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Virtual vs. Traditional Environments and Their Influence on Students' Listening Performance in a Foreign Language – A Case Study in Albania

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Abstract

The essential role of the listening competence in Second Language Teaching, and the new rhythm of advancement in the new Internet epoch call for a paradigmatic reform of teachers' roles, contents and functions in teaching listening skill in order to guarantee a successful forward-looking process. Considering this context, this study highlights an innovative academic experience in Albania consisting of a special class website integrated in teaching English listening skills to Albanian university students as well as creating and implementing a demanding listening curriculum at an FCE level; this project and the analysis of its results follow a comparative approach at all stages. This paper aims at examining the efficiency of website compared with traditional means of teaching listening in English, by analyzing and assessing the difference between the level of the experimental group's performance and that of the control group during the listening practice. The actual comparison of results, which involves the assessment of their scores in two special tests, one taken before the project and one after its completion, shows that both learning environments have their merits in helping them progress with their listening competence. However, the amount of progress made by the students of the two groups is not identical, as there is a significant difference in favour of the experimental group, which, as our statistical analysis carried out by the help of the SPSS program shows, is ample proof of the advantage that the use of websites brings to the process of developing one's listening competence in a foreign language.

Keywords: listening competence, control group, experimental group, website, performance.

Introduction

Studies have shown that we spend 50% of our communication time listening. [1] Listening is, as a matter of plain fact, one of the most basic and important abilities that we make use of in the course of our lifetime (a great part of its importance derives from the fact that listening precedes and stands as a necessary foundation for other communication skills and abilities). While listening we manage not only to understand each-other, but also to broaden the horizons of our experience.

Long regarded as a complex and difficult process, the development of listening abilities by learners of foreign languages has largely been ignored by academic studies. Traditional listening materials used in foreign language classes have, likewise, proved rather inadequate for the aims they are meant to serve. With the ever-increasing penetration of digital technology into the field of education it seems only natural to suppose that the immense resources of the internet could serve as a great facilitator for the necessarily long learning process whereby foreign language students acquire and perfect their listening abilities. [2]

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[1] See R. A. Gilman and L. M. Moody, "What practitioners say about listening: Research implications for the classroom", *Foreign Language Annals*, 17, 1984, pp. 331-334.

[2] See J. C. Richards, "Beyond the text book: The role of commercial materials in language teaching", *RELC Journal*, 24/1, 1993, pp. 1-14.

Following this assumption, the present study seeks to present and analyse some of the results of an experimental teaching project involving, among other things, the employment of websites in the teaching of English as a foreign language, with a particular view to enhancing the development of the students' listening abilities. The presentation of the results follows the comparative approach of the project itself, which involved the actual assessment and comparison of the listening achievements of two groups of students – those working in a traditional learning environment and those that worked in and through the digital medium of the website.

In more concrete terms, the following presentation and analysis can be interpreted as constituting a detailed answer to the principal question of our project: do the results of the students listening performance, measured by a set of tests taken both before and after the completion of the project, suggest any difference between the influence of traditional and digital learning environments in advancing the listening abilities of foreign language students?

The participants in the project and their demographical context

"English for the Net Generation", the teaching project that formed the basis of the present study, involved the voluntary participation of 24 Albanian first-year students of English at "Fan S. Noli" University, Korça. For a 10 week period, as part of their 2013 course in Communication and American Civilisation, the students took part in an intensive program intended to promote their listening skills to the advanced "First Certificate" level. The students were divided into two groups of 12 members each – one group was assigned to work through the medium of the website[1], the other in an essentially traditional learning environment. The division of the students into these groups was made after subjecting them to a preliminary standard listening test, so as to ensure that there would not be any significant overall differences in their original listening competences.

In the course of this study we will be using the term *experimental group* in order to refer to the students that worked on the website. The 12 students of the experimental group made constant use of our special website not only during the course of their ordinary classroom sessions, but also while they were physically away from the school environment, all in an effort to develop and consolidate their listening, reading and cultural competences of English. The term *control group*, on the other hand, will be used to refer to the 12 students that worked in the traditional classroom environment.

