [1] and the notion competitiveness is currently commonly used both in the theory and in practice of economics, competitiveness still remains a notion which is not clearly defined. The difficulty in defining competitiveness is related to the fact that this is an issue with numerous aspects and dimensions. Competitiveness originates from three economic theories: the theory of economic growth, international trade and microeconomics (Wziątek-Kubiak 2003) and it may be referred to various aggregation levels: domestic economies, industries, regions and companies (Frohberg, Hartman 1997). The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development defines competitiveness as: "the ability of companies, industries, regions, nations or supranational regions to generate, Chile being and remaining exposed to international competition, relatively high factor income and factor employment levels on a sustainable basis" (Hatzichronoglou, 1996, p. 20). The European Commission defines competitiveness as: "the ability of an economy to provide its population with high and rising standards of living and a high level of employment for all those willing to work on a sustainable basis" (European Competitiveness... 2003, p. 19). Regarding the research on sectors of the domestic economy, competitiveness is usually related to the international market and is assessed. Numerous authors accept the competitiveness of industries as: "the ability to profitably gain and maintain market share in domestic and/or foreign markets" (Martin et al., 1991, p. 1456, Pitts and Lagnevik 1997, Fisher and Schornberg, 2007, p. 475). Another definition defines the international competitiveness of a sector as "sustained ability of nation's industry or firms to compete with foreign counterparts in foreign markets as well as in domestic markets under conditions of free trade (Kim and Marion 1995, p. 5). In such understanding, competitiveness is a zero-sum game since the growth in the competitiveness of the industry of one country is related to the decrease in the competitiveness of others. Regarding the food industry,

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[1] The notion competitiveness appeared for the first time in the economic literature in the 1970s. The first attempts to define and determine the degree of the international competitiveness of competing countries were undertaken in a study by the US Department of Labor regarding the commercial expansion and increased export of Japanese companies to the US market (Pawlak 2013).

competitiveness is defined as: "the ability to constantly strengthen and maintain a profitable share in domestic and export markets on which the industry is active" (Wijnands et al., 2006, p. 18).

The topic of competitiveness of the food industry is particularly significant due to the importance of this industry in the economy of the entire European Union and particular member states. The food industry is one of the most important and the most dynamically developing sectors of the European economy. It consists of approx. 287,000 companies. The food industry is the second largest sector of industrial production in terms of added value (after the metal industry). Added value of this industry is 12.5% of added value generated by the production sector and 1.8% of the GDP. The food industry is also the main employer in the EU. Employment in this sector is more than 4.25 million people which is 15.0% of all employees in the production sector (Data&Trends..., 2012). In addition, food is a strategic product. Therefore, the EU, but also numerous countries all over the world, aims at maintaining and improving the competitiveness of food production. The research of Wijands and others (2008) demonstrates a relatively good competitive position of the food industry in such countries as the United States, Brazil, Canada and Australia. The growth in competitiveness on international markets, especially under conditions of growing liberalization of international trade as well as developing integration and globalization, is inevitable and is at the same time a key challenge for the European food industry.

Method

Materials
The study uses statistical data relating to the value of global export and import. The source of data was the UN COMTRADE database. The food industry was defined on the basis of the aggregation of departments separated at the two-digit level according to the Standard International Trade Classification (SITC) Rev. 3: 01 Meat and meat preparations, 02 Dairy products and birds' eggs, 03 Fish (not marine mammals), crustaceans, mollusks and aquatic invertebrates, and preparations thereof, 04 Cereals and cereal preparations, 05 Vegetables and fruit, 06 Sugars, sugar preparations and honey, 07 Coffee, tea, cocoa, spices, and manufactures thereof, 08 Feeding stuff for animals (not including unmilled cereals), 09 Miscellaneous edible products and preparations, 11 Beverages. The time scope of the research covered the years 2005-2012.

Procedure
The research was conducted with the use of a set of four quantity indexes of the international competitive position selected on the basis of substantive premises as well as the availability of statistical data: export market share (EMS), revealed comparative advantage (RCA), trade coverage (TC) as well as Grubel-Lloyd index (GL). Then, a synthetic index of international competitiveness of the food industry was developed on the basis of the measures referred to above.

Export market share is one of the most important and the most popular indexes of the competitive position. It presents the share of a given country in the global export of the food industry:

$$EMS = \frac{E_{Fi}}{E_{FW}}$$

where:
E_{Fi} - export of food products of the country i,
E_{FW} - world export of food products.

The second used index is the Revealed Comparative Advantage of Balassa (Balassa 1965). The index measures the share of the food industry in the country's total export as compared to the share of this industry in the total global export:

$$RCA = \frac{\dfrac{E_{Fi}}{E_i}}{\dfrac{E_{FW}}{E_w}}$$

where:
E_i - total export of the country i,
E_{FW} - world export of food products,
E_w - total world export.

The index assumes values ranging from 0 to infinity, and two intervals of various interpretations are distinguished. If RCA>1, then the share of the food industry in the country's export to the global market is higher than the share of this industry in the total global export. This means that the examined country has revealed comparative advantages in export to this market, and thus is competitive. On the other hand, when 0 <RCA <1, then the share of the food industry in the

export of a given country is lower than the share of this industry in the global export and the examined country does not revealed comparative advantages in export to the global market.

Trade Coverage refers to one of the simplest and, at the same time, basic measures of the competitive position, namely the balance of commercial turnover. Competitiveness is identified with obtaining a surplus in trade exchange. The index determines to what extent income from the export of food products cover the expenses for the import of these products:

$$TC = \frac{E_{Fi}}{I_{Fi}}$$

where:

I_{Fi} - import of food products of the country i.

The TC index's value above 1 means that the country generates a surplus in the trade in food products and, as a result, has competitive advantage in the exchange of products of this group. The value of the index below 1 means a deficit in trade turnover which proves a weak competitive position on foreign markets.

The analysis of intra- and inter-industry exchange is also an important issue regarding the trade in food products. Intra-industry exchange consists in "the simultaneous export and import of products (also assemblies, subassemblies and components) coming from the same branch, being close substitutes in the sphere of consumption, production or in both of these spheres in total" (Grubel, Lloyd 1975, p. 35). The intensity of intra-industry trade was calculated with the use of the Grubel-Lloyd Index (Grubel, Lloyd 1971, p. 496):

$$GL = 1 - \frac{|E_{Fi} - I_{Fi}|}{E_{Fi} + I_{Fi}}$$

The index assumes values from the range <0, 1>. The value 0 means that the entire exchange is of an inter-industry nature (only the export or import of food products is present). The value 1 means that the entire exchange is of an intra-industry nature (the value of export is equal to the value of import). The growth in the importance of this type of exchange is usually treated as a sign of the growth in the country's competitiveness in international trade (Sobków, Łapińska 2008, p. 384).

The numerous aspects of the international competitiveness phenomenon results in the fact that the application of only one-dimension measures for its assessment is insufficient. In order to analyze this phenomenon in a complex manner, it is necessary to apply total methods the idea of which consists in the construction of one aggregate variable. For this reason, a synthetic index of international competitiveness was developed on the basis of international competitiveness indexes referred to above. The values of partial indexes were listed in the form of matrix X:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

where:

x_{ij}- value of j feature in the country i,

i = 1, 2...n, (n = 28) - number of country,

j = 1, 2.., m (m = 4) - number of feature.

Then, their variability was standardized with the use of the standardization procedure and units in which they were expressed were removed:

$$z_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij} - \overline{x_j}}{S_j}$$

where:

z_{ij}- value of standardized j feature in the country i,

x_{ij} - value of j feature in the country i,

$\overline{x_j}$ - arithmetic mean of j feature,

S_j- standard deviation of j feature.

Matrix Z of standardized values of initial features was obtained as a result of such transformation:

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} z_{11} & \cdots & z_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ z_{n1} & \cdots & z_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

The obtained standardized variables z_{ij} had a constant variance equal to 1 and an arithmetic mean equal to 0 as well as identical names and scopes of variability and could be compared as well as aggregated. A non-model method was used to develop the synthetic index of international competitiveness (IC). The method consists in averaging the standardized values of diagnostic features, namely four partial indexes of international competitiveness:

$$IC_i = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} z_{ij}$$

IC_i - the International Competitiveness Index.

The higher the values of this index, the higher the level of the country's international competitiveness on the global market. Rankings of the competitiveness of the food industry in EU member states were created on the basis of the synthetic index.

Results

The primary purpose of the study was to assess the international competitiveness of the food industry in EU member states in trade to the world market and its changes in the years 2005-2012.

Findings of Export Market Share

Countries of the old EU had the largest significance on the global export market of food products throughout the analyzed period 2005-2012 (Table 1). Germany, the Netherlands and France unquestionably occupied the highest places among EU exporters. The share of each of these countries in the global export of food products exceeded 6%. A group of countries which were significant in terms of share in the global export market also included Spain, Belgium, Italy and Great Britain in which the share in the global market in 2012 amounted to 2.64%-3.77%. Countries in which the share was higher than 1% also included: Denmark, Ireland, Austria as well as Poland, which is the largest food exporter among countries of the new EU. Only Poland recorded a growth in the share of export (by 0.49 percentage points) among all countries referred to above. A considerable improvement could also be noticed in other countries of Central and Eastern Europe: Romania (0.23 pp), Lithuania (0.21 pp), Hungary (0.12 pp), Bulgaria (0.11 pp), Latvia (0.11 pp), Slovakia (0.10 pp), the Czech Republic (0.09 pp), Estonia (0.04 pp) and Slovenia (0.01 pp). The growth in the export of food products in these countries was related, above all, to the accession to the EU and the liberalization of trade within the Community. However, it is worth noting that despite the growth in the value of export, the significance of these countries on the global market is still marginal - their share in the global export market did not exceed 1%. The least competitive countries, due to a small share in the global market and its negative changes, include: Cyprus, Finland, Greece as well as Luxembourg.

Findings of Revealed Comparative Advantage index

In order to assess the competitiveness of the food industry of particular EU member states, it is important to identify the importance of the export of this industry not only on the global food market but also in the country's total export. The concept of revealed comparative advantage according to Ballasa assumes the comparison of the share of the food industry in the country's total export with the share of this industry in the global export (Table 2). The analysis of the RCA index indicates the fact that Latvia, Denmark, Cyprus, Lithuania, Greece and Spain demonstrated the largest comparative advantages. The significance of the food industry in the country's total export in these countries was more than twice as high as the respective share in the total global export. In the examined period Latvia and Lithuania strengthened comparative advantages in export to the global market (growth in RCA respectively by 42.20%; 25.01%), while Greece, Denmark, Spain and Cyprus reduced them (reduction in RCA respectively by 24.03%, 13.90%, 6.44%, 4.24%). The following countries had smaller comparative advantages: the Netherlands, France, Croatia, Poland, Bulgaria, Ireland, Portugal, Belgium, Estonia, Italy, Hungary and Austria. Most of these countries, except for Estonia, Belgium and the Netherlands, strengthened their competitiveness in this respect. Malta was the only country which lost its comparative advantages regarding products of the food industry in the analyzed period. The RCA index in Malta decreased from the level 1.03 in 2005 to the level 0.66 in 2012 (by 35.38%). 8 EU member states did not obtain comparative advantages throughout the entire analyzed period. This suggests a relatively small importance of the food industry in the total export of these countries. These include: Great Britain, Romania, Germany, Malta, Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Slovenia as well as Finland. In most of these countries, except for the Czech Republic and Slovakia, a growth in the RCA index was observed. Romania definitely had the largest one (187.25%).

Findings of Trade Coverage

The growth in the export and import of food products in all Community states was common in the analyzed period. Relations between these categories are significant in the context of the competitiveness of this industry. 11 member states obtained an advantage in the value of export over import throughout the entire analyzed period (Table 3). In 2012 Hungary recorded relatively the largest surplus in trade exchange in the Community scale, measured with the value of the TC index (1.85). Hungary's income from the export of food products exceeded the expenses on account of import almost twice. Countries which ranked on further places regarding the value of the TC index included Denmark (1.54), the Netherlands (1.46), Ireland (1.44), Poland (1.41) and Spain (1.31). Net exporters, namely competitive countries, also included France (1.28), Lithuania (1.27), Belgium (1.19), Bulgaria (1.14) as well as Latvia (1.14). In the absolute perspective, countries of the old EU obtained definitely the largest value of commercial surplus: the Netherlands (USD 21 trillion) and then France (USD 14 trillion), Spain (USD 9 trillion), Denmark (USD 6 trillion) and Belgium (USD 5.8 trillion). In the analyzed period Austria evolved from an exporter into a net importer. This resulted from a greater growth in the import of food products than export. Throughout the entire analyzed period the remaining 16 member states recorded a negative balance of foreign trade in food and were net importers. Among these countries, in 2012 income from the export of food products covered the expenses for import to the greatest extent in Italy (0.95), Germany (0.91) and Estonia (0.89). A relatively high trade deficit, measured with the value of TC, was recorded in Croatia (0.63), the Czech Republic (0.76), Finland (0.39), Greece (0.73), Luxembourg (0.46), Malta (0.35), Portugal (0.59), Slovakia (0.77), Slovenia (0.45) Sweden (0.57), Great Britain (0.49) and Romania (0.69). The least favorable situation was recorded in Cyprus where the import was almost four times larger than the export.

The largest changes in the TC index values in the analyzed period were recorded in Bulgaria (increase by 186.30%). An almost sevenfold growth in export with the simultaneous but significantly slower growth in import of food which grew more than twice played a key role. Significant favorable changes were also recorded in Latvia (increase by 72.55%, as a result of growth in export by 291.59% and growth in import by 126.94%), Greece (increase by 43.17%, as a result of growth in export by 76.46% and import by 23.25%) and Portugal (increase by 38.19%, as a result of growth in export by 112.25% and import by 53.80%).

Findings of Grubel-Lloyd Index

The analysis of two-way trade was another one of the applied methods to assess the competitive position of a given country in the international exchange of goods. The analysis of the Grubel-Lloyd index indicates a significant share of intra-industry exchange in most Community countries (Table 4). In some countries, even more than 90% of exchange was of an intra-industry nature. This type of exchange was the dominant form of trade in food industry products in Austria, Italy, Germany, Estonia, Latvia and Belgium. It should be assumed that it was these countries which obtained the majority of benefits related to the following factors: the diversity of products offered on markets, growing benefits of the scale as well as the growth in the effectiveness of using production factors. The Czech Republic, Greece, Ireland, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania and Spain also conducted an intensive intra-industry exchange. Countries which were distinguished by the lowest level intensity of intra-industry exchange included Cyprus, Finland, Luxembourg, Malta as well as Great Britain. The significance of intra-industry turnover in the analyzed period increased to the greatest extent in Romania in which the Grubel-Lloyd index increased from the level 0.39 in 2005 to the level 0.82 in 2012 (increase by 110.31%).

Findings of International Competitiveness Index

The synthetic index of international competitiveness enables a total assessment of competitiveness including various aspects of this phenomenon (Table 5). The highest competitiveness of the food industry throughout the entire analyzed period was demonstrated by the same countries, only their order changed. The first position, since 2009, was occupied by the Netherlands, the second position - France which previously were ranked in the opposite order. Spain was ranked third, since 2008, Denmark was fourth. In the years 2005-2007, these countries occupied the fourth and third places, respectively. Latvia was ranked 5th. In the analyzed period, this country moved up 10 places. Romania also recorded a significant improvement in competitiveness. It moved from the last place in 2005 to the 21st place in 2012, as well as Portugal which moved up 3 places and was finally ranked 20th. The growth in synthetic measure was also recorded in Germany, Poland, Italy, Bulgaria and Croatia which, however, kept their places and in Hungary and Greece which moved down one position despite a growth in the value of the synthetic index (respectively to the 15th and 14th place). The total assessment demonstrates the fact that the least competitive countries included Malta, Finland, Slovenia, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Sweden, and the largest drops in the ranking of competitiveness related to Cyprus (by 5 positions) as

well as Ireland (by 4 positions). Negative changes regarding the competitiveness of the food industry also related to Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Malta, Slovenia Sweden and Great Britain.