Method and procedure

The method used in this study makes use of well-established statistic principles commonly employed in comparative analyses of a similar nature. The quantitative results that were used in order to give an answer to our principal question were arrived at after a series of tests and comparisons: the students of each group were tested with regards to their level of listening competence both before and after the project. The resulting scores of the control and the experimental group were then compared with each-other in order to bring out any significant differences in their achievements. The tests that were used for both groups, both before and after the project, were identical and in full accordance with the standards of the level of English aimed at by our project. [2]

More concretely, our procedure involved calculating the difference in results between the mean scores of the tests (the test before and the test after the project) taken by the students of each group. The results of this initial comparison were then subjected to the special statistical comparative analysis offered by the *SPSS* program (the *paired t-test* method)[3] which

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[1] The name chosen for our special teaching website was the same as that by which we have refered to the whole project – "English for the Net Generation".

[2] See N. Kenny and L. Luque-Mortimer, *First Certificate Practice Tests*, Longman, 2000, pp. 129-149.

[3] On this method of statistical analysis see http://www.statisticssolution.com, http://www.academic.udayton.edu; see also http://www.gla.ac.uk/sums/users/jdbmcdonald/PrePost_TTest/pairedt1.html

drew out the various differences in mean scores between the two groups. The decision whether such differences can be viewed as statistically significant, and, thus, as mirroring a true difference in the progress of the listening competence of the students of the two groups, or whether we are to regard them as merely accidental or negligible, was not left to subjective considerations, but was established mathematically, as a way of further guaranteeing the reliability of the conclusions of our study.

Analysis of the results

As already mentioned in the previous section of this study, our first step in the complex procedure of finding out whether the use of websites enhances the development of the listening competence of foreign language students was to give a preliminary test (T1) to the students of both the control and the experimental group (the test was also used as a means of making sure that the student's original level of listening competence was, on the average, essentially the same in both groups). More precisely, the mean scores of the students in the preliminary test were M_{w1} = 64. 16 for those who would work on the website (the lowest score in the experimental group was 40%, while the highest 70%) and M_{k1} = 61. 42% for those who would follow the traditional approach (the lowest score in the control group was 45%, while the highest 78%). The comparison of these figures by using the *Paired Samples T-test* in the *SPSS* program showed the resulting 2. 74% difference between the mean scores of the two groups to be statistically insignificant. Our assessment of the students' scores also showed that none of them actually failed the test. The same was true with the final test (T2) taken by the students of both groups after the completion of the project, a fact which shows that this parameter – the percentage of students passing the tests – can't be used to indicate anything about any possible differences between the progress made by the students working on the website and those working in the traditional environment with their listening competences.

The following tables contain detailed information about the scores of every student in the two groups:

Table 1. 1.: Results of the two tests for the experimental group

Group members	Preliminary test (%)	Final test (%)
S1	60	80
S2	78	92
S3	70	85
S4	73	90
S5	68	88
S6	62	80
S7	45	60
S8	58	62
S9	75	88
S10	48	60
S11	73	90
S12	60	78
Mean scores	**64. 16**	**79. 41**

Table 1. 2.: Results of the two tests for the control group

Group members	Preliminary test (%)	Final test (%)
S1	68	80
S2	70	82
S3	68	82
S4	60	70
S5	65	78
S6	65	75
S7	40	47
S8	62	70

S9	60	68
S10	62	68
S11	60	70
S12	57	66
Mean scores	**61. 42**	**71. 33**

As can be seen in the table above, the mean scores of the final test were M_{w2} = 79. 41% for the students of the experimental group (the lowest score was 60%, the highest was 92%) and M_{k2} = 71. 33% for those of the control group (the lowest score was 47%, the highest was 82%). Given these figures and those already presented for the preliminary test, the crucial question that needs to be answered is: What do they show about the students' achievements by the end of the project and about the influence of the two learning environments on their results?

A simple comparison of the scores of the students of the experimental group in the two tests shows that, by the end of the project, they have gone up by 15. 25% (79. 46% - 64. 16% =15. 25%). An improvement in the students listening performance is also shown by comparing the scores of the two tests for the control group. This time, however, the resulting difference of 9. 91% (71. 33% - 61. 42% = 9. 91%), while clearly an indicator of the value of traditional methods of teaching in helping the students develop their listening competence, is obviously inferior to the respective figures for the experimental group. More precisely, a simple calculation shows that the progress made by the students who worked on the website is 5. 34% greater than that of the students who spent the ten weeks of the project working in the traditional foreign language classroom (15. 25% - 9. 91% = 5. 34%).