Discussion

The European Union is the largest exporter of agricultural and food products in the world (Bułkowska 2011). The research of Wijnands and others 2008 demonstrates, however, that the competitiveness of the food industry of the European Union on the global market measured by the synthetic index taking into account indexes of international trade, work productivity, the share of the food industry in the total industry as well as the growth in added value is relatively low as compared to such countries as the United States and Canada and on a similar level as Australia and Brazil. Old member states still play the dominant role on the international market among Community countries. In the years 2005-2012 the highest competitive positions were occupied the same countries: the Netherlands, France, Spain and Denmark, only their order changed depending on the adopted time horizon. The Netherlands, France and Germany are the largest food exporters to the global market, after the United States. Brazil occupies the next place. It replaced Spain on the fourth position, and previously Canada (Bułkowska 2011). The research of Carraresi L. and Banterle (2008) indicates the fact that Germany, France and the Netherlands demonstrate the largest share in the export of food and agricultural products also on in the intra-community market. The Netherlands, France and Denmark also obtained high comparative advantages, a positive trade balance in the exchange of food products on the global market as well as a large share of inter-industry nature. The food industry in Germany does not reach revealed comparative advantages, on the other hand, which indicates a relatively small significance of this industry in the total domestic export and recorded a negative balance of foreign trade in food products. For this reason, Germany was ranked only on the 6th position in the total assessment of international competitiveness despite a large share in the global export market.

New EU member states recorded the largest improvement in competitiveness. The expansion of the Community resulted in the effect of trade creation and the development of intra-community trade, including agricultural and food products (Pawlak et al., 2010). Issues regarding changes in competitiveness of the EU food industry in the context of the Community's expansion is the subject of research, among others, by Carraresi L. and Banterle (2013) as well as Drabik and Bartova L. (2008). The conducted research suggests that a particularly high growth in the competitiveness of the food industry was recorded in Romania and Latvia. Poland had the largest share in the global export of food products among new member states. The significance of the food industry in this country is also emphasized by Antiminiani and others (2008). The authors indicate the fact that it is characterized by the largest competitive potential of this industry on the EU market among states of the new EU - similar to countries of the old EU, in particular to Germany. Poland's competitiveness is also confirmed by the scale of the surplus of commercial turnover measured with the TC index. The significance of other countries from Eastern Europe as well as Cyprus and Malta is, on the other hand, marginal. We should not expect significant changes in the level of international competitiveness of the food industry in particular EU member states in the future (maintaining the present conditions).

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Tables

Table 1. Level and changes in share of export in the global market of the food industry of EU member states in the years 2005-2012.

No.	Country	Share of export in the global market of the food industry of EU member states [%] in:								Change in the years 2005-2012 [percentage points]
		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	
1	Austria	1,17	1,18	1,18	1,15	1,10	1,03	1,03	1,03	-0,14
2	Belgium	4,38	4,29	4,25	4,17	4,03	3,68	3,61	3,62	-0,76
3	Bulgaria	0,16	0,15	0,15	0,22	0,22	0,24	0,25	0,27	0,11
4	Croatia	0,13	0,16	0,15	0,13	0,14	0,12	0,12	0,13	0,00
5	Cyprus	0,04	0,04	0,04	0,03	0,03	0,03	0,03	0,03	-0,01
6	Czech Republic	0,46	0,46	0,51	0,52	0,51	0,45	0,51	0,55	0,09
7	Denmark	2,38	2,34	2,17	2,03	1,95	1,78	1,72	1,67	-0,71
8	Estonia	0,11	0,11	0,14	0,13	0,12	0,13	0,14	0,15	0,04
9	Finland	0,20	0,21	0,23	0,22	0,18	0,19	0,20	0,19	-0,01
10	France	7,46	7,24	7,19	6,99	6,48	6,19	6,32	6,20	-1,26
11	Germany	6,70	6,77	6,69	6,82	6,82	6,34	6,48	6,44	-0,25
12	Greece	0,48	0,49	0,49	0,47	0,50	0,48	0,45	0,47	-0,01
13	Hungary	0,58	0,58	0,70	0,72	0,66	0,65	0,68	0,71	0,12
14	Ireland	1,57	1,59	1,58	1,32	1,20	1,14	1,14	1,11	-0,46
15	Italy	3,91	3,84	3,88	3,82	3,77	3,60	3,51	3,52	-0,39
16	Latvia	0,10	0,11	0,12	0,14	0,13	0,15	0,15	0,21	0,11
17	Lithuania	0,22	0,26	0,33	0,36	0,33	0,34	0,36	0,44	0,21
18	Luxembourg	0,12	0,11	0,10	0,10	0,11	0,10	0,10	0,10	-0,02
19	Malta	0,02	0,03	0,03	0,03	0,01	0,02	0,02	0,02	0,00
20	Netherlands	6,46	6,43	6,62	6,41	6,43	6,11	6,51	6,44	-0,02
21	Poland	1,35	1,44	1,55	1,62	1,59	1,62	1,69	1,84	0,50
22	Portugal	0,44	0,45	0,49	0,49	0,50	0,50	0,50	0,52	0,08
23	Romania	0,08	0,09	0,10	0,18	0,20	0,25	0,28	0,31	0,23
24	Slovakia	0,22	0,25	0,26	0,25	0,26	0,25	0,28	0,33	0,10
25	Slovenia	0,08	0,09	0,11	0,11	0,11	0,09	0,09	0,09	0,00
26	Spain	4,27	4,11	4,06	3,91	3,97	3,65	3,58	3,77	-0,50
27	Sweden	0,75	0,78	0,76	0,76	0,75	0,78	0,75	0,77	0,02
28	Great Britain	3,11	2,96	2,94	2,64	2,62	2,63	2,67	2,64	-0,47

Source: prepared by the author on the basis of UN COMTRADE - http://comtrade.un.org

Table 2. Level and dynamics of the RCA index in the food industry in EU member states in the years 2005-2012

No.	Country	Level of the RCA index in the food industry in EU member states [%] in:								Pace of changes in the years 2005-2012 [%]
		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	
1	Austria	1,01	1,04	1,02	1,05	1,02	1,05	1,05	1,03	2,47
2	Belgium	1,33	1,38	1,34	1,37	1,33	1,32	1,31	1,29	-2,79
3	Bulgaria	1,36	1,19	1,12	1,51	1,61	1,75	1,54	1,60	17,94
4	Croatia	1,55	1,58	1,63	1,45	1,65	1,55	1,57	1,66	7,63
5	Cyprus	2,52	2,94	3,31	3,08	2,69	2,76	2,74	2,41	-4,24
6	Czech Republic	0,60	0,58	0,57	0,56	0,55	0,51	0,54	0,57	-6,26
7	Denmark	2,94	3,03	2,88	2,73	2,56	2,73	2,63	2,53	-13,90
8	Estonia	1,35	1,32	1,57	1,46	1,35	1,44	1,29	1,28	-5,00
9	Finland	0,32	0,32	0,35	0,35	0,35	0,39	0,44	0,42	31,35
10	France	1,75	1,80	1,81	1,84	1,70	1,79	1,88	1,78	1,94
11	Germany	0,70	0,72	0,68	0,73	0,74	0,74	0,75	0,73	4,36
12	Greece	2,82	2,81	2,81	2,91	3,03	3,26	2,46	2,14	-24,03
13	Hungary	0,95	0,93	1,01	1,05	0,97	1,02	1,05	1,10	15,15
14	Ireland	1,45	1,74	1,75	1,63	1,25	1,43	1,55	1,50	3,74
15	Italy	1,06	1,09	1,05	1,10	1,13	1,19	1,16	1,12	5,34
16	Latvia	1,84	2,15	2,06	2,41	2,29	2,45	2,16	2,62	42,20
17	Lithuania	1,88	2,22	2,57	2,36	2,40	2,42	2,22	2,35	25,01
18	Luxembourg	0,92	0,92	0,87	0,93	1,03	1,08	1,04	1,12	22,00
19	Malta	1,03	1,09	1,27	1,39	0,67	0,82	0,59	0,66	-35,38
20	Netherlands	1,88	1,90	1,88	1,84	1,82	1,83	2,12	1,85	-1,20
21	Poland	1,53	1,56	1,51	1,47	1,42	1,53	1,55	1,64	7,05
22	Portugal	1,17	1,24	1,29	1,38	1,39	1,52	1,48	1,41	20,45
23	Romania	0,30	0,33	0,32	0,58	0,61	0,76	0,78	0,86	187,25
24	Slovakia	0,71	0,70	0,61	0,55	0,57	0,57	0,62	0,65	-9,50%
25	Slovenia	0,48	0,53	0,55	0,59	0,60	0,57	0,56	0,53	9,47%
26	Spain	2,25	2,28	2,17	2,19	2,17	2,19	2,07	2,11	-6,44
27	Sweden	0,59	0,63	0,61	0,65	0,70	0,73	0,69	0,71	21,37
28	Great Britain	0,82	0,79	0,90	0,90	0,91	0,96	0,97	0,87	6,48

Source: prepared by the author on the basis of UN COMTRADE - http://comtrade.un.org

Table 3. Level and dynamics of the Trade Coverage index in the food industry in EU member states in the years 2005-2012

No.	Country	Level of the Trade Coverage index in the food industry in EU member states [%] in:								Pace of changes in the years 2005-2012 [%]
		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	
1	Austria	1,00	1,05	1,03	1,01	0,97	1,01	1,01	0,9931	-0,97
2	Belgium	1,17	1,18	1,15	1,14	1,17	1,21	1,17	1,19	1,72
3	Bulgaria	1,23	1,02	0,80	0,93	0,90	1,10	1,06	1,14	-6,97
4	Croatia	0,57	0,68	0,62	0,54	0,63	0,63	0,60	0,63	11,14
5	Cyprus	0,33	0,29	0,28	0,24	0,23	0,23	0,27	0,25	-23,41
6	Czech Republic	0,73	0,68	0,70	0,71	0,69	0,67	0,71	0,76	5,01
7	Denmark	1,73	1,68	1,60	1,53	1,62	1,54	1,51	1,54	-11,19
8	Estonia	0,69	0,69	0,75	0,72	0,71	0,79	0,82	0,89	28,48
9	Finland	0,42	0,44	0,47	0,44	0,35	0,39	0,42	0,39	-5,46
10	France	1,29	1,31	1,29	1,29	1,17	1,23	1,29	1,28	-0,89
11	Germany	0,79	0,81	0,84	0,88	0,88	0,88	0,88	0,91	15,93
12	Greece	0,51	0,52	0,50	0,51	0,56	0,63	0,63	0,73	43,17
13	Hungary	1,41	1,40	1,57	1,54	1,54	1,65	1,67	1,85	31,31
14	Ireland	1,78	1,76	1,68	1,53	1,42	1,51	1,55	1,44	-18,78
15	Italy	0,86	0,86	0,88	0,92	0,92	0,94	0,90	0,95	10,43
16	Latvia	0,66	0,65	0,65	0,73	0,79	0,89	0,87	1,14	72,55
17	Lithuania	1,16	1,12	1,20	1,10	1,18	1,19	1,17	1,27	9,84
18	Luxembourg	0,43	0,43	0,43	0,44	0,43	0,46	0,47	0,46	5,42
19	Malta	0,33	0,36	0,36	0,34	0,17	0,32	0,29	0,35	6,23
20	Netherlands	1,65	1,63	1,58	1,51	1,54	1,57	1,48	1,46	-11,73
21	Poland	1,40	1,41	1,29	1,19	1,24	1,26	1,28	1,41	0,66
22	Portugal	0,42	0,45	0,45	0,48	0,51	0,52	0,54	0,59	38,19
23	Romania	0,24	0,24	0,19	0,33	0,39	0,59	0,64	0,69	186,30
24	Slovakia	0,72	0,76	0,71	0,61	0,61	0,62	0,70	0,77	7,98
25	Slovenia	0,45	0,47	0,47	0,47	0,47	0,46	0,45	0,45	-0,46
26	Spain	1,09	1,09	1,04	1,08	1,20	1,21	1,19	1,31	19,33
27	Sweden	0,56	0,56	0,54	0,56	0,55	0,58	0,57	0,57	2,24
28	Great Britain	0,43	0,43	0,43	0,43	0,44	0,48	0,50	0,49	13,73

Source: prepared by the author on the basis of UN COMTRADE - http://comtrade.un.org

Table 4. Level and dynamics of the Grubel-Lloyd index in the food industry in EU member states in the years 2005-2012

No.	Country	Level of the Grubel-Lloyd index in the food industry in EU member states [%] in:								Pace of changes in the years 2005-2012 [%]
		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	
1	Austria	1,00	0,98	0,99	0,99	0,99	1,00	0,99	1,00	-0,21
2	Belgium	0,92	0,92	0,93	0,94	0,92	0,91	0,92	0,91	-0,92
3	Bulgaria	0,90	0,99	0,89	0,96	0,95	0,95	0,97	0,93	4,00
4	Croatia	0,73	0,81	0,76	0,70	0,77	0,77	0,75	0,78	6,81
5	Cyprus	0,49	0,45	0,43	0,39	0,37	0,38	0,43	0,40	-18,70
6	Czech Republic	0,84	0,81	0,82	0,83	0,82	0,80	0,83	0,87	2,84
7	Denmark	0,73	0,75	0,77	0,79	0,76	0,79	0,80	0,79	7,64
8	Estonia	0,82	0,82	0,86	0,83	0,83	0,88	0,90	0,94	15,05
9	Finland	0,59	0,61	0,64	0,61	0,52	0,57	0,59	0,56	-3,92
10	France	0,87	0,87	0,87	0,88	0,92	0,90	0,87	0,88	0,50
11	Germany	0,88	0,89	0,91	0,94	0,93	0,94	0,94	0,95	8,33
12	Greece	0,68	0,69	0,67	0,68	0,72	0,77	0,78	0,84	24,95
13	Hungary	0,83	0,83	0,78	0,79	0,79	0,75	0,75	0,70	-15,48
14	Ireland	0,72	0,73	0,75	0,79	0,83	0,80	0,78	0,82	13,66
15	Italy	0,92	0,93	0,93	0,96	0,96	0,97	0,95	0,97	5,36
16	Latvia	0,79	0,79	0,79	0,85	0,88	0,94	0,93	0,94	17,77
17	Lithuania	0,93	0,94	0,91	0,95	0,92	0,91	0,92	0,88	-5,01
18	Luxembourg	0,60	0,60	0,60	0,61	0,61	0,63	0,64	0,63	3,72
19	Malta	0,49	0,53	0,53	0,51	0,29	0,48	0,45	0,52	4,63
20	Netherlands	0,75	0,76	0,77	0,80	0,79	0,78	0,81	0,81	7,89
21	Poland	0,83	0,83	0,87	0,91	0,89	0,89	0,88	0,83	-0,39
22	Portugal	0,60	0,62	0,62	0,65	0,67	0,69	0,70	0,74	24,09
23	Romania	0,39	0,38	0,32	0,49	0,57	0,74	0,78	0,82	110,31
24	Slovakia	0,83	0,86	0,83	0,76	0,76	0,77	0,82	0,87	4,50
25	Slovenia	0,62	0,64	0,64	0,64	0,64	0,63	0,62	0,62	-0,32
26	Spain	0,96	0,96	0,98	0,96	0,91	0,90	0,91	0,87	-9,17
27	Sweden	0,72	0,72	0,71	0,71	0,71	0,74	0,72	0,73	1,42
28	Great Britain	0,60	0,60	0,60	0,60	0,61	0,65	0,67	0,66	9,22

Source: prepared by the author on the basis of UN COMTRADE - http://comtrade.un.org

Table 5. Level of the synthetic index as well as ranking of the competitiveness of the food industry of EU member states in the years 2005-2012

No.	Country	Level of the synthetic index in the food industry in EU member states [%] in:								Ranking 2005	Ranking 2012
		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012		
1	Austria	0,30	0,28	0,28	0,28	0,23	0,24	0,24	0,19	11	13
2	Belgium	0,74	0,72	0,71	0,72	0,70	0,64	0,63	0,58	5	8
3	Bulgaria	0,28	0,22	-0,09	0,22	0,23	0,36	0,32	0,29	12	12
4	Croatia	-0,29	-0,13	-0,22	-0,44	-0,19	-0,31	-0,35	-0,27	17	17
5	Cyprus	-0,46	-0,47	-0,40	-0,59	-0,65	-0,82	-0,68	-0,86	20	25
6	Czech Republic	-0,31	-0,41	-0,37	-0,38	-0,42	-0,53	-0,47	-0,41	18	19
7	Denmark	1,09	1,05	0,97	0,94	0,92	0,86	0,88	0,81	3	4
8	Estonia	-0,15	-0,20	-0,01	-0,13	-0,15	-0,07	-0,05	0,02	16	16
9	Finland	-1,02	-0,98	-0,89	-0,99	-1,16	-1,16	-1,14	-1,24	27	27
10	France	1,21	1,18	1,18	1,19	1,11	1,10	1,16	1,08	1	2
11	Germany	0,50	0,53	0,57	0,66	0,67	0,63	0,62	0,62	6	6
12	Greece	0,08	0,02	-0,02	0,02	0,21	0,30	0,09	0,13	14	15
13	Hungary	0,17	0,15	0,22	0,23	0,21	0,18	0,19	0,18	13	14
14	Ireland	0,48	0,56	0,56	0,49	0,36	0,36	0,42	0,34	7	11
15	Italy	0,43	0,41	0,43	0,49	0,50	0,52	0,44	0,46	10	10
16	Latvia	-0,03	0,00	-0,03	0,21	0,28	0,44	0,35	0,67	15	5
17	Lithuania	0,48	0,55	0,65	0,61	0,63	0,58	0,57	0,58	8	7
18	Luxembourg	-0,78	-0,81	-0,82	-0,82	-0,75	-0,80	-0,82	-0,84	24	24
19	Malta	-0,99	-0,92	-0,85	-0,90	-1,49	-1,22	-1,42	-1,28	26	28
20	Netherlands	1,16	1,14	1,16	1,14	1,18	1,11	1,28	1,13	2	1
21	Poland	0,46	0,45	0,45	0,46	0,45	0,44	0,47	0,48	9	9
22	Portugal	-0,68	-0,64	-0,60	-0,55	-0,44	-0,47	-0,45	-0,41	23	20
23	Romania	-1,45	-1,46	-1,54	-1,18	-0,96	-0,63	-0,53	-0,45	28	21
24	Slovakia	-0,32	-0,28	-0,36	-0,60	-0,56	-0,62	-0,50	-0,39	19	18
25	Slovenia	-0,90	-0,85	-0,84	-0,87	-0,84	-0,96	-1,04	-1,08	25	26
26	Spain	1,06	1,00	0,96	0,96	0,98	0,92	0,90	0,90	4	3
27	Sweden	-0,58	-0,58	-0,60	-0,61	-0,56	-0,58	-0,66	-0,68	22	23
28	Great Britain	-0,49	-0,54	-0,49	-0,56	-0,49	-0,49	-0,45	-0,55	21	22

Source: prepared by the author on the basis of UN COMTRADE - http://comtrade.un.org

Ecocriticism and Nature Writing .the Trails of the American Approaches

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Abstract

Ecocritical attention has primarily focused on nineteenth– and twentieth-century British and American texts, predominantly non-fiction nature writing, and also nature-conscious fiction and poetry. The paper attempts to shed light to a series of puzzling but response-inciting questions regarding the American gendered approaches to nature, and the niche that Ecocriticism occupies in mainstream American Literature. The study is conceived as a merging of theoretical arguments and textual study. The theoretical part attempts to shed light on such issues as: Ecocritical traits and approaches; European vs. American approaches to nature; and Nature and Women's writing .The focus of the textual study are 10 American Nature Writing non-fiction classics and illustrated considerations of the main topics handled in these works. The study seeks to show that though ecocriticism is attempting to break new trails by going through the untrammeled nature-centered works, humans are failing to go within the unchartered depths of their spirit and consciousness. In terms of distinguishing in between the male gendered nature narrative and the female gendered nature narrative, the paper comes to the conclusion that there is a close connection between the systematic undervaluing of women's writing and the exploitation and abuse of the earth. While male nature writers mostly develop themes such as: the austerity of nature and the wish to explore and alter landscapes to suit the "human design"; the idea of hunting for a "trophy"; grandfather wisdom; wilderness and governmental institutions; earth as a religion, female-centered approaches to nature are marked by the occurrence of such themes as: moral –considerability of non-human beings; disapproval of economism; the bond to the land; anthropogenic destructive tendencies; nature/self consciousness. Nevertheless, although male writers fall into the snares of economism and exploring as a way of controlling, they still implicitly share women's consideration of the unbreakable bond to the earth and their awareness of the impactive immediacy to humankind.

Keywords: ecofeminism, nature writing, female approaches to nature, consciousness.

Introduction

Ecocritical attention has primarily focused on nineteenth– and twentieth-century British and American texts, predominantly non-fiction nature writing, and also nature-conscious fiction and poetry. While first coming to grips with this topic, a series of puzzling but response–inciting questions came into my mind: What is ecocriticism; How can we grapple the interweaving of ecocriticism and nature writing; Are nature and culture interlaced or just separate sides of a dualistic construct; Can we highlight any topical similarities existent in American Nature Writing ; Is women's sensibility to nature just a social/gender construct or a justification emanating out of the tormented female spirit ? Through this paper I will modestly try to provide answers to some of these questions.

My approach to this topic was intended to be impartial and objective. The paper is conceived as a merging of theoretical arguments and textual study. The theoretical part attempts to shed light on such issues as: Ecocritical traits and approaches; European vs. American approaches to nature; and Nature and Women's writing .The focus of the textual study have been 10 American Nature Writing non-fiction classics and illustrated considerations of the main topics handled in these works. While writing about the approach to the topic I purposefully used the word "intended impartial" to refer to my attitude. After a thorough analysis of the classics I almost confidently (but subjectively you may say)came to the conclusion that females (writers or not) have historically been more nature –sensible and environment –conscious.

Ecocriticism –definitions, traits and approaches

The word "ecocriticism", traces back to William Rucker's 1978 essay "Literature and Ecology: An Experiment in Ecocriticism" and apparently lay dormant in critical vocabulary until the 1989 Western Literature Association meeting, when Cheryll Glotfelty revived the term and urged its adoption to refer to the diffuse critical field that had been known as "the study of nature writing". Cheryll's call for an "ecocriticism", was immediately seconded at that same WLA meeting by Glen Love in his Past President's speech, entitled "Revaluing Nature: Toward an Ecological Literary Criticism."

On the last day of the 1993 WLA conference in Wichita, at the end of a session entitled,"Ecocriticism: Reimagining the Way We Write about the West", as people were streaming toward the doors, an older gentleman, clearly befuddled, tried to raise his voice above the haste: "But what IS ecocriticism?" It seems that few people heard him but those who did, recognized a voice crying out in the wilderness. O'Grady and Branch immediately exchanged looks of: "Hey, that fellow deserves an answer--we all do!" This gave space to several polemics focusing on a proper definition of ecocriticism and the consideration of its interdisciplinarity.

Simply defined,

ecocriticism is the study of the relationship between literature and the physical environment.Just as feminist criticism examines language and literature from a gender-conscious perspective, and Marxist criticism brings an awareness of modes of production and economic class to its reading of texts, ecocriticism takes an earth-centered approach to literary studies"(Glotfelty,1996).

Despite the broad scope of inquiry and disparate levels of sophistication, all ecological criticism shares the fundamental premise that human culture is connected to the physical world, affecting it and affected by it. As a critical stance, it has one foot in literature and the other on land; as a theoretical discourse, it negotiates between the human and the nonhuman.

Quite puzzling definitions of ecocriticism came even through the daring anthologies of the time. In the same year of Cheryl Glotfellty's Ecocriticism Reader, Lawrence Buell published The Environmental Imagination, where he defines "ecocriticism"as[a] study of the relationship between literature and the environment conducted in a spirit of commitment to environmentalist praxis."(Buell, 1995:430). According to a much simpler but inclusive definition ecocriticism is "the work of scholars who "would rather be hiking." It speaks for nature, wildness, and the West, while conflating these terms."(Thoreau, 1906).

Through ecocriticism we do not just analyze nature in literature; we move toward a more biocentric world-view, an extension of ethics, a broadening of humans' conception of global community to include nonhuman life forms and the physical environment. Topical considerations of gender, race,class, and ethnicity have fixed themselves as positions within ecocriticism's inherited cultural construction. So ecocriticism is may also certainly be considered a part of cultural studies, since it focuses on literary expression of human experience primarily in a naturally and consequently in a culturally shaped world: the joys of abundance, sorrows of deprivation, hopes for harmonious existence, and fears of loss and disaster.

Ecocritics and theorists try to provide answers to questions like the following: Is "literature and environment "a sub-discipline of literary studies, or an extension out of literary studies into environmental sciences?; In what ways has literacy affected humankind's relationship to the natural world?;How has the concept of wilderness changed over time?;To what effect is the environmental crisis seeping into contemporary literature and popular culture?; What role does the physical setting play a work etc.

Ecocriticism has mainly been practiced in Anglophone tradition of literary criticism. Chief among the British ecocritics is Jonathan Bate. In his book Romantic Ecology, he firstly argued that writing about nature was important in its own right and that nature could be considered political in a broader sense. Since 1991, Bate has refined his thesis, stressing

now not so much the red-green conflict as the need for texts to refer to something "out there", to the otherness of the natural world which fills us with humanity. In America the "backpacking school of criticism", appealed to the instinctive American love of the frontier and the wild west. Native American writers were thought to be in touch with their surroundings and served as touchstones for library-bound academics.

Ecocriticism is confronted from the start with a spectrum of different and not always compatible approaches to the environment: the "discursive construction", which foregrounds the extent to which the very distinction of nature and culture is itself dependent on specific cultural values; the "aesthetic construction", which places value on nature for its beauty, complexity, or wildness; the "political construction", which emphasizes the power interests that inform any valuation or devaluation of nature; and the "scientific construction" ,which aims at the description of the functioning of natural systems. Within ecocriticism itself we face a distinction between "social ecology" and "deep ecology". According to the former it is ultimately human needs and societal well-being which must determine our approach to nature, whereas according to the latter, nature has value in and of itself, independently of its functions for human society .

Ecocriticism has currency within The Association for the Study of Literature and Environment (ASLE), established in 1992 at a special session of a Western Literature Association conference in Reno, Nevada. ASLE publishes ASLE News (biannually) and, since 1993,Interdisciplinary Studies in Literature and Environment (ISLE), the official biannual journal.

Initially, ecocritics focused on "nature writing" in specifically "environmental texts". But Lawrence Buell set an interest in an "environmentally oriented work". At bottom,ecocriticism needs to import scientific authority in order to combat two positions 1)that culture can be a refuge from nature, and 2)that nature is merely a cultural construction.

As already mentioned in the first part, ecocriticism analyzes the role that the natural environment plays in the imagination of a cultural community at a specific historical moment, how the concept of "nature" is defined, what values are assigned to it and why, and the way in which the relationship between humans and nature is envisioned. An important issue of ecocritical focus is representation. There are several models of representation in ecocritical essays. The three main ones are: the "narrative scholarship" model, the "stewardship outlook" and the "conversion narrative model".

Ecocritics believe that part of the trouble with wilderness,is a result of language and rhetoric. There may or may not be such a thing as wilderness, but it is certainly constructed with words in essays remaining within the"prison house of language" ,by failing to go to the grounds. Several established ecocritics like John Elder or Glen Love have moved away from the preservationist outlook, toward an outlook often portrayed as "stewardship"(Webster's New World College Dictionary, 1996),shifting away from an "aggressive anti-anthropocentrism" towards an exploration of "what it means to be human". The practice of taking established nature writers to be reliable theorists on nature writing, and of importing their language into the critical vocabulary, is referred to as the "conversion narrative model." The main controversy still running in ecocritical circles is one between the "anthropocentric" and "ecocentric" theories of representation. The first one conceives everything in the universe in terms of human values while the second assumes that only by protecting the environment, can we make it useful to human beings.

Ecocriticism as a research seems at first sight to lend itself to the construction of interdisciplinary bridges between science and literary or cultural criticism. Nonetheless some sectors of the green movement consider themselves as antagonistic to science, in perceiving it one of the root causes of current ecosystem degradation in its historical conjunction with technology, industrialism, and urbanization. The interdisciplinarity of ecoriticism and its influence have gone so far as to apply environmental terminology to literary texts in highly metaphorical ways. Notions such as ecology, energy, resources, and scarcity have been transferred to texts to the point that literary and environmental ones almost blur their borderlines. Such is the case in William Rueckert's characterization of green plants as "nature's poets"and poems as"green plants" among us. Another dimension of the interdisciplinarity of ecocriticism is the historical one.

The real traits of ecocriticism come into view by further distinguishing it from the other critical approaches and disciplines. So,if in the literary theory "the world" is synonymous with society–the social sphere, ecocriticism expands the notion of the world to include the entire ecosphere. If science delivers value-neutral descriptions of nature, ecocriticism

merges interest in the aesthetic artifacts with criticism toward the ideologically, politically and economically-framed values. According to Michael Cohen the future of ecocriticism will rely on a more analytical method in three ways :1)it will focus on place and region, 2)it will adduce science,3)and it will include critique of global paradigms scientific and cultural.

Nature writing

A seemingly straightforward question which has been drawing the attention of literary critics, ecocritics and naturalists for several decades is: "What is nature?"In the Encyclopedia Britannica[1] the concept of nature merges its "creative and controlling force"with"the original simplified mode of life. While Encarta Encyclopedia Deluxe stresses the fact that "nature controls the phenomena of the physical world independently of human volition or intervention" and intertwines it with the consideration of nature as "a basic state of existence untouched or uninfluenced by civilization."[2]Shaped through a series of encounters with the natural world, nature has been the focus of a seemingly late developing genre "nature writing".

According to the American ecocriticist, Thomas J.Lyon, nature writing as a genre" includes virtually all instances of texts that contain the potential of merging scientifically correct information with a literary design, enabling the rise of a new, subjective interpretation of "hard facts"(Lyon T. ,1989:7). The most recent definition coming through the articles of Ecocriticism Reader is one of nature writing as "literary ecocriticism, which embraces both literature and environmental consciousness." In a presentation at the 1995 ASLE conference, John Elder summed up traditionally defined nature writing as "a form of the personal, reflective essay grounded in attentiveness to the natural world and an appreciation of science but also open to the spiritual meaning and intrinsic value of nature."(Armbruster. K, 2001)

Nature writing as a genre, developed in the last two centuries in Europe and the United States as an unintended by-product of the Industrial Age. This genre emerged at a time when "the autonomous life world was reduced to mechanical models of physical reality as exemplified in the popular metaphors such as "spaceship earth" or "man the machine."(Flynn,1994)

The fact that this kind of writing has received critical attention only recently, may lead us to assume that it is a relatively new kind of genre. In fact writing that takes into account the impact nature and place have on culture, is one of the oldest and perhaps most singular threads in American writing. Melville with Moby Dick,Thoreau and novelists such as Willa Cather, John Steinbeck and William Faulkner, may come quickly to our minds. What we can confidently state is that the Native Americans were the major contributors to the development of "nature writing". They respected and revered the land, the environment and the human interrelatedness to that environment in ways foreign to the European immigrants.