The results presented above can be viewed schematically in the following table and graph.

Table 1. 3.: The progress in students' scores – a comparison of the *preliminary test* with the *final test*.

	Preliminary test	Final test	Progress
Listening in the *website*	64. 16%	79. 41%	15. 25%
Listening in the traditional classroom	61. 42%	71. 33%	9. 91%
Difference	**2. 74%**		**5. 34%**

Statistical analysis of test results

The charts shown above can be viewed as constituting a graphic representation not only of the progress that the students of both groups have made with their listening skills during the course of our project, but also of the advantage that websites bring to this process. In order to increase the reliability of our interpretation of the results of the tests, we have decided, however, to read them through the lens of statistical analysis. The aim of such statistical analysis of the data is to provide a well-founded answer to the question whether the progress in scores achieved between the two tests by the students of both groups is statistically significant. Likewise, it will also be decided whether the difference between the amount of progress made by the students of the experimental group and that made by the students of the control group is significant, or whether it can be considered as simply accidental or negligible.

Firstly, thus, using the SPSS program we have applied the method of statistical analysis to give an answer to the question: is the improvement in students' scores from the preliminary test (T1) to the final one (T2) significant?

The *Paired Samples T-test* in the SPSS program is initially applied to the test results of the students of the control group. For these students who worked in the traditional learning environment the mean scores were 71. 33% for the final test and 61. 42% for the preliminary one. The resulting difference of 9. 91% between the mean scores of the two tests marks in

quantitative terms the amount of progress made by the students of the control group with regards to their listening competence. Now, the value of our coefficient for significance – p-value =0<0. 05 –clearly shows that the measure of the improvement in scores made by the control group students from T1 to T2 is statistically significant. In other words, the traditional methodology employed in helping students develop their listening competence in a foreign language brings positive results which are far from being negligible.

The same procedure was followed with the test results of the students who worked with the website. Their mean scores were 64. 17% and 79. 42% for T1 and T2 respectively. The amount of progress made by the students of the experimental group – the 15. 25% difference between the mean scores of T2 and T1– is once again shown by the application of the *Paired Samples T-test* (*p*-value =0<0. 05) to be statistically significant, a clear indicator this of the value of websites in fostering the development of the listening competence of foreign language students.

The next step in our statistical analysis involves determining whether the difference of 5. 34% between the amount of progress made by the students of the experimental group and the amount of progress made by the students of the control group is itself statistically significant. In this case too, the figures for our p-value (<0. 05) point out clearly enough to the significance of the difference in question. The progress made by the students who worked with the website is thus proved to be significantly greater than the progress made by the students who followed the traditional approach to developing their listening competence. In other words, it has been shown that using websites is not only a valuable practice in helping students develop their listening competence, but also that it is significantly superior in achieving its intended results to the more traditional approaches followed while teaching a foreign language.

Conclusions

The importance of finding the right methods to help foreign language students develop their listening competence cannot be overestimated, since it is one of the most basic and essential requirements of communication in a foreign language. The ever-increasing role of digital information and communication technology in the field of education calls for a new and more active engagement on the part of foreign language teachers and specialists, who should make full use these resources in order to help their students develop their listening competence. It was in accordance with this general context and with the need of Albanian students to keep up with the latest developments in the field of education in more developed countries that we decided to embark on a project that involved building a special teaching website and analysing whether and to what extent it contributed to the development of the listening competence of Albanian students of English. The project and the analysis of its results followed a comparative approach as the listening achievements of the students who worked on the website (the experimental group of our project) were systematically compared with those of other students who worked in the traditional foreign language classroom (the control group).

The actual comparison of the results achieved by the students of the two groups, which involved the assessment of their scores in two special tests, one taken before the project and one after its completion, shows that both learning environments – the traditional and the digital one – have their merits in helping them progress with their listening competence. However, the amount of progress made by the students of the two groups is not identical, as there is a 5. 34% difference in favour of the experimental group, which, as our statistical analysis carried out by the help of the SPSS program shows, is ample proof of the advantage that the use of websites brings to the process of developing one's listening competence in a foreign language.