A text falls under the category of "nature writing" if:

❖   it is based on immediate, scientifically apt observations of nature.

❖   the first persona narrator is at the same time the actual observer in natural environment.

❖   it directs the reader towards aesthetic appreciation of nature.

❖   it is a non-fiction work that is lyrical, informational and apolitical.

❖   it has rural, wilderness areas or quasi-wild borders as the usual subject.

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[1] Nature -1: the inherent character or basic constitution of a person or thing : essence,2:a creative and controlling force in the universe 7: humankind's original or natural condition b : a simplified mode of life resembling this condition, 9 : natural scenery. *Encyclopedia Brittanica 2004,*Deluxe ed.2004

[2] *Encarta Encyclopedia Deluxe.* Microsoft,2002

❖　it is exploratory and reflective (it learns about and from nature).

❖　it is relational(about the interconnections and interrelationships that form our world).

❖　it is positive(Despite the challenges, difficulties and tragedies in the world, there is inherent hope for changes).

❖　considers the fate of humanity and nature as inseparable.

According to an American ecocriticist, Thomas J.Lyon "nature writing must have three main dimensions to it: natural history information, personal responses to nature, and philosophical interpretation of nature."(Lyon. T.,1989). Patrick D. Murphy has offered another taxonomy which suggests a broader category of "nature-oriented literature" that includes Lyon's nature writing as well as much more. To Murphy the category of "nature writing" is only one of four "modes" of nature-oriented literature. Other modes are "nature literature," environmental writing and environmental literature. Nowadays, nature writing is mistakenly being considered as a hybrid of the conservationist writing voicing an unrecoverable destruction of nature and of humanity and the alienation of man in the society. Central themes of "nature writing "include: landscape, animal and plant life, taxonomies of natural objects, reflections of pastoral or agrarian life, fantasies of the Golden Age or Eden.

Women's nature writing and ecofeminism

Before the current renaissance and blossoming of women's "nature writing", the genre was understood to be largely the province of men. In any collection of nature writing published before the early '90's, male authors outnumbered the female ones: Great American Nature Writing(1950) five to twenty-seven, Our Natural World (1969),ten to eighty –nine, The Norton Book of Nature Writing(1990) fifteen to ninety-four.

An extreme case of gender discriminations was that of Mabel Osgood Wright. The most influential woman in the Bird Conservation Movement, and the first to create a bird sanctuary owned by the State Audubon Society she was the author of a book The Friendship of Nature which was out of print for half a century. It was not until the last two decades of the 20th century that scholars began to recover and draw attention to women's writing as distinct from men's.

Some of the main traits of women's nature writing include:

Homecentredness. It is one of the main traits of women's "nature writing". In women's nature writing we find a tradition that"sees the natural world as an integral part of everyday existence, where the garden outside the front door supplies an experience as immediate and direct as the mountains in the distance"(Edwards, Wolfe, eds.2001).The basic thread running through women's nature writing is the act of "homing in one spot, living with it through the seasons until the rocks, flowers, trees, insects, birds, deer and coyote are family."(Anderson et.al, 2002). These arguments are proved through the frequent occurrence of the word "home" in nature writing books :Homing with the birds(Gene Stratton Porter 1991) Home to wilderness(Sally Carrigar 1973), Island, the Universe, Home(Gretel Ehrlich '91), Always coming home(Ursula K. Le Guin,1985)

Freedom in Nature . To women nature writers, nature meant freedom from the domestic sphere, expansion of the concept of home to encompass the wider world, and being away from a setting where their roles have been so narrowly defined. Terry Tempest Williams was arrested for trespassing on military property while entering the Nevada Test Site to protest against the nuclear testing leading to the cancer deaths of many women. She was put on a bus with other arrested protestors and was let out short of the nearest town. In "The Clan of One-Breasted Women" epilogue to her 1991 book Refuge she writes: "The officials thought it were a cruel joke to leave us stranded in the desert with no way to get home. What they didn't realize was that we were home, soul-centered and strong, women who recognized the sweet smell of sage as fuel for our spirits."(Williams, 1991).

Irrational Writing . This trait emphasizes reliance on modes of knowing the world that are centered in relationships, in the body, in intuition, mysticism, the heart as much as in the rational."Women are considered as writing too personally, as being sentimental and as anthropomorphizing their subjects."(Edwards et al.,2002)

Capacity for Intuitive Judgment: Women nature writers are to be praised not for seeing the world in the way men see it, but for their capacity to see it differently and bring to this new undertaking their intuitive judgment which runs against the reductionist view of the world. They have cultivated a feminine voice, bringing together the qualities of receptivity, gentleness, appreciation for beauty, relationality and reverence for life.

Observing women's nature writing in sequence through time, we can discern some trends suggestive of the way their awareness has developed along with the world they live in .The first awareness is the progressive depletion and impoverishment of the natural world. Caroline Kirkland records "the clearing" at the Michigan frontier in the 1840's and Gene Stratton Porter laments the destruction of trees and game populations during the 1860's.

The second one is the growing identification with the earth itself. The earliest women writers described nature as existing "out there" separate from themselves. A subtle change occurred around the end of the 19th century and this was in the works of Gene Stratton Porter, Sally Carrigar etc. The former, voices her closeness to nature and considers the birds she grew up with as kin, the latter finds a real family in the wild creatures that came to her cabin in Sequoia National Park.

The concept of seeing nature as kin soon developed into 3)seeing it as "self". In her story "The Land", Mary Austin writes : "If the desert were a woman, I know well what like she would be: deep breasted, broad in the hips, tawny, with tawny hair."(Austin, 1987).Terry Tempest Williams similarly writes in Refuge: "There is musculature in dunes. And they are female. Sensuous curves. ..Breasts. Buttocks. Hips and pelvis. They are the natural shapes of Earth. Let me lie naked and disappear."(30)

The awareness that women's oppression is related to the earth's is known as Ecofeminism. It was the French scholar François d'Eaubonne to coin the term in 1974, but in the early twentieth century it was Mary Austin to make the connection between patriarchal oppression of women and that of nature by arguing that liberating women would also free nature. Susan Griffin exposed to the light in 1978 a world hierarchy of domination and control with men at the top, women and nature at the bottom. So there is a close connection between the systematic undervaluing of women's writing and the exploitation and abuse of the earth.

Nature writing classics

Nature writing is a genre of literature that has developed out of close observation and respect for the natural world. Generally, writing in this genre tends toward experiential expressions of the author, narrator's encounters with his/her environment. Having its beginnings in the reflective natural history essay, the genre has broadened to encompass other works that take the environment as a central concern but may not stem from field experiences in the wild, or from reflections on nature. These works are more often referred to as literature of the environment .Two key authors are recognized as the grandfathers of nature writing in the United States: Henry David Thoreau who lived on the East Coast and John Muir who lived on the West Coast.

III.I Henry David Thoreau-Walden, or Life in the Woods

In 1854 Thoreau published the book, Walden or Life in the Woods, the wellspring of American nature writing and a core text of the conservation movement. Arguing that the divine exists in all people, but can be perceived in all of nature, Thoreau considered the environment as the pleasantest of companions. Thoreau was not influenced by Darwin, or such conception as the struggle for existence:"Nature to him was not red in tooth and claw with raving; it was a gentle, friendly, peaceful, alternative to the mean greed and futile toil of man."(UU World,2004). He wrote in a journalistic style, his descriptive prose gliding into a narrative. Considered today as a spiritual autobiography, Walden addresses our condition by its complex interiority, sensory perception and reportage on the natural world.

The themes unfolding through this work are:

1. Man as Part of Nature - Thoreau counters the separation of man from society by conceiving of man as a part of nature. The animals give him companionship and accept him as a familiar part of their environment to the point that he reverses the historically set traditions of man dominating over nature and considers himself as "caged by the birds, by the charm of nature.", "An abode without birds is like meat without seasoning Such was not my abode , for I found myself suddenly neighbor to the birds, not by having imprisoned one, but by having caged myself near them."(Thoreau, 2004). Through his life in the woods, and deriving intellectual stimulation from plants and animals, Thoreau demonstrates that man can live successfully only in the midst of nature: "What is man, but a mass of thawing clay?"(Thoreau, 2004: 246)

Nature is empathetic to him, waiting to blow its coldest winds after Thoreau builds his chimney and plasters his walls. In the cradle of nature he does not feel solitary and enjoys companionship more than ever

> This whole earth which we inhabit is but a point in space. How far apart, think you, dwell the two most distant inhabitants of yonder star...What sort of space is that which separates a man from his fellows and makes him solitary? I have found that no exertion of the legs can bring two minds nearer.(Thoreau, 2004:130).

The Walden Pond is described as mirror. Thoreau's period of melancholy and doubt occurs during the winter when the pond is frozen and nature is silenced, and his joy and exultation is reflected in the thawing of the lake and the growth of new life in spring.

2. Spiritual Rebirth Reflected in Nature and the Seasons –This theme develops along its literal and metaphorical course. Literally speaking the author represents the ever-going and ever-regenerating cycle of life, winter leaves its space to spring, the storm to the sun. Metaphorically speaking the author refers to the slumbering of mankind and the need for a spiritual awakening.

1)The metaphor of rebirth is the author's means of convincing his readers to seek new perspectives on themselves and the world. The cycle of the seasons, with the rebirth of the winter-dormant pond, animals and plants in the spring, functions as the promise of an eventual spiritual birth of humans. Morning is also considered as the time of great self-awareness: "When the wild river valley and the woods were bathed in so pure and bright a light as would have waked a dead, if they had been slumbering in their graves, as some suppose. There needs no stronger proof of immortality. All things must live in such a light."(252)

2) Thoreau compares human self to a fathomless pond, to be explored only by the side of nature: "There might be men of genius in the lowest grades of life who take their own view always; who are as bottomless even as Walden Pond was thought to be, though they may be dark and muddy."(141-142)Describing the bug which hatched out of a wooden table after decades, he hopes that someday, even if not immediately such a rebirth will occur within human society.

3. The Destructive Force of Industrial Progress- Thoreau began his life at Walden when the Industrial Revolution was in full force. Choosing to transfer there on Independence Day voiced the fact that he was in search of the real independence, in search of the real self. The impact of the Industrial Revolution upon life is best illustrated in Walden by the locomotive which passes daily by the pond, its whistles and rumbling contrasting with the natural sounds of the birds. People are beginning to be governed by their self-made instruments:"We do not ride on the railroad; it rides upon us"(90)"But lo!Men have become the tools of their tools. The man who independently plucked the fruits when he was hungry, is become a farmer; and he who stood under a tree for shelter, a housekeeper."(85)

According to Thoreau wilderness is the preservation of the world, man is superior in destruction terms, and spiritual tranquility goes through non-interference on nature and natural freedom:"An afternoon sufficed to lay out the land into orchard, wood-lot, and pasture, and to decide what fine oaks or pines should be left to stand before the door ..; and then I let it lie, fallow, perchance, for a man is rich in proportion to the number of things which he can afford to let alone(76).Dealings with nature should be based on "enjoyment and relaxation "basis rather than on forced nature work."…Live free and uncommitted. It makes but little difference whether you are committed to a farm or a county jail. "(87)

4. Discovery of the Essential Through a Life of Simplicity - In his first chapter"Economy", Thoreau says that he went to the woods to describe what is really necessary in life, to live deliberately so that when he died he would not find that he had never really lived. He discovers that, like the petty states of the German Confederacy with the forever fluctuating boundaries, we will always end up in alienation, ruined by luxury and heedless expense if we do not rely on a "rigid economy", simplicity of life and an "elevation of purpose."The pleasing vista southward across the pond, the wide indentation in the hills, the peaks of the bluer distant mountain ranges, "those true-blue coins from heavens own mint "were much more valuable to Thoreau than "the false skin"(fashionable clothing), "elaborate traps to man "(modern buildings), "being needlessly poor"(material wealth), and a rich person's house.(85)

He concludes his book by stating that though natural dreams may seem like castles built in the air, they are yet achievable, it is up to us to make them real:"In proportion as he simplifies his life, the laws of the universe will appear less complex. "If you have built castles in the air, your work need not be lost; that's where they should be. Now put the foundations under them."(257)It is up to us not to feel part of the desperate majority "the mass of men [who] lead lives of quiet desperation."(42) and to "suck out all the marrow of a life." (69), frittered away by detail.

5. Nature , the Self vs. the Divine -Though he was enthralled by the nature around him, Thoreau also went to the woods to consider himself. He believes that there are uncharted depths within us such as will continue to surprise and occupy anyone who explores within. And if this exploration is spoilt and impeded by the humdrum of modern ties and modern technology, we cannot expect to live in harmony with other human beings, and we must realize that we have lost it even within ourselves: "Little is to be expected of that day, if it can be called a day, to which we are not awakened by our genius, but by the mechanical nudging of some servitor, are not awakened by our own newly acquired force and aspirations from within. That man who does not believe that each day contains an earlier, more sacred, and auroral hour that he has yet profaned, has despaired of life and is pursuing a descending and darkening way."(72)

For Thoreau the divine is most sublimely expressed in nature. We will be able to appreciate it only when we will have done away with the petty fears, trivial pleasure and shadows of the reality:"We are enabled to apprehend at all what is sublime and noble by the perpetual instilling and drenching of the reality that surrounds us"(61). He seems to say that there is time left to arise from "half-frozen snake state" to a higher more ethereal life. But no pond is as deep as it seems no life as long as it looks: "Time is but the stream I go fishing in. I drink it, but while I drink I seethe sandy bottom and detect how shallow it is."(64)

III.II Mary Austin –the Land of Little Rain

The Land of Little Rain was one of the early books of Mary Austin. In fourteen sketches, Austin's narrator records her observations of the land and its inhabitants, and traces her journeys through the desert regions of southern and south-eastern California. The book offers an invaluable picture of a "Lost West", a model for man's peaceful coexistence with nature and celebrates the Ute, Shoshone, Mojave and other tribes of the area. The story of The Land of Little Rain really begins with the four-year-old Mary Austin's mystical experience at the walnut tree, during which she recognized her ability to communicate with the spiritual world: "To this day I can recall the Swift inclusive awareness of each for the whole—I in them (plants and animals), and they in me and all of us enclosed in a warm, lucent bubble of livingness."(Byrd, www.snwburd.com/bob/etymology/mary_austin).

Some of the main themes unfolding through the work are:

1.Precipitation and Vegetation -Austin paints a picture of rugged, eroded landscapes, punctuated with sparse, shrubby and spiny plants. Her graphic descriptions capture the nature of the vegetation and the central role of water in a region where it is scarce: "The desert begins with the creosote. This immortal shrub spreads down into Death Valley up to lower timber-line. There is neither poverty of soil, nor species to account for the sparseness of desert growth, but simply that each plant requires more room. So much earth must be pre-empted to extract so much moisture. The real struggle for existence, the real brain of the plant, is underground; above there is room for a rounded perfect growth."(Austin 1903:12) Through these lines the author refers to the "real brain" of plants as being underground –i.e. in the roots and paints a picture of the dependence of plants on water. The scientists in this book write about "rooting strategies", evolutionary adaptations that enable plants to gain access to below ground resources. The author reports results of field studies in Sonoran and Chihuahan desert.

2.The Influence of Man -The book asks how terrestrial vegetation responds to varying precipitation regimes-both the "natural "range of variation that plants have experienced in the past and are adapted to, and the unusual new variation that is due to the activities of modern humans:"Anthropogenic climatic changes and other human impacts are altering species composition, vegetation structure, and ecosystem processes in terrestrial communities."(Weltzin www.uapress.arizona.edu).

3.The Desert -Traditionally the desert has been established as --a place where what is false is stripped away, where transformation is possible and hard lessons are learned. To Austin, the desert is a quality of consciousness and a law unto itself. As she reiterates, "not the law, but the land sets the limit". The immediacy of the earth, the absence of mediating systems and structures, the elemental nature of relationships and transactions, are central to Austin's idea of the value of the desert. She characterizes it as "A land of lost rivers, with little in it to love; yet a land that once visited must be come back to inevitably. If it were not so, there would be little told of it.(Austin, 2-3) Even the characters seem to suit to the demands of the desert, and take its traits. The "Walking Woman" has become over time, "twisted "like a Joshua tree in the wind, a very portrait of the desert in human form: "The desert had got him!"(Austin 1907:245), a phrase used to describe characters who have fully accommodated and submitted to the desert's demands.

4.Land and Culture -According to Austin, land breeds qualities such as hardiness, adaptability and frugality into the various animal and human, mineral and vegetable inhabitants of the region. She is interested in how natural patterns shape the culture, and so she directs attention to Euro-,Hispanic-and Native American communities, and likewise to representative individuals who mediate between their communities and the land.

III.III Rachel Carson –Silent Spring

Rachel Carson has been called the founder of the U.S. environmental movement, which some date plausibly, to the publication of Silent Spring in 1962.That best-selling book focused public attention on the problem of pesticide and other chemical pollution and led to such landmark legislation as the U.S.Clean Water Act and the banning of DDT in many countries through the world. Carson explains the title of her work by claiming that over increasingly large areas of the United States, spring now comes unheralded by the return of birds, and the early mornings are strangely silent where once they were furnished with the beauty of bird song. Carson emphasizes the relationship of mankind to nature .According to her "Man, however much he may pretend the contrary, is part of nature," and "there is a great danger that the next generation will have no chance to know nature as we do. If I keep silent I could never again listen to a veer's song without overwhelming self-reproach."(Lear 1997:424).

Carson's Silent Spring rests on easy-to-establish facts. It is filled with short emphatic statements and arguments. Carson developed an environmental ethics with both non-anthropocentric and enlightened anthropocentric traits.Three premises crucial to her environmental ethics are restraint on the basis of human health considerations, the moral considerability of

non-human beings,and the value of humans to preserve a wild nature and a diverse and varied landscape. Silent Spring factually rests on numerous scientific and anecdotal accounts of the use of pesticides,herbicides and other dangerous agricultural and industrial chemicals. Influenced by Schweitzer, Carson wrote of the need for a"Schweitzerian ethic that embraces decent consideration for all living creatures-a true reverence for life."(409)

Carson's Silent Spring develops around such themes and ethical arguments as:

1.Moral Considerability of Non-human Beings -In her novel,Carson recounts a massive dieldrin spraying program to eradicate Japanese beetles in and around Sheldon, Illinois. Robins, meadowlarks, pheasants and other birds were virtually wiped out,so were squirrels. She reflects:

> The question is whether any civilization can wage relentless war on life without destroying itself, and without losing the right to be called civilized …By their very existence, they and their fellows make his life more pleasant. Yet he rewards them with death that is not only sudden but horrible."[1]Observing the ghastly convulsions in poisoned birds at Sheldon, she concludes:"By acquiescing in an act that can cause such suffering to a living creature , who among us is not diminished as a human being.(93-96).

A true civilization does not dominate or destroy the non-human world, it protects and seeks to understand it.

2. Cohabitation of the Human and Non-human World -The interests of the human world largely coincide with those of the non-human world for two reasons:First we inhabit the same environment and we cannot poison other animals without poisoning ourselves.Second,preserving wild nature helps promote human happiness and flourishing. "To the bird catcher,the hunter,the fisherman or the explorer of wild region,anything that destroys the wildlife of an area for even a single year, has deprived him of pleasure to which he has a legitimate right."(84)

3. Disapproval of Economism -Carson criticized   the age as one in which the right to make a dollar at whatever cost is seldom challenged. Corporations and individuals make insatiable demands on the land and nature is reduced to natural resources which humans may fully engross or utterly alter without remorse.

4.Needless "War on Nature"- Carson saw a reveling in power for its own sake and a will to simplify the landscape in order to control it. But the control of nature, "is a phrase conceived in arrogance, born of the Neanderthal age of biology and philosophy, when it was supposed that nature exists for the convenience of man." "[The]extraordinary capacities of life have been ignored by the practitioners of chemical control who have brought to their task…no humility before the vast forces with which they tamper."(261)

5.War to artificiality and simplification -Carson spoke out against artificiality and simplification anticipating our own contemporary concern for the preservation of biodiversity. She insists that all native species have a right to persist in their environments–not just the ones human beings find attractive or useful. And while "we must manage and change much of the landscape to suit our needs, some areas should be left wild, free from human artifice and control."(78)Her opponents countered that the increasing simplification and sterility of modern farm and suburban landscapes, was the cost of progress. These three critiques of economism, domination and artificialization come together in Carson's criticism of government efforts to wipe out sagebrush in the Western United States.

III.IV Edward Abbey -Desert Solitaire, a Season in the Wilderness

Edward Abbey became the sharp-tongued spokesman of the desert and canyonlands of the American West through his work Desert Solitaire. The book centers on Abbey's experience as a ranger in Arches National Park, but it also follows him on various jaunts in the surrounding canyons and mountains. The desert, an element of unifying force through the book, should remain unique, untouched by technology, "solitaire."The arguments in the work are presented as jeremiads, there is a use of detailed adjectival phrases, several listings of thoughts objects of nature, unsparing employment of extended sentences and spontaneity.

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[1] Carson, Rachel. *Silent Spring.* New York :Fawcet World Library, 1962(94)

Some of the arguments unfolding through the novel are:

1.The Cultural Relationship Between Nature, Wilderness and Technology - Abbey acknowledges that the autonomous life and wilderness are now cultural artifacts dependent on the polarities of politics, economics and technology as far as they exist in the minds of those educated in schools of management, forestry. For Abbey there is a reality which exists beyond the illusions of technocracy and this reality is the unsustainability of an elaborate techno-structure dependent for its being entirely upon human consciousness: "There is no lack of water here [in the American Southwest],unless you try to establish a city where no city should be."(Abbey, 1968:145).

2.Wilderness and the Dismantling of Governmental Institutions - For Edward Abbey, wilderness equals utopic anarchism and has a great value to human political freedom: "Government is a social machine whose function is coercion through monopoly of power…The purpose of anarchism is to dismantle such institutions and to prevent their reconstruction."(27)

3.The Loss of Wilderness and the Need for Wildlife Protection –Edward Abbey experiences the loss of wilderness with a blend of anger impertinence and sassiness: "We need more predators!" Abbey proclaims, "The sheepmen complain, it is true, that the coyotes eat some of their lambs. This is true, but do they eat enough? I mean, enough lambs to keep the coyotes sleek, healthy and well fed."(9) So, disputingly and absurdly enough wilderness in Abbey gains priority over mild nature.

III.V Annie Dilliard-Pilgrim at Tinker Creek

Pilgrim at Tinker Creek (1974)is a series of internal monologues and reflections spoken by an unnamed narrator. Over the course of a year, she walks alone through the land surrounding Tinker Creek, located in the Blue Ridge Mountains near Roanoke, Virginia. As she observes the changing of the seasons and the corresponding behaviors of the plants and animals around her, she reflects on the nature of the world and of God who set it in motion. Through a celebratory language, Dillard crosses the customary categories and discriminations of a traditional Western thought. Seldom does she allow herself(or her reader)more than half a paragraph to recover from a bout with uncertainty."Her reportages are disturbed by connections between customary facts and earlier upsetting experience such as epistemological dilemma, some fright or shadow of ecstasy."(Reader's Journal, 1974).

The themes unfolding through the book are:

1.Nature,Beauty and Austerity-Annie Dillard explores nature and describes her experiences completing her "pilgrimage on foot." Generally she writes her narrative with a segregation between the Creek and the Mountain. She considers the Creek, the busy place where everything happens, but it is the mountains where everything is absorbed. Nevertheless the intermingling of serene and "red in tooth and claw" images is remarkable.

Her activities include stalking muskrats at Tinker Creek, closely observing a monarch butterfly migration, taking a sample pond and investigating its contents in the microscope, observing flood take place and playing "King of the meadow "with grasshoppers in a field. Dragon flies seem to dip their tails into the water to see if it is really wet vs. a huge water bug grabbed the end of a frog, sucked out the inside and left only a limp greenness floating on the surface of the water: "It was the way that frog's eyes crumpled. His mouth was a gash of terror; the shining skin of his breast and shoulder shivered once and sagged, reduced to an empty purse; but oh those two snuffed eyes! They crinkled, the comprehension poured out of them as if sense and life had been a mere incidental addition to the idea of eyes, a filling like any jam in a jar that is soon and easily emptied; they flattened, lightless, opaque, and sank.(Dillard 1974:264).

Part of this theme are even the descriptions of unexpected sights. They explode before our eyes startling and amazing. We approach the Osage tree and from the stillness of its leaves, a hundred red-wing blackbirds take flight and disappear: "It was as if the leaves of the Osage orange had been freed from a spell in the form of red-winged blackbirds: they flew from the tree, caught my eye in the sky, and vanished."(17-18).When her old fighting tom cat would jump through her open window in the middle of the night upon her sleeping body, she would waken to find herself covered with bloody paw prints: "I looked as though I had been painted with roses."(1)

2.Nature and Writing -Dillard compares the images of nature to her act of writing. Her words flash like lightening across the page and strike deep, like an Indian's arrow plunging into the heart of game. She likens herself to such an arrow, its wooden shaft with "lightening marks", fissures carved along the shaft to allow blood to drip from the wound to provide a trail to the wounded game: "I am the arrow shaft, carved along my length by unexpected lights and gashes from the very sky, and this book is the straying trail of blood."(12)

3.Nature and Religion - The theme of religion is firstly conveyed in Dillard through the idea of a son of the spirit wind that can live only for three years. This finds deep resonance in the biblical story of Jesus, who can only live for three years after being filled with the Christ spirit during his baptism in the Jordan river. In another passage, she even fears the sacredness of the mountains: "I have never understood why so many mystics of all creeds experience the presence of God on mountaintops. It often feels best to lay low, inconspicuous, instead of waving your spirit around from high places, like a lightening rod."(87-90)

III.VI Leslie Marmon Silko -Ceremony

In her novel, Ceremony, Leslie Marmon Silko illustrates the many paradoxes of American culture, values and history the America's ideal of bravery and the nature of the American tradition of recording history. The novel itself is illustrative of American literary traditions because of its fractured memories, story-like quality and the cyclical nature of family legacies. The main character Tayo is suffering from a sort of post-traumatic stress disorder. To compound his problems, Tayo is half Caucasian and half Native American, so he must deal with the added pressures of biculturalism. The only antidote for his illness and depression are the Native American ceremonies. Some of the themes treated in this novel are:

1.The United States' Relationship with the Natives -The American settlers attempted to destroy the Native American peoples and use the land for their own purposes. Furthermore, the American government subjugated them by forcing them onto Indian reservations : "They see no life, when they look they see only objects."[1]

The relationship becomes even more paradoxical during times of crisis. The Native Americans were drafted to fight for the country that stole their land, yet they were expected to be patriotic, loyal and willing to die for America, "They were America the Beautiful too, this was the land of the free. They had the uniform and didn't look different no more. They got respect."(42).Part of the paradoxical perception of the Native American culture was their commercialization, "The Gallup Ceremonial had been an annual event for a long time. It was good for the tourist business coming through in summertime on Highway 66"(116).They were marginalized and equated to cattle. Like cattle they were considered to be drifting around the country with no land of their own.

2.The America Ideal of Bravery-Peace Through Destruction. According to Silko fighting for one's country was a way of proving one's masculinity. Men attained control over nature by dominating it, the way they did with the female counterparts. "White women never looked at me until I put on that uniform and then by God I was a U.S. Marine and they came crowding around"(40)The attempt to find peace through violent means comes out when the author parallels the intervention of the Americans in global affairs to that in nature: "The destroyers had tricked the white people as completely as they had fooled the Indians and now only a few people understood how the filthy deception worked; only a few knew that the lie was destroying the white people faster than it was destroying the Indian people."(204).The American government perpetuated peace through violence by constructing the atomic bomb on the very land that it took away from the Native peoples: "And the top-secret laboratories where the bomb had been created were in the deep Jemez Mountains on the land the government took from White Pueblo."(246)

3.Oral History and Tradition as an Integral Part of Native American Culture –Passing on wisdom from one generation to the next illustrates how Native American History is very cyclical. In contrast, American history is linear and not as rich in wisdom. It can be readily found in books across the country-while Native Americans must work hard to preserve their rich cultural tradition existing in oral form, and should be praised for their efforts. Leslie Marmon Silko

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[1] Silko, Leslie Marmon. *Ceremony ,*New York :New American Library,1978 (135)

presents the paradoxes spreading through the natural and political fields and is considered a master in paralleling nature writing, biculturalism and racist issues.

Conclusions

Before staring with the unfolding of the conclusions that I have reached throughout my study and research work, I would wish to foreground that according to me, no opinion concerning the culturally/literarily set approaches to nature, can be considered as totally objective and undisputable. The reason why I handled these works from the point of view of the thematic congruencies and convergences they display, was because I intended to show how female attitudes to nature differ from the male ones, and how nature writing developed from an aesthetic genre to an environment-conscious one.

The conclusions I reached are:

❖ Though ecocriticism is attempting to break new trails by going through the untrammeled nature-centered works, humans are failing to go within the unchartered depths of their spirit and consciousness. Yet it is consoling to accept that the traceable development of Nature writing, is marked by an ever–increasing environmental awareness.

❖ Ecocriticism must question more closely the nature of environmental narrative, not praise it, but accept   critique and use it constructively because it speaks within a cultural context. Praxis is possible only in view of "new frontiers" to explore.

❖ There is a close connection between the systematic undervaluing of women's writing and the exploitation and abuse of the earth.

❖ American nature writing as opposed to the European one, is closest to nature and deeply rooted in their ancestors respect and reverence for the land.

❖ Male nature writers mostly develop themes such as: the austerity of nature and the wish to explore and alter landscapes to suit the "human design"; the idea of hunting for a "trophy"; grandfather wisdom; wilderness and governmental institutions; earth as a religion. Female-centered approaches to nature are marked by the occurrence of such themes as: moral –considerability of non-human beings; disapproval of economism; the bond to the land; anthropogenic destructive tendencies; nature/self consciousness.

❖ What nature writers share in common is the awareness that, the earth is inexorably and fatally be altered, and together with it men are precipitating into alienation and estrangement. Though male writers fall into the snares of economism and exploring as a way of controlling, they still implicitly share women's consideration of the unbreakable bond to the earth and their awareness of the impactive immediacy to humankind.

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Education Policy for Globalization: the Malaysian Experiences

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Abstract

Phillipson (1998) argued that "globalization policies serve to ensure that the role of English is maintained and perpetuated. The key player in educational policy is the World Bank." Mazrui (1997) said "the World Bank's real position…encourages the consolidation of the imperial languages in Africa. Its strategies for stabilising and revitalising universities absolutely do not mention of the place of language at tertiary level of African education." According to Stiglitz (2002), "the IMF, the World Bank and the WTO were the three main institutions that govern globalization….they also have been at the centre of the major economic issues for the last two decades". According to Coulmas (1992), the spread of English is linked to modernisation in two ways. Firstly, English is seen as a central tool by which the process of modernisation (globalization) can be achieved particularly in developing societies. Secondly, monolingualism (English) is seen as a practical advantage for modern societies while multilingualism is viewed as a characteristic of traditional societies. The main issue in language policy in any country, especially those categorised as third world countries, is whether the policy is formed according to the agenda of the normal populace or the trans-national corporations. Spring, (1998) argued that "in this scenario elites need to be proficient in English in order to serve their own and global interest, and local languages must facilitate internal policing of an export – oriented economy and attempt to limit social unrest so that this economy can persist. Trans-national corporations are increasingly active in determining the content of education worldwide." Stiglitz (2002) also claimed that "globalization is powerfully driven by international corporations." This development illustrates how the needs and will of these trans-national corporations give rise to producing customer-like citizens more than critical citizens.