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Modern Greek Church Fairs and Pilgrimage Tourism

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Abstract

The systematic study of church fairs, especially those of urban parishes in large urban centers, as carried out in recent years, has shown that there are many new customary and ritual forms that are created and adopted, often transformed to be enriched and made more attractive to the people. In this notice we will deal with certain interesting aspects of this contemporary customary reality. Through this adoption of customary forms, with their subsequent changes and amendments by the people on the basic characteristics of its live tradition, both the renewal of the tradition and the enrichment of the customary life of the people is achieved. This, in turn, is essential for the vitality and the continuation of the social impact and the acceptance of the tradition, which is an active procedure in progress, and not a set of fossilized situations, things, opinions, and actions. This is directly connected to the interior pilgrimage tourism since the organized visits of the believers to a place are frequent, specifically in order to take part in some great religious festival, which takes place there. In this process, the so critical from a cultural perspective since it's linked to the substance of our daily tradition itself, the novel elements of our contemporary religious fairs are critical points, as shown above in detail.

Keywords: pilgrimage tourism, urban parishes, church fairs, tradition.

Introduction

The systematic study of church fairs, especially those of urban parishes in the large and populous urban centers, as carried out in recent years, has shown that there are many new customary and ritual forms that are created and adopted, often transformed to be enriched and made more attractive to the people . With several of them, we have dealt systematically, under previous specific studies and publications . With some equally interesting aspects of this modernist customary reality, we will deal below.

At this point it should be noted that due to the known phenomenon of the export of cultural forms from the city to the provincial towns and villages, which is largely due to the television and the electronic media, or accelerated by them, these forms, that are normally created in large cities, today are spread and found all around the Greek cultural area. This is an important phenomenon that has been studied systematically by Edward Bailey[1], that tends to homogenize the customary events, and which is responsible for the enrichment of the older customary and ritual tradition with novel data.

 In this case, important and noteworthy is the role of the electronic agencies of ecclesiastical news, but also of the websites that are built and posted by Metropolises and also by most of the parishes of the Church of Greece. References, descriptions, and photos of the fairs of those parishes, enhanced occasionally by the relevant comments of these electronic pages users, always give information material and provide role models for reproduction to those who want to adopt new forms to the annually conducted festivals of their parishes[2].

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[1] Edward Bailey, *Implicit Religion: an introduction*, Middlesex University Press, 1998, pp. 56-58. Idem, «The Folk Religion of the English People», in *Religion, State and Society in Modern Britain*, London 1989, pp. 145-158.

[2] Justin L. Barrett, «Coding and quantifying counterintuitiveness in religious concepts: Theoretical and methodological reflections», *Method & Theory in the Study of Religion* 20.4 (2008), pp. 308-338.

On the other hand, it should be noted that what is described here is primarily related to parish fairs, since at the fairs of the chapels that are scattered in the Greek area, normally a different protocol is kept, more connected with the older ritualistic forms. Certainly, novel elements exist also in these "cottage" fairs[1], but these have mainly to do with the action and the activity of associations in organizing the entertainment following the religious acts and sequences, not the main body of the fair itself.

As reported on another occasion, the effects in our contemporary church fairs by the public ritual and its various manifestations are many and important. The presence of philharmonics, usually municipal, of military units or formations of the area or even associations operating there, and the fireworks, especially during the festive procession of the image of the celebrated saint, are typical cases of such relations and effects[2].

Some cases

Specifically, the following phenomenon is noticed, whereas previously philharmonics accompanied church processions and events generally held in capitals of prefectures, today, philharmonics are invited by celebrating parishes of villages, precisely because it is believed that their presence adds a festive, symbolic and ritual status in the process. And so, whereas previously the presence of the philharmonic in religious and church services was linked inextricably with the chorostasia of the Metropolitan concerned and the attendance of civil and military authorities at the temple, so it clearly derived from the public of rituals of the relevant national and local holidays, which secondarily combined with the church life and practice, today the philharmonic is often a key element of the fair, even if the other components of the public ritual are absent[3].

The same thing can be noticed with the fireworks too, which in the 70s, for example, just accompanied public festivals and fairs. Nowadays, since they became more economically accessible, and also the administrative and police procedures for obtaining and using them are changed and simplified, they appear more and more. Not only in official parish fairs, especially at the end of the procession of the holy image[4] or after the dismissal of the celebratory eve's vesper, but also in important traditional moments in the life cycle fireworks are used. Thus, we now see them in baptisms and weddings, in the courtyard of the temple after the end of the mystery or at the venue where the reception or party is conducted.

In any case, the use of fireworks is defined by the notion that they give to the festival ritual prestige and glory, that in a symbolic way they establish and formalize, in the realm of public ritual, a more or less private ritual. It is also standard practice of the Church in Greece to try to emphasize in every possible symbolic and non-symbolic way its close relation to the state, its structures and its manifestations, with the belief that it acquires thus prestige and authority in the eyes of its flock[5]. This is also the ocassion in the life cycle sacraments (baptism - marriage), where the private is symbolically displayed to the public sphere, in order to obtain symbolic social status (prestige).

In the same category of modernist ritual acts the tactic to invite many priests and prelates to the festival may be added, a practice which will be particularly studied, and also the authorities of the place or the municipality where the temple is celebrated. And as for the notification of the festival to the urban area the practice of issuing and suspending specific posters[6] is used now, respectively the invitation of the "officials" is made with special written invitation, which is sent to them signed by the Ecclesiastical Council and the head priest of the festive and celebrating parish.

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[1] M. G. Varvounis, *Θεμελιώδεις όψεις και μορφές της ελληνικής θρησκευτικής λαογραφίας*, Athens 2013, pp. 346-350.

[2] Cf. Ol. Bockhorn - H.P. Flelhauer, «Kulturelles Erbe und Aneignung», *Festschrift für Richard Wolfram zum 80. Geburtstag*, Wien 1982, pp. 207-232.

[3] Ph. Boutry, «Les mutations du payage paroissial. Reconstructions d' eglises et translations de cimetieres dans les campagnes del' Ain au XIXe siècle», *Ethnologie Française* 15 (1980), pp. 7-32.

[4] M. G. Varvounis, «Αστικές εκκλησιαστικές λιτανείες», in Kyrillos Katerelos – Ap. Glavinas – Gr. Larentzakis (ed.), *Festschrift zum 25 jährigen Jubiläum der Bischofsweihe und 20 jährigen Jubiläum Metropolit von Austria und Exarch von Ungarn und Mitteleuropa Dr. Michael Staikos*, Athens 2011, pp. 67-75.

[5] M. G. Varvounis, «Μορφές του ελληνικού δημόσιου τελετουργικού και ελληνική λαϊκή θρησκευτικότητα. Μικρή σπουδή στην λαογραφική υπόσταση των δημόσιων τελετών στην Ελλάδα», in Idem, *Νεωτερική ελληνική λαϊκή θρησκευτικότητα. Συναγωγή μελετών θρησκευτικής λαογραφίας*, Thessaloniki 2013, pp. 719-751.

[6] G. Ch. Kouzas, «Μεταξύ θρησκευτικής λαογραφίας και υλικού πολιτισμού: Η αφίσα στο πανηγύρι του αστικού χώρου», *Λαογραφία* 41 (2007-2009). *Τόμος Εκατονταετήριος. Αφιέρωμα στα εκατό χρόνια (1908-1909 / 2008-2009) της Ελληνικής Λαογραφικής Εταιρείας και του περιοδικού «Λαογραφία»*, pp. 215-244.

Such invitations are typically sent to MPs, mayors, deputy mayors and municipal councilors, to the regional governor, the deputy regional governors and the regional consultants of the region, but also to judicial, military and police authorities of each municipality or the specific region, as well as to association and union presidents. Characteristic of the convergence of the public and ecclesiastical ritual is the use of the known invitation protocol, which the Metropolises usually take by the Municipalities, the Prefectures, and the regional districts, and then the churches receive it by the Metropolises and use it. It should be noted here that normally the protocol is in a shortened ("short protocol") and extensive ("long protocol") form, depending on the occasion and the purposes of the inviter. In this way, the body of the "officials" will always have a similar composition, so that at the church act all the local rulers will also distinguish from the people who attend and participate in the festival[1] too.

This diversity in addressing the celebrants, the distinction between "officials" and others, is clearly a modernist practice that does not essentially agree with the equality of believers in the Church, substantiated by the evangelical speech and the patristic theology. But it is common practice, normally due to the attachment of the Church in the state structure and operation system, which is thus expressed in absolutely symbolic level, and which has been mentioned elsewhere too[2].