Keywords: Education Policy, Globalization, Medium of Instruction Policy

Introduction

As the main key of cultural reproduction, it is appropriate for the World Bank and the trans-national corporations to use education to strengthen and widen their influence. During the Colonial years, English was promoted in these colonized countries as an international communication language - a language to be used for the development of the economy, unity, and others. In the era of globalization today, the English language has achieved this objective as was desired by the colonizers before, to the extent of virtually dominating the global culture and linguistic ecology, while at the same time, many languages are losing their natural speakers and users which would eventually fade away.

Fishman (1996) saw that "the socio-economic factors that are behind the spread of English in most countries of the world and the continued spread of English in former colonies is related more to their engagement in the modern world economy then to any efforts derived from their colonial master." While, Phillipson (1998) added that "it means a western-dominated globalization agenda is set by the trans-national corporations and the IMF and the US military intervening where The World Bank, NAFTA, and WTO policiescontribute to political instability thus provide less favourable conditions for education, democratisation, cultural and linguistic diversity."

In post colonial and post communist settings, educational policy should have multilingual aims and means and build on local resources rather than being articulated in terms of the false dichotomy (Fishman, 1968) between a local language and English. According to Stromquist and Monkman (2000), "innovations affecting the schools, curricula, teacher education, educational governance, and higher education can be linked to globalization initiatives." Normally, the global process can affect the national educational system indirectly as well as directly. In view of the global forces impinging on national economic, political and cultural contexts, governments have to respond by initiating educational changes to meet these global imperatives. At the same time, there are direct effects of globalization on education systems. Nation-states tend to follow global trends on education through *institutional isomorphism* and *educational borrowing.*

According to Davies and Guppy (1997:438), "there are two sets of arguments as why globalization would have some significant effects on educational changes, one being economic globalization and the other global rationalization". The effect of globalization on the potential development of a country depends on the ability of its education and human resource. There are new markets that require better quality products, high technology jobs requiring very skilled labour forces, and rapidly changing tastes, all of which will result in flexible and specialised production and greater worker responsibility. So, the market forces are driving educational reforms. According to Carnoy (2000) "the globalize market creates a worldwide demand for certain kinds of skills such as language, mathematical reasoning, scientific logic and programming, which are associated with higher levels of education."

Globalization should have a profound impact on education because two of the main bases of globalization are knowledge intensive information and innovation. Yet, education does not seem to have changed much at the classroom level. Globalization might be mainly economical or at the same level, political without touching deeply entrenched national institutions such as the formal educational system (Carnoy, 2002). However, in several third world countries, there are great changes witnessed in their respective educational systems where globalization has caused the modification of their medium of instruction policy from using their respective national language to English.

According to Kunio (2000), for a developing country, globalization means the increasing presence of foreign companies that rely heavily on English and the language of communication. When the national economy continues to weaken, more students will pursue their education in English and will be separated from the students that are taught using their mother tongue. When this division occurs, those left at the mercy of the market forces and globalization may be politically unified which will stop future uncertainty and liberalisation. In the extreme, they may even force the government to take a step backwards, and when this occurs, the economy will stop or face a downturn.

According to Daun (2002), a country can respond to globalization in many different ways. The way a country reacts would influence the effect of globalization on education. In general, the reaction of education towards globalization depends on three main factors, which are the economic status, the interpretation of population towards an event, and their ideology towards the role of the public sector and education. In several cases, it was observed that the curriculum content and the medium of instruction had become more diverse.

Malaysia Education System

There is a common phenomenon to all colonized countries, that is, all inherit the educational model of the metropolitan power. Colonial powers in most cases disrupt the traditional educational systems of the colonized and supplement them with systems based on imported models. Miller (1989) viewed that the formal educational policies of India, Sri Lanka, Burma and Malaysia were mould on the English pattern, those of Indo-China on the French, those of Indonesia on the Dutch, and those of the Philippines on the Spanish patterns.The British colonial system of education made its impact on almost every aspect of the education in the colonized countries. In the aspect of curriculum, its contents were almost a carbon copy of that used in the then aristocratically oriented British system. As such, it was, as many authors have generally conceded, not in tune with the pupils' environment nor practical use in their lives (Tuqan, 1974; Altbach, 1978).

According to Bakri (2003), "schools were along racial lines during British. Malay schools were consumed with religious studies and limited to primary level only. Chinese schools were nothing more than fronts for the Communist Party. Tamil schools might as well have been in Tamil Nadu, India. Only the English schools had a multiracial student body. But they were few and necessarily elitist". The colonial system never held out the prospects of integration into indigenous culture to those who attended their schools. The colonial system or schools were marked by diversity (Altbach,1978).

All the National-Type schools in the country had to undergo a change in their language media of instruction to Malaysia Language. The result of this change will be the conversion of National-Type Schools into National Schools. The first conversion was launched in January 1968 with the conversion of English primary schools to National Schools (State the name of the school). The conversion was conducted in stages, by first teaching five subjects in the Malay language in Standard one (I) to three (III) in National-Type English Primary Schools. By 1970, all subjects except English were taught in Malay in Standard one (I). Malay-medium classes had also started in secondary vocational schools in 1968 and in secondary technical schools in 1970. And from 1983 all courses in the local universities were progressively converted to the national language (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Malay language as a Medium of Instruction In Malaysian Education System.

Year	Implementation
1957	National Language was made a compulsory subject at all levels in all assisted primary and secondary schools
1958	The establishment of Malay-medium secondary classes which eventually developed into National Secondary Schools.
1963	**i)** The establishment of the first fully residential Malay-medium Secondary School in Kuala Lumpur – Alam Shah National Secondary School.
	ii) Malay –medium Sixth Form Classes started in Shah Alam National Secondary, Kuala Lumpur.
1965	First batch of Malay-medium pupils admitted to University of Malaya
1968	**i)** First batch of Malay-medium students graduated from University of Malaya. **ii**) Malay-medium classes in Secondary Vocational schools. **iii)** Five subjects taught in Malay Language in Standard 1-3 in National-Type English Primary Schools.
1969	Civics taught in Malay Language in Standard 4 in National-Type English Primary Schools**.**
1970	**i)** All subjects in Standard 1 taught in Malay Language in National-Type English Primary Schools. ii) Geography and History taught in Malay Language in Standard 4 in National-Type English Primary Schools. **iii)** Malay-medium classes in Secondary Technical Schools.
1973	All Arts subjects in Form 1 taught in Malay Language in National-Type English Primary Schools.
1975	i) No more English-medium Remove classes ii) National-Type English Primary Schools were fully converted to National primary Schools.
1976	i) All Arts, Science and Technical subjects in Form 1 taught in Malay Language in National-Type English Secondary Schools. ii) All Arts subjects in Form IV taught in Malay Language.
1978	Arts streams in Form VI (Lower) taught in Malay Language in National-Type English Secondary Schools.
1980	First year in Arts and allied courses taught in Malay Language in the Universities.
1981	All Arts, Science and Technical streams in Form VI (Lower) taught in Malay Language in National-Type English secondary Schools.
1982	National-Type English Secondary Schools fully converted National Secondary Schools.
1983	First year in all courses (Arts, Science, Engineering, Medical, etc.) taught in Malay Language in Universities.

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Source: Ministry of Education, 2002

The medium of instruction in Malay is judged to be successful. It has produced graduates and professionals that help to develop the country. The Malay scholars had created a lot of terms in biology especially for animal and tree name. For example, since 2001 Dr. Mohammad Salleh a world standard professor from entomology, UKM had created hundreds of terms in Malaysia. A group of the beetles were being named with Malay words such as Arthrotus*hijau*, Atrachya*hitam*, Dercetina*bopeng*, Itylus*biru*, Ophrida*kuning*, Monolepta*merah*, and Sphenoraia*tompok*; and other words such as Sarawakiola*ajaib*, Medythia*bukit*, Monolepta*cantik*, Nadrana*dwiwarna*, Podontia*jalur*, Pseudosastra*indah*, Monolepta*kenit*, trichomimastra*kurnia*, Xenoda*lapan*, Paleosepharia*lawa*, Metrioidea*molek* and Liroetiell*warisan*; and from a place such as Aplosonyx*pahangi* and Malay name such as Arcaries*ismaili*. All the terms were recognized by international body and indirectly recognized Malay as international science language (UKM,2004).

The Ministry of Education reintroduce English as a medium of instruction to teach Mathematics and science in all schools, colleges and universities. The stress on English medium on the other hand show that British colonial belief that language can change one's pattern of the output and to see things differently (Barbour, 2000). British wanted as many as Malayan people studied in English medium because it would help the colonial to administrative Malaya pre-independence and post-independence. This objective was fruitful because after 53 years independence, many of the English educated still believe learning English as the best way to face globalization. From the Fifth Educational Conference of 1939, it was shown that the English language was the one great unifying principle in Malaya, while the English schools had the important cultural role and place in the making of Malaya.

This differential valuation as exchange systems between two streams has posed a serious obstacle to Malayan government's stated goal of transforming the Malay medium stream into a unified National School System. After 53 years of independence, the Malay medium schools are National Schools, only by name. Located primarily in rural areas and drawing their student enrolment almost exclusively from the Malay community, the national schools and public higher institutions continue to provide extremely limited access to modernized occupations as compared to the private schools and private higher institutions which used English as their medium of instruction.

The continued weakness of Malay language education relative to that of English has an important political implication due to the fact that this factor has served to undermine the legitimacy of the Alliance government among some important sectors of the Malay community. On the other hand, however, if the government were successful in rapidly reversing the value position of Malay education vis-à-vis the other language streams, it would be in danger of losing the tenuous legitimacy granted to it by the non-Malay communities.

At the tertiary level of education, the policy makers have indicated that the higher education reform is vital to help realize Vision 2020, the national goal to be developed, as an industrial country and to be a hub in education and information technology in the region (Najib, 1996, Fong, 1993, Johari, 1996). At this level,there is no more focus onnation building or national integration. According to Rajendran (2004), ethnic harmony is being taken for granted.

In 1995 (prior to the higher education reform), there were 48 public higher education institutions comprising eight public universities, six polytechnics and 33 teacher-training colleges. By contrast, there were 275 private colleges. In 1995, 11% of the student age cohort was enrolled in higher education – about 50% of them were in public universities. The other 50% were either attending courses in the local private colleges (35%) or studying overseas (14%). In 1985, there were 15,000 students studying in local colleges, and 68,000 students studying in overseas universities, especially in the United Kingdom, the United States and Australia. The majority of these overseas students were privately funded Chinese and Indian students (Lee, 1999).

According to Gill (2004), the policy for a dual medium of instruction has serious social and political implications. Firstly, the private universities have more expensive fees when compared to public universities that receive a large subsidy from the government. This means that the students that enroll in private universities come from middle-class families and Chinese families with high income, while the majority of enrolments in public universities consist of Malays that come from the average and poor families (Gill, 2005). The long-term effect has shown that the university students will divide according to the socio-economic strata and more often than not, the ethnic groups. Thus, the medium of instruction policy would give rise to class and racial division, and not unify the Malaysian citizens.

The dual medium of instruction policy has also caused public university graduates to be at a disadvantage when looking for work in the private sector due to their weak command of the English language. This policy type would cause the Malays graduates to be unable to compete with the Chinese graduates from the private universities. Also, the private companies would be more interested in hiring Chinese graduates than Malay graduates since the majority of the private companies are owned by the Chinese. Yet again, the policy regarding the medium of instruction tends towards the division rather than unification of races.

Conclusion

Rustam (2002) had viewed the nostalgic return to the golden era of revering the English language amongst the general populace as being *creole* and as a crisis in tradition. The creation of a liberalised cultural policy and an unprofessional language policy will cause cultural contamination.For example, many individuals have returned to the craze in naming housing areas, corporate buildings, hotels, banks, schools, cities, and the like with western or foreign sounding names in keeping up with globalisation. Eastern and nationalistic names are considered by this group to be less attractive to customers, even to the extent that it will complicate international relations. If this group of individuals were to triumph, then surely this would mean the end for the Malay language.

In actual fact there is nothing special about the English language with respect to the level of education of a student and in scientific discovery and advancement. This is especially obvious in the scientific field, as the number of important researchers and scientists who have made important discoveries are not dominated by native English speakers, or by English trained individuals. For example, the current joint Nobel Peace Prize winners for Chemical Engineering are Koichi Tanaka from Japan, John Fenn from the United States and Kurt Wuethrich from Switzerland. Tanaka is 43 years old and is the fourth winner from Japan for the past three years and does not hold a PhD (BeritaHarian, 10.12.02).

The expansion of scientific knowledge after the 13th century was achieved according to the language of the scientists. The German scientists recorded their findings in German, the English in English, and the Swedish scientists in Swedish, and so on and so forth. However, in the midst of the multitude of languages there existed a force to find common ground from the knowledge perspective, like getting a legitimate academic verification for each new finding.

Therefore, it is not surprising to find that the advancement of Science during the 20th century had occurred rapidly in many different languages: English, German, Russian, French, Japanese, Chinese and many other languages including BahasaMalaysia in Malaysia which was pioneered by the National University of Malaysia (UKM). Using scientific knowledge recorded in the Russian language, the world has witnessed the first successful space ship built by mankind – the Sputnik was built by Russia and piloted by Yuri Gagarin, the first man in space. Scientific discoveries recorded in English had led to the creation of Apollo II, which brought mankind to the moon. In French, the French scientists had invented the nuclear bomb and had carried out tests in the Pacific Ocean (Shamsul Amri,2002).

The same was observed in the field of Medicine, a branch of applied science. Many important studies had been performed and paramount discoveries had been accomplished in this field, which were carried out as separate research in different languages. The researchers in Japan, including the Nobel Prize winners, had performed their researches in Japanese. The Spanish researchers who were successful in the advancement of several new fields in Pharmacy and Medicine had recorded their findings in Spanish. Obviously the researchers in Australia, Canada, United Kingdom and USA had used English.

In the field of Mathematics, there are many child prodigies below the age of ten and some in their early teens around the world who are granted scholarships in several universities, (like Sofia, a Malay girl studying at the Oxford University) each individual continuing their respective studies. It is obvious that language is not a matter of serious consideration when the universities are dealing with cases such as these.

If we were to say that only one language is responsible for the success in Science, then it would go against history. It would also be foolish to use scientific knowledge to learn a language; which is unheard of anywhere in the world. If we were to review the process of learning a language and the spread of scientific knowledge in various languages above, we would conclude that the two fields are world apart and to use one in an attempt to improve the other would be an incredible flight of the imagination (Hassan,2002).

In conclusion, most of the former Western colonies have not progressed even though they have used Western languages as their official or main language in their system of education. Malaysia, Indonesia, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan and Thailand use their own native languages fully in each of their respective countries. These countries are developed, or currently developing, or at the very least are not included in the list of Least Developed Countries (LDCs) which include 40 former Western colonial countries.

There are many other factors other than language that contribute to the economic development of a country. Some of factors include the capability, honesty, trustworthiness of the government leaders and the natural resources of the country. Fishman's view is obviously influenced by traditional evolutionary Western thinking that assumes a modern language, like English, can bring progress to developing countries. This is the ethnocentric attitude and Western colonial mentality that is consciously or subconsciously expressed through the language planning theory that uses the Western model of progress as the criterion to define the function of language development. The essence behind this theory can be put aside since most of the countries that use English, French or Spanish (that are said to be advanced) as the official language, still have not progressed, and some still stricken by poverty, while several other countries that use their national/official language have become or are becoming developed.