An equally interesting modernist addition to the fairs' protocol is the transformation "to the more modernist" of old and established customary practices and religious rituals. A typical example is the outdoor Artoklasia. The solemn procession of Artoklasia, normally celebrated inside the temple or its courtyard, if the celebrating temple is small or the weather conditions are such that they do not favor the crowding of the believers, is sometimes transferred to the settlement or municipality Square but also on the beach of the seaside city, during the principal stop of the solemn procession of the image of the saint, usually the night before, after the solemn vesper.

This practice, combined with other modernist practices such as the use of fireworks and the related celebratory speeches, which will be discussed below, is in proportion to the practice of the establishment of new fairs by the local Metropolitans, normally dedicated to the "congregation" of local saints in a region or a Metropolis. Because these newly listed celebrations are usually held during summer, the respective religious events are organized in a way that they offer spectacle to the site visitors and also a rallying point for the emigrants of the region, who are in their homelands during summer. It is characteristic that similar trends are observed in other Christian peoples of Europe, as it has been ascertained by Ellen Ettlinger[3], on the basis of relevant English examples.

So the artoklasia is conducted during the litany, on a stand, and the bread is shared after the return to the celebrating temple and the end of the procession, usually by the head priest of the religious congregation. In fact the practice of bread cut and placed in bags individually, distributed by the high priest along with paper benediction images[4], that serve as mementos of participation in the festival, is followed. For the "officials" mentioned above, but also for the invited priests of other parishes, specially formulated buns are prepared, usually sweet, sometimes with the offering stamp imprinted on their surfaces, which are usually given in special cartons[5]. The same happens with the eminent persons in the region, parishioners with a significant contribution in the parish, donors and benefactors, etc.

It should also be noted here that a similar way of offering and flowers by the flower decorations of images, the epitaph and the cross of Holy Thursday, as well as cottons with Extreme unction, when carried out in the church, or even small bottles with oil from the lamp of the saint or sanctification, can be found in many cases. They are usually organized parishes, populous in general, who resort to similar solutions for utilitarian purposes, but also in their efforts to ensure the jeopardized

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[1] José Casanova, «Religion, the new millennium, and globalization», Sociology of Religion 62.4 (2001), pp. 415-441. Cf. Donald E. Byrne Jr, «Folklore and the Study of American Religion», in Charles H. Lippy - Peter W. Williams (ed.), *Encyclopedia of the American Religious Experience* 1, London 1988, pp. 85-100.

[2] M. G. Varvounis, «Οι εθνοτοπικές παραδόσεις στις μορφές του δημόσιου τελετουργικού της Θράκης», in Idem, *Νεωτερική ελληνική λαϊκή θρησκευτικότητα. Συναγωγή μελετών θρησκευτικής λαογραφίας*, Thessaloniki 2013, pp. 679-696.

[3] Ellen Ettlinger, «Folklore in Oxfordshire Churches», *Folklore* 73.3 (1962), pp. 160-177.

[4] M. G. Varvounis, «Χάρτινες μικρές εικόνες ευλογίας», *Εκκλησία* 85: 9 (2008), pp. 717-721.

[5] Claudia Fonseca, «La religion dans la vie quotidienne d'un groupe populaire brésilien», *Archives de Sciences Sociales des Religions* 112 (1991), pp. 125-139. Wilhelmus Th. M. Frijhoff, *Problèmes spécifiques d'une approche de la religion populaire'dans un pays de confession mixte: le cas des Provinces-Unies*, CNRS, 1979, p. 47 κ.εξ.

order and decorum of the church when the customary occasion and the liturgical circumstance require similar "sacred distributions"[1].

Local and cultural identity

These modernist additions often extend to the case of preaching, which is theologically established and an essential element of the service, always within the framework of divine worship. Already since the time of St. Cosmas of Aetolia but also later with the preachers of the 19th and the 20th century, some of whom were laymen, and with the work of religious brotherhoods in Greece, the tradition of preaching also outside the context of divine worship, for the purpose of spiritual training and mental construction, has established in the minds of our people. In the cases we examine, an interim modernist form has formed, that clearly interests the context of religious folklore, as we define it and examine it here.

These are speeches normally performed by priests or head priests who chair the related processions, and which essentially replace the sermons, as their content is not exclusively beneficial to the soul, like them. Often, of course, they start with the example of the celebrated saint to make admonitions and exhortations to the believers, but the ending of speech is different, since it acquires social and "political" content, with thanks to the local officials who honoured the festival with their presence.

The main point of the festive oratory of these speeches[2], refers to the Orthodox Church as guarantor of traditions and the preservation of the cultural, ethnic and religious identity of the Nation. This oratory projects similar church actions, and gives the church life also extensions beyond the purely spiritual and salvific effort of the Church, with the development of a characteristic for the Greek reality close connection of the Church with the Nation, the ethnicity and their identity. It is a peculiarity of the Greek ecclesiastical reality, which of course is due to historical circumstances, as indeed for centuries the Greek orthodox identity was simultaneously a national and cultural declaration.

Depending on the personality and the ideological origins of the talking, these newly listed religious fairs have national and cultural extensions, and are projected as coherent links of those originating from the same place, the "countrymen" and "compatriots" in the broadest sense. And the basic ideological line of these speeches fits with the usual events of the local associations, or local branches of the Lyceum of Greek Women, who after the artoklasia and the completion of the litany, normally in the same room, they dance traditional dances of the region or nationwide known[3].

Inherent in these events is the ideologically charged connection of folk culture with certain "traditional" celebrational moments, which requires, for example, on Easter Sunday television stations to show broadcasts that fall within the limits of 'staged authenticity'[4] with bands who dressed in "traditional dresses" dance relevant dances, representing generally in a folklore way, older forms of Easter customs in their area. Here it is absolutely typical that the worship and church life falls in the folklore self-determination of the "local identity"[5], and that through the support of such actions, the Church strongly asserts the role of the protector but also of the eminently genuine exponent of this tradition.

Of course, to a certain extent, this is absolutely justified, as in modern Greek society, the Church is one of the few living institutions in which the people has complete trust since they see the ways it operates today. This assumption is what

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[1] Joseph Klapper, *Religiöse Volkskunde im gesamtschlesischen Raum: Grundlagen und Aufgaben*, P. Pattloch, 1953, σ. 35 seq.

[2] Jeanne Kormina, «Pilgrims, priest, and local religion in contemporary Russia: Contested religious discourses», *Folklore* 28 (2004), pp. 25-40. Karl Sigismund Kramer, *Grundriß einer rechtlichen Volkskunde*, Schwartz, 1974, σ. 68 seq. Josef Kreiner, «Some Problems of Folk-Religion in the Southwest Islands (Ryukyu)», in *Folk Religion and the Worldview in the Southwestern Pacific*, New York 1968, pp. 101-118. Mark Kriger - Yvonne Seng, «Leadership with inner meaning: A contingency theory of leadership based on the worldviews of five religions», *The Leadership Quarterly* 16.5 (2005), pp. 771-806.

[3] M. G. Varvounis, «Το Λύκειο Ελληνίδων και η σκηνική αναπαράσταση του ελληνικού παραδοσιακού χορού», *Πρακτικά Α΄ Πανελληνίου Συνεδρίου Λαϊκού Πολιτισμού «Η διαχρονική εξέλιξη του παραδοσιακού χορού στην Ελλάδα»*, Serres 2000, pp. 219-224.

[4] V. Puchner, «Η έννοια της σκηνοθετημένης αυθεντικότητας στην έρευνα του ελληνικού λαϊκού πολιτισμού», *Λαογραφία* 42 (2010-2012). *Πρακτικά Πανελληνίου Συνεδρίου 100 χρόνια Ελληνικής Λαογραφίας 1909-2009 (Πανεπιστήμιο Αθηνών, 11-13 Μαρτίου 2009) – Πρακτικά Ημερίδας «Η έρευνα των λαϊκών διηγήσεων στον ελληνικό και τον διεθνή χώρο»*, pp. 819-829 (= Idem, *Δοκίμια λαογραφικής θεωρίας*, Athens 2011, pp. 69-81).

[5] M. G. Meralkis, *Νεοελληνικός λαϊκός βίος: Όψεις και απόψεις*, Athens 2001. Cf. C. Barraud – J. D. M. Platenkamp, «Rituals and the comparison of societies», in C. Barraud – J. D. M. Platenkamp (ed.), *Rituals and Socio-cosmic Order in Eastern Indonesian Societies* 2, Bijdragen 1990, pp. 23-24.

explains both the ecclesiastical oratory in the celebrational circumstances that are examined here, and the great popular participation in them, considering also the love factor of the people for public ceremonial forms and actions.

A modernist phenomenon is also the connection of the fair, long-established or newly listed, with the organisation of a series of events, which usually take their name from the celebrated saint (eg "Taxiarcheia", "Nikodimeia ", "Theotokia", "Theomitorica ", "Evangelistria"etc.) and are contacted in temporal relevance to the fair, starting before it and ending after its end.

These events have a triple nature, worship, spiritual and artistic, and usually their contents, sometimes spread in duration up to a month, are imprinted in special posters, programs, and invitations, sent or posted, in order to make them public and attract people. In fact in the recent years electronic posting and notification has started, as the use of Internet and new technologies is increasingly spreading in the church.

The worshiping part of these events includes the conduction of various sequences, beyond the established festive ones, always coherent with the well-known and miraculous images or any holy relics transferred to the celebrating church for the holiday, according to a major modernist religious practice, which is discussed in detail on another occasion. These are liturgies, pre-sanctified if it is Lent, vespers, vigils, and prayers, always combined with preaching and relevant treats by the church.

The spiritual part is covered with the organization of meetings, small conferences or lectures, which generally have a religious and theological content, but are often spread on related sciences too, such as history, literature and folklore[1]. The topics of these events are generally varied and conducted in cultural centers and parishes' halls, or in halls and conference centers of the Metropolises where they belong. The participants are intellectuals and scientists of the parish, and also widely known authors and researchers in the spiritual and ideological field, which generally major audiences follow[2]. In fact in some cases, these spiritual and scientific events are held inside the temples.

Artistic aspects

The artistic aspect of these events has also various themes. It includes from paintings, crafts mainly from workshops and schools organized and operated in the area of the parish and photography, to music and dance events. In fact the latter, in the frame of the above mentioned, are mainly located in the area of church and folk music, but without excluding classical music concerts, church music of other Orthodox peoples (eg Russian) and choral presentations. Often these events include items for sale, which will strengthen the parish fund, or are part of Charity actions, that exist in almost all parishes, and to which the maintenance and support of the charitable activities of the different parishes[3] are often owed.

In some cases, when the festival coincides with a national or other commonly known holiday, and when the time of year favors it, these events include also theatrical performances, presentation of the work of amateur artistic groups, even large music concerts, whose revenue will strengthen again the parish fund. Sometimes school and student competitions are included again in the same context, with the goal to write a text or the production of a work of art, the theme of which revolves around the celebrated saint, or around values, ideals, and messages that the Church has chosen to project.

Basically, these events have as a common axis the projection of the honored saint, his life, and his life model, and also the parish work and the parish as a whole. Nowadays, with these events, a new parish perspective is essentially constructed, expressed primarily through the novel phenomena replicated here[4]. This modernistic parish spiritual and ideological identity is also documented by the keepsakes given in these celebrations to all participants, diplomas, plaques and medals, where

[1] Benoît Lacroix - Jean Simard, *Religion populaire, religion de clercs?* 2, Quebec, 1984, p. 123 κ.εξ. Benoît Lacroix, «L'Oratoire Saint-Joseph (1904-1979), fait religieux populaire», *Cahiers de Joséphologie Montréal* 27.2 (1979), pp. 255-265. Roger Lapointe, *Socio-anthropologie du religieux: la religion populaire au péril de la modernité* 1, Librairie Droz, 1988.

[2] Jacques Maître, «Religion populaire et populations religieuses», *Cahiers Internationaux de Sociologie* 27 (1959), pp. 95-120.

[3] M. G. Varvounis, «'Φάγονται πένητες και εμπλησθήσονται'. Λαογραφικές θεωρήσεις των εκκλησιαστικών συσσιτίων του ελληνικού αστικού χώρου», *Θεολογία* 83:4 (2012). *Θεολογία και οικονομία. Προσεγγίσεις στη σύγχρονη κρίση*. Μέρος Β΄, pp. 81-97.

[4] M. G. Varvounis, «Ναός κάτω από το ναό: Πρακτικές της νεωτερικής ελληνικής αστικής λαϊκής θρησκευτικότητας», *Κανίσκιον. Τιμητικός τόμος επί τη 10ετηρίδι (2001-2011) της Αρχιερατείας του Σεβασμιωτάτου