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General Tasks and Authorizations of Poice Inpreliminary Procedure in Kosova

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to reflect the role of Police in preliminary procedure taking into consideration differences in judicial-criminal system of Kosovo, referring in particularity: Investigating role of police in preliminary procedure; Acts that should be undertaken pursuant law authorizations in case of criminal acts; Detaining of persons who are found at the scene of incident; Control foe scene of incident and police security; Informing of suspects toward their rights and finally; Drafting of penal indictment. We are witnesses of the practice toward collecting of acts not as stipulated by the law which cause later problems in the following procedures of Prosecutor and the Courts due to defining and verifying of criminal acts truth.

Keywords: role, investigation, control, detention*, informing, authorizations*

Introduction

1. Investigating the role of the police in the previous procedure

With changes in the criminal legal system of Kosovo last year made changes the role of the police in its start up procedure before penal (See the second to KPCC, 2012, Chapter II, Initial Actions Kosovo Police, Article 69 -83, pages 26-83).We application of new laws in Kosovo as well as many others institutions police encounter some obstacles but with the help of public prosecutors and intensive training was reached that very soon to start implementing the new legal procedures.

2. **Action that is authorized to undertake when committed an offense.**

Even with this new justice system in Kosovo police is located in a position to be on during investigation been watching but that applies in this case is guided and supervised by the state prosecutor, which restricts made since police large errors because it is known that the police is obliged to reported criminal offenses for their action and to inform and seek help from the public prosecutors.

So judicial police investigates currently investigates all crimes directed and supervised by the public prosecutor, which is clearly seen that role of police in investigative procedure is very important.

POLICE investigating offense and without delay takes the all measures in order to hide the concealment.

As soon as notified police of suspected criminal offense prosecuted ex officio, whether through the filing of a criminal or otherwise, without delay and not later than twenty-four hours of receiving the information, inform state prosecutor and as before the other reports and provides additional information. (The police is obliged to do in accordance with Article 70 parag.4 KPPRK-es, Nr.04/L-123 to dt.13 December 2012 promulgated by Decree No. DL-057-2012, dt.21.12.2012 from President of the Republic of Kosovo Atifete Jahjaga implementation by January 1, 2013)

The public prosecutor directs and supervises the work of the court police preliminary procedures of penal procedure.

According to Article 201 when there is reasonable suspicion that criminal act performed, prosecuted or at the request of the state prosecutor (Police) must initiate all necessary measures to find the perpetrator, to stop hiding and his aides to him, to stop their escape, to find and save tracks the offense, and to gather the necessary information.

To be able to perform all of these tasks is authorized police to undertakes certain actions (in accordance with Article 70, paragraph 1, of KPCC-es 2,3,4, year 2012, page 26/27) such as:

- To gather information from persons;
- Perform temporary control of the vehicle, passengers and their baggage;

- To restrict movement in the special area for the time when this action is necessary;
- Undertake measures necessary to establish the identity of persons and objects;
- Be organized to control for determining the location of an individual or object being requested by sending letter-alignment.
- To check the presence of the person in charge of special facilities and premises of public bodies and to examine the special objects belonging to them.
- The confiscated items that must be taken under the criminal procedure code or serve as evidence in criminal proceedings.
- Be assured physical examination, the injured party in accordance with Section 192 of this code and undertakes measures and other actions required to by law.

For all these actions and other actions undertook specific police is authorized to compile the minutes (official note in the manner provided in Article 81 KPPK.vit 2012, page 29).

Police can photograph a person and take his fingerprints, if there reasonable suspicion that he has committed a criminal offense.(See: Article 76 paragraph 1 of KPCC-es, vit.2012, page 28)

The public prosecutor may authorize police to photograph published when it is necessary to establish the identity of the suspect and in other cases when will contribute to the effective implementation of the procedure. (Article 76, paragraph 2, page 28)

If it is necessary to identify whose fingerprints are found in certain objects, mud police take fingerprints of persons with mud probably have had contact with such objects.

Police, with the assistance of a qualified doctor or nurse of the emergency cases themselves can collect samples (from Article 192, paragraph 4 of this code) by the suspect if it is urgent. The public prosecutor immediately informed to collect such samples.

Police can be asked by the suspect to question alcohol test or urine samples through the respiratory, the refusal of the suspect to provide evidence of these samples constitutes acceptable. The suspect must be informed in advance about this.

No sample should not be forcibly taken without a court order.

3. Prohibition of persons found in the scene

Article 72 of the Criminal Procedure Code in effect in Kosovo from 1 January 2013 page 27 provides:that persons found at the crime scene and which may provide important information can be stopped for as long as is necessary but not more than 6 hours, otherwise if you can not always be provided such information, is only when there other ways to put them to proof.

Here one should be careful that it's probably not stopping passes general rule because it is contrary to various conventions on the protection of human rights. So care should be taken that it stops to be exceptional when other means.

Obtaining information from the police in all phases must keep in mind the rights of suspects and dared not be threatened or be offered something illegal to provide information, are null and void all the evidences collected by force or threat. Said one word must not violate the law to enforce the law.

4. Checking safety officer

Section 204 provides authority for the control of the interim police security if there is suspicion that the person has such weapons or dangerous items that can be used for attack or defense. This control should perform same-sex police with the suspect, but if the police can not ensure that same sex then I may exceptionally be carried by every cop (Article 75 paragraph 3 of page 28 of KPCC-es, the year 2012),but you must take care not to slip this general rule because human rights. Police photographed the suspects may be, to take fingerprints, collect samples, and to require suspects to undergo the alcohol test. If I suspect refuses to undergo a blood alcohol measurement then this evidence is sufficient.

5. Notice of suspects their rights

Every person arrested, suspected or accused of committing a criminal offense is presumed innocent until verified his innocent final judgment.

A person suspected of or charged with criminal act has the right to demand fair criminal proceedings to enforce reasonable time. But the rights of the arrested person are clearly defined in the PCPC. A person arrested under PCPC that I have the following rights: where for each right will reflect that what is more important, in terms of procedural and local Laws in international (Convention, Article 3,4,5) that are in endorsed the implementation implemented.

A person arrested under PCPC that I have the following rights:

5.1 The right to notice of the reasons for arrest

The arrested person has the right to be informed of the reasons for arrest in a language that he or she understands. That means that the person has the right to know why he was arrested, for which offense is doubtful (See Article 125, paragraph 3 of KPCC-es, page 56). Language of talking and listening between law enforcement bodies and the person arrested is not defined. There is only one condition must be language, which no doubt caught the person understands.

5.2. The right to silence

The arrested person has the right to remain silent and not answer any questions, besides giving information about the identity of his / her. He or she has the right to silence and not to give any statement;

He or she must show that he or she does not need to be introduced to protect them or to respond to questions submitted to them. The arrested person must identify himself and the police should carry identification procedure.

Whenever a person is arrested to be interviewed (for the first time or repeatedly), he or she firstly has to be informed of the right to silence. The suspects must be advised of their right to silence always before they are questioned in a legal manner.

• During the interrogation of the arrested person become regular breaks at intervals of approximately 2 hours. Leave may be extended when there is reasonable grounds to believe that the delay will be:

• risk of harm to persons or loss of serious damage to property;

• postpone detaining a person without need or finishing interrogation-or

• Otherwise prejudice the outcome of the investigation.

• During interrogation the arrested person is not required to stand on foot and is denied food, water and necessary medical care.

5.3. The right to the aid of a translator

  The arrested person has the right to free assistance of an interpreter if he or she does not understand or speak the language of the police. This right is an obligation for law enforcement to provide arrested person be provided with free assistance of an interpreter if he or she does not understand the language of the police. This should be regulated in the public-spending state.

5.4 The right to legal assistance

The arrested person has the right to assistance of defense counsel of his choice after his or her arrest. If the person arrested can not pay legal aid lawyer will be provided by the police. The arrested person has the right to a lawyer during all interviews conducted by law enforcement authorities.

Law enforcement bodies will help or spaces provide the arrested person contacted the defense attorney.

When ever an arrested person to be interviewed, he or she will be informed of the right to silence and the right to a lawyer.

The arrested person has the right to communicate reliably with defense counsel orally and in writing. Communication between the detainees and defender his or her may be made in view of law enforcement authorities are not to be heard (See Article 166, paragraph 3 KPCC, year 2012, page 75).

5.4.1 Attorney Home

If your lawyer does not appear within 2 hours of being informed of the arrest, law enforcement bodies will customize (provide) a defense attorney for detainee alternative. After that, if counsel alternative does not appear for an hour after he was approached by authorities of Internal Affairs, the person arrested may interviewed only when the public prosecutor or police glory of the further delay would seriously damage the investigation.

The arrested person has the right to the confidential communicates with his protection orally and in writing. This can be observed its communication by the police.

5.4.2 Waiver of the right to assistance of defense counsel

Protection of the right may be waived except in the case of protection required if the waiver is made clear, in an informed voluntary. A waiver must be in writing and signed by the suspect or the defendant and the competent authority conducting the proceedings or made orally on audio or video tape, whose authenticity is verified by the court.

When the suspect or defendant who has waived the right to defense requires commitment again this right, he can exercise this immediately. If the suspect or defendant commits no defense, his legal spouse or spouse Outside blood-sex person at a tangent, Adaptive parent, adopted child, brother , sister or foster can be deployed for defense but not against his will.

5.4.2 a Protection of Minors

Persons under 18 years may waive their right to defense committed with the consent of a parent, guardian or authorized representative of the center for social work besides domestic violence cases in which the parent or guardian is involved in which the parent or guardian does not may consent to the waiver of this right. [persons who show signs of disturbance or mental disability can not waive the right to defense commitment.

5.4.2 b Forced Protection

During interrogation the defendant has defense when: from getting the questions for the first time when the defendant is mute, deaf or displays signs of disturbance or disability and so is unable to defend himself or herself;

During their interrogation in custody and during the time while he is in custody;

From the filing of the indictment when the indictment was filed against him for the offense for which the sentence may be imposed at least 8 years prison proceedings under the emergency law when the defendant is mute, deaf or displays signs of disturbance or mental disability or been sentenced to long term imprisonment.

5.4.2 c The right to notify family, embassy or other person designated

The arrested person has the right to be informed or asked the police to notify family quote or any other person selected by his / her because of the arrest and place of detention immediately after arrest and for every subsequent change of the place of detention immediately after the change of the place of detention.

6. Compilation of criminal denunciation

No matter what manner we have come to information through denunciation by citizens or through information collected during the performance of routine police duties after having accumulated sufficient evidence compiles the charge. A criminal report compiled by the police is finalization of police work in connection with the investigation of specific criminal offense. The other form of criminal compilation police public prosecutor submitted together with objects, sketches, photographs, reports received, statements, records etc (in accordance with Article 81 paragraph 1 and 2 of the KPCC,

page 29). If after compiling criminal denunciation to the police, the police comes to new facts or new evidence and the police is obliged to facts supplementary report sent to the public prosecutor (Under section 81 paragraph 3 of the KPCC, page 30).If after investigation the police conducted ng the results that there is sufficient basis to frame criminal charges then again the police were forced back to the public prosecutor announced a separate report, in connection with their actions (in accordance with paragraph 4 of Article 81 of the KPCC, also page 30).

7. **Summary**

Given what was said above once the police receives information that an offense has been committed it investigates the possible perpetrator of that offense, undertakes all measures necessary to gather evidences. Here you should consider the fact that not enough to know that someone has committed a criminal offense but it must demonstrate that it is the perpetrator of this must be done by presenting evidence that showed that the suspect has committed the offense really. During data collection the main purpose of the police is their investigation ended with criminal charges based on the facts and the criminal charges that resulted in an indictment by the public prosecutor. Also the purpose of the police is execution perpetrators of offenses punished, cure those who are innocent do not suffer from the actions of the police.

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- Accordance with Article 70, paragraph 1, of KPCC-es 2, 3, 4, year 2012, page 26/27
- The official record in the manner provided in Article 81 KPPK.vit 2012, page 29
- See Article 76, paragraph 1 of KPCC-es, vit.2012, page 28
- Article 76, paragraph 2, paage 2
- Aaccording to Article (76 paragraph 4 of KPCC-es, page 28
- Article 72 of the Criminal Procedure Code in effect in Kosovo from 1 January 2013 page 27 provides:
- Article 75 paragraph 3 of KPCC-es, the year 2012 page 28
- See Article 125, paragraph 3 of KPCC-es, page 56)
- See Article 166, paragraph 3 KPCC, year 2012, page 75
- In accordance with Article 81 paragraph 1 and 2 of the KPCC, page 29
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- In accordance with paragraph 4 of Article 81 of the KPCC, also page 30

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ABSTRACT SECTION

Tune and Tone Structures of Turkish Lullabies

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to discuss the avalibility of the lullabies in child music education by examining their tune and tone structures. Lullabies should be given more place in the children's music education in primary school period. One of the basic steps of child education is music education. In music education, it should be acted in a right plan and programme. Hence, we will also have got our primary-school students to gain affection for art along with music education. Regarding the purpose of the study, survey and qualitative research method were used.The lullabies in child song books were chosen randomly.The availability of the chosen lullabies to the primary music education was discussed via examining their tune-tone structures. The first lyrics with a melody which the children learn from their mothers are no doubt lullabies. Lullaby is rather important for a child who hears the voice of his/her mother through a lullaby. A child's learning the lullabies, which s/he hears from her/his mother, in a correct way of singing from their teachers provides the child's attachment to the music lesson with affection. Our lullabies which are the products of folk literature take place not only in literary art but also in art of music.That lullabies are also works of art is, of course, uncontroversial. Thus, during the process of teaching lullabies, their tune and tone structures should be suitable for the students' level. Along with the choice of a good song, its teaching is important, as well. If we prepare our future with a well-educated generation, then we can carry our world to a better future. A good education can be carried out with a well-planned education. In child music education, teaching the lullabies, one of the products of folk culture, to children will provide them to love music and to know their culture well.

Key words: Lullabies, Child Music Education, Lullaby Instruction

Examination of the Lullabies, One of the Types of Primary-School Child Songs, Regarding Literary Terms

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the literary aspects of the lullabies which are one of the values of national culture. The study plays an important role in terms of getting students to obtain their own cultural wealth, the culture's living and making the culture lived.The culture of each nation is a different colour of the world culture. The thing that embellishes the world and makes it meaningful is the riot of colour which these cultures compose. In our world, where the dominant cultures debase other cultures and even destroy them in globalizing world, it is extremely crucial for the nations to save their cultures and to keep them alive.Because, every culture is very special and important. Within the values of Turkish culture, there are lullabies especially among the child songs that are adopted and outstanding in child education. Approximately, teaching lullabies, which the child listens to from her/his mother from the birth to the school years, to the child is seen essential from the aspect of the "continuation of the culture". For the purpose of the study, descriptive narration has been carried out by using the methods of survey and qualitative research. Via examining the lullabies and the rhymes in Turkish culture, the gains they give to the child have been opened up for discussion. Child songs provide children various gains from both emotional aspects and intellectual aspects.These gains improve their personality in literary terms and in terms of language skills. Therefore, in our study, we emphasize the necessity of the fact that the literary aspect of the lullabies dealt with in order to carry out the instruction of the songs should be taken into consideration.

Key words: Lullabies, Child Literature

Responsibility of Litigation Costs in Civil Procedure Law

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Abstract

Trials in modern law systems are monopolized by the state. Because of this,it is inessential to pay costs for the parts that take part in trials. On the other hand, some expenses called as litigation costs occur from the begining till the end of the process of trials in civil procedure law which differs from criminal trials. In this sense,whom will be charged of litigation costs is the essential point in civil procedure law.

Keywords: Trials, litigation costs, responsibility, JEL Code: Law, Private Law, Civil Procedure Law

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New Seekings other than Traditional in the Water Marblings of Hikmet Barutçugil

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Abstract

In this study, the seeking and non-traditional innovations brought to art of water marbling by Hikmet Barutçugil, who is one of the greatest living masters of Turkish artists in the Art of Marbling, are examined. Hikmet Barutçugil began to his textile education in Applied Industrial Arts Vocational School of Istanbul State Academy of Fine Arts in 1971. In the early years of his higher education, he was interested in calligraphy by the encouragements of his teacher, Prof. Emin Barın. When examining the works of great calligraphers, he noticed water marbling on the flooring and moldings. After asking to his teacher Emin Barın about these marbling, he applied to Great Marbling Master Mustafa Düzgünman with the recommendation of Emin Barın.Unfortunately, due to lack of interest, Düzgüman was not teaching to anyone in those years. After having a big disappointment, Hikmet Barutçugil started to learn water marbling himself by reading old documents and examining the old marbling samples. Although experiencing despair, fears, disappointments, Barutçugil put shoulder to the wheel in terms of water marbling with excitement when he gotsome beautiful shapes after a period. His excitement is increased very soon and he started to improve himself in this area by himself. Innovations brought to Art of Water Marbling by him, have found opportunity to teach and be presented not only in national level, but also in 36 countries in water marbling with the help of different studies made with various dyes and materials. He brought new perspectives to the art of marbling by synthesizing his academic infrastructure with traditional arts. He is known as the founder of "Powder Marbling" in the literature. In our study, we investigated the examples of his powder technique in accordance with the method of art criticism. Barutçugil has seen the art of water marbling as a branch of science, and he created very valuable handiworks throughout his life. He still carries out his work both in national and international level. He brought a different perspective to the art of marbling while he has an innovative approach besides his traditional approach. He continues to carry his works out and constantly educates students in order to pass this art to new generations in his art house, which called Ebristan (The Land of Water Marblin).

Keywords: *Art of Water Marbling, HikmetBarutçugil, Traditional Arts, Powder Water Marbling, Water Marbling Artist*

Differences in Behavioural and Emotional Problems among Preschool Children from Public and Privat Institutions.

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Abstract

The socio-emotional skills are considered as an important aspect of child development. During the preschool years children must be able to understand the feelings of others, control their own feelings and behaviors, and get along with their peers and teachers. The preschool programs are intended to support the children's needs to be able to cooperate, follow directions, demonstrate self-control, and pay attention. These days it's already known that high-quality preschool education programs can support early development in ways that yield long-term social and emotional benefits. This study elaborated the differences in behavioral and emotional problems among 2-5 years old children, from public and private institutions. The research question was: are there differences on broad band scales between children from public and private institution?. There were 140 children (69 female and 71 male; Mean=3.71 SD =1.18) from private and 180 children (60 female and 95 male; Mean=2.86 SD=0.78) from public institution who participated in the study. The child behavior checklist C-TRF 1.5-5, from the Achenbach System of Empirically Based Assessment (ASEBA), was completed from 51 female preschool teachers of both institutions. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used as an index of internal consistency for the C-TRF. T scores and raw scores were assessed using Assessment Data Management (ADM), and all other statistical analyses were carried out by SPSS version 19 for Windows. Analysis started with descriptive and we used t-test for independent samples statistics. The results revealed statistical differences between children form public and private institution in all the broad band scales: internalizing, externalizing and total problems. The results were lower for children from private institutions, which we assume mean that the program offered in public institutions might be considered as a predictor for higher level of means in the three broad band scales. Further studies are strongly recommended, in order to define the role and the implication of program content and preschool teachers too. As the behavioral and socio-emotional problems in early childhood continue to pose a threat to the overall psychological well-being and school performance of children, preschool educators must increase their efforts to address these problems early on in order to optimize the children's chances for attaining later academic success, particularly considering that efficacious prevention and treatment exists for the psychopathology of young children.

Keywords: Behavior and emotional problems, preschool program, differences, preschool teachers.

Comparing economic performance of iran's EPZs: kish,Gheshm and Chabahar

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Abstract

EPZs (Export Processing Zones) can help countries economy through their particular characteristics such as helping to export and employment .This article aims to compare the economic performance of three of IRAN`s EPZ`s :Kish, Gheshm and Chabahar in their two decade of activity(1993-2013)using four MADM techniques including SAW,TOPSIS, ELECTRE and TAXONOMY. In order to do so, we compared economic goals of EPZs: attracting investment, employment, the value of their export and their ability to attract tourism as attributes .The result shows that, based on considered attributes and available statistics, Gheshm had the best performance and Kish and Chabahar were in the next ranks.

Key words: EPZs (Export Processing Zones), performance evaluation, Kish, Gheshm, Chabahar, SAW, TOPSIS, ELECTRE, TAXONOMY

Offering a model for determination of optimal warranty period and production price

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Abstract

Nowadays warranty is an important element in marketing, especially for the products that enter the market for the first time. Usually customers do not have enough information about productions efficiency, in such conditions; warranty plays a significant role in persuading customers to buy the products. As customer's point of view, warranty is a sign of quality and reliability and when customers have different choices among the similar products, warranty will be an effective factor in decision making. Also warranty, as a means of marketing, has positive effects on manufacturer's sales and profit but in the other hand, it imposes some costs to the manufacturers. As failures occur randomly, calculation of warranty costs is complicated but estimation of these costs is essential cause of their effects on profit. This paper tries to offer a model for determination of optimal warranty period and production price in regards to effects of warranty on sales amount. For achieving this purpose a model that is included of three warranties polices, which was offered by Murthy, is used and it is optimized by Glickman and Berger equation and at the end an application of the model is explained.

Keywords: Warranty, Warranty Policy, Free Replacement Warranty, Pro Rata Warranty

National Adoption Procedure from the Perspective of Current Regulations in the Field

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Abstract

One of the measures of alternative protection that can be taken to the child in Romania, under the Law no. 272/2004 on the protection and promotion of children's rights, is adoption. This measure can be taken for the purpose of protecting every child who is temporarily or permanently deprived of parental protection, or who cannot be allowed to their care in order to protect its interests. According to current regulations forms under which adoption can be found are: internal adoption and international adoption. Adoption is internal if both the adopter or adoptive family and the adoptee habitually reside in Romania. In what follows we will analyze the internal adoption procedure in terms of its governing legislation: New Civil Code, Law no. 273/2004 on the legal status of adoption and the Methodological Norms for applying Law no. 273/2004 on the legal status of adoption.

Keywords: measures, child in Romania, protection, internal adoption, international adoption, legislation

An Analysis Of Teachers' Opinions Related To Listeners' Behaviours That Increase Lecturers' Motivation And Performance In The Classroom

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Abstract

For efficient and qualified education listener's role is as important as of a lecturer. Listeners positively or negatively affect lecturer by their style of listening. The attention and interest of listeners increase motivation and performance of lecturers. It makes lecturer more lively, energetic and efficient during presentation. Especially in classroom environment, students as listeners effect lecturers with their behaviours. The purpose of this study is to determine students' behaviours that increase lecturers' motivation and performance. For this purpose, opinions of 25 Turkish language and literature teachers/academicians were taken in Konya, Turkey in the academic year 2013–2014. The study is qualitative in nature and is meant to be used in phenomenological path. The data of the participants have been carefully analysed with the content analysis method and have been categorized as follows: listeners' positive body language, listeners' verbal behaviours, listeners' material usage and listeners' other behaviours. As the result of the study, the participants stated that the behaviours of listeners that increase motivation and performance of lecturer can be understood 48% by listeners' positive body language, 32% by listeners' verbal behaviour, 14% by listeners' material usage and 2% by listeners' other behaviours. [1]

Keywords: Listener's behaviours, Education, Listening Education

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BUILDING A STRONG FOUNDATION FOR QUALITY OF EARLY EDUCATION PROGRAMS THROUGH EARLY LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT STANDARDS

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Abstract

The early child period is considered to be the most important developmental phase throughout an individual's lifespan. Healthy early child development, physical, social–emotional, language and cognitive, is fundamental to success and happiness not only for the duration of childhood, but throughout the life course. This three year study presents the scientific framework of early learning and development standards as a way to build a strong foundation for quality of early education programs and school success. Within its mixed approach, during the ELDS development process, there were involved four groups of population, presented by 31 experts in early childhood, 300 parents, 35 preschool educators and 700 children from seven municipalities overall Kosovo, all volunteered in process. We developed, validated and used questionnaires for each group: experts, parents and preschool educators, and direct observation for gathering data from children's activity. We used explanatory and confirmatory factorial analysis for quantitative data, through SPSS while for analyzing the qualitative data we used inductive analysis through NVIVO.Results from both analyses, has allowed us to confirm and be sure that the whole content of Kosovo Early Learning and Development Standards is based on a scientific framework, is based on Kosovo's children development and assure that support their development and learning and their readiness to life and to school. Through the content and age validation, we assured that our standards are rooted in our cultural and national expectations of what our children should know and be able to do at predetermined ages, within the broader context of the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Keywords: early learning and development standards, child development, preschool education, quality program.

Migration abroad of the labour force and its effect on the children left back home

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Abstract

The economic crisis produces many effects on all categories of population (young people, adult people and old people), mostly on the families having children in their care. The low level of incomes or even the lack of incomes pushed part of the active population to migrate abroad hoping to get jobs with good pay which to support a better standard of living. The parental optimism and the hope for positive changes in the life of the family may generate the emergence of discrepancies in children's power of adaptation to a new life style in the absence of one or both parents, compared to the previous life style; hence the possible appearance of risks for the children left back home in the care of a member of the broader family. The costs of such decisions appear in time and they affect the development of the children, the interfamily relations, the communities and the whole of the society. The paper aims to analyse the context in which parents' decision to go abroad seeking for jobs comes up and its impact on the children which remain home and on the family as system. This phenomenon, which became widely spread lately, and which has a medium and even long-term impact, cannot be overlooked by the social policies.

Keywords: population, family, children, migration, abroad, labour

Semantic Development of Arabic Loanwords in Turkish in Decreasing Processes of Language Contact

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ABSTRACT

 It is known that almost all languages in the World have a relationship with one or more languages. Even in a language spoken by one of the most primitive clan, there are some loanwords borrowed from neighbor languages. This kind of relationship among languages is called language contact in linguistic. Language contact is either increasing or decreasing process rather than a state. There are some studies on increasing process of language contact. For example, Thomas and Kaufman pointed out that increasing process of language contact includes some consecutive rules. They called this process as 'barrowing scale' (1991:74). According to the barrowing scale, recipient language barrows in a way that from simple to complex, firstly it barrows words that belongs to cultural vocabulary, secondly the simple structures such as prefixes, suffixes etc, lastly the more complex structures. We have studied on the increasing relationship Arabic and Persian with Turkish (Sarı :2007). The first factor of language contact is seen on vocabulary. The first loanwords are meaningful words not functional words such as concoctions and prepositions. Nouns and adjectives are barrowed easily rather than pronouns or verbs. In language contact, the stage of structural barrowings need more time. It can be observed that structural barrowings cannot be seen in Karahanids Turkish in 10-12th centuries, whereas this concept has changed in time. For example, in Ottoman Turkish in 16-19th centuries, there are some samples showing that Arabic or Persian suffixes have been attached to Turkish native words (variyet and gidişat). The decreasing relationship between Turkish and Arabic has not been studied yet. As it is known, this relation is in the term of decreasing for a century. Some changes have been occurred in Arabic loanword in Turkish. In the light of these, we are going to deal with semantic changes in Arabic loanword in Turkish. The data is extracted from the dictionaries named Kamus-ı Turki (Turkish Dictionary) by Şemsettin Sami in 1912, Türkçe Sözlük (Turkish Dictionary) by TDK in 1959 and Türkçe Sözlük (Turkish Dictionary) by TDK in 2014.[1]

Keywords: Language contact, loanword, Arabic, Turkish.

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How Do Romanians Vote? Towards an Explicative Model of Electoral Behaviour

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Abstract

After a quarter century since the first free and fair elections that took place in the aftermath of the 1989 Romanian Revolution, debates and controversies regarding the best path for electoral research continue. How do Romanians vote? remains an open question. Every subsequent election took place in a particular social, economic, and political context. The party system has experienced major transformations and the rules of the electoral game have changed. The social and demographic structure of the electorate feature profound changes. In addition, the citizens' political experience has enlarged with every electoral cycle, and their social representations and values have altered. However, certain patterns in the variance of voting - between communities, social groups or individuals – have been enduring. With rare exceptions, voter turnout has declined in the last 24 years. The crisis of confidence in parties and other political institutions has deepened. The electorate is more fragmented; there are many cleavage and tension lines between social groups, although the position in the social strata (and its assorted links) explains only in part the electoral choice. The understanding of the inter-individual variance of the vote requires the introduction into analysis of psycho-social variables: attitudes, evaluations, representations and motives. An integrated explicative model is possible and necessary for the understanding of the dynamics and functioning of democracy in Romania.

Keywords: Romania, elections, turnout, electoral behaviour, social context, status, vote motivation.

Housing Bubbles (HBs) and distribution of solar thermal systems in Israel

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Abstract

Although economic, society, and environment are defined as the three pillars of sustainable development, their links to the housing market haven't well identified. In spite of the fact that these market dysfunctions, such as Housing Bubbles (HBs) generally fit the neo-classical economics' understanding of market cycles of housing demand and supply and redistribution of wealth, socio-economic events accompanying HB emergence and spread are relatively poorly understood. Thus, the presence of a HB in a given geographic point of space may easily be identified posterior, that is after its 'burst', when it is too late to control, but less so during when HBs are still under formation. The main goal of this research is to discuss the links between the distribution of solar thermal in Israel as a case study, and HB developments in housing market.

Keywords: HBs**,** housing bubbles, solar, thermal, systems, Israel, development,

Social economy as an employment alternative for vulnerable groups in Romania

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Abstract

Social economy has recently become a topic of interest in Romania despite a 150 year history of social economy entities such us cooperatives or mutual organizations. The 2007-2013 Social European Funds framework allocated financial resources for the development of social economy. The policy is to enable the social inclusion of vulnerable groups through insertion on the labour market via grant schemes for social economy entities. These projects featured vocational training and start-ups for the employment of vulnerable groups or new small businesses.This paper looks into the challenges and opportunities in promoting entrepreneurship in the social economy area as a way to promote social inclusion. We begin with an overview of the key European and national level regulations and legislation, followed by a secondary analysis of qualitative and quantitative data from an ongoing research projected conducted by the Research Institute for Quality of Life of the Romanian Academy. Our main finding is that not enough attention was paid to the amount of resources allocated towards employment of vulnerable groups through social economy entities. In addition, the policy goal of linking first and foremost social economy entities with employment of vulnerable persons, instead of their broad economic development, is highly debatable in light of the actual results. As this line of policy will continue to be financed and most probably supported by a renewed legislative framework, in-depth research should be dedicated to profile Romanian entrepreneurs as well as to identify suitable conditions for enabling the employment of vulnerable people.

Keywords: social economy, vulnerable groups, European Social Fund, employment, grant schemes, entrepreneurship

The pattern of the birth rate in Romania: a change of model?

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Abstract

Demographic decline is a serious problem in Europe, including Romania. This paper aims to stimulate debate on this issue by looking into the long-term birth rate trends in Romania. The conventional model for explaining the birth rate subscribed to the demographical-economic paradox: an inverse correlation between wealth and socio-economic status, on one side, and the number of births on the other side within the nation. Less developed, more rural areas in Romania, especially the North Eastern counties in Moldavia, featured higher birth rates, while the most developed and urbanised areas – Bucharest and some of the Transylvanian counties – featured the lowest, within an overall nationwide decline in births. This study focuses on the long-term effect of economic, social and demographic factors on the dynamics birth rate within Romania. By use of multiple regression, we analyse the effect on the birth date of five key variables – GDP per capita, employment (employees per 1,000 inhabitants), age at first marriage, the marriage rate, the urbanisation rate. The data set used for this analysis includes over 4,500 data points covering the time series for the 1990-2012 period at the level of main administrative units – 41 counties plus Bucharest municipality. Our findings indicate a fundamental demographic change of the birth rate patterns within Romania around the 2003-2005.

Keywords: birth rate, Romania, demographic decline, GDP per capita, employment, urbanisation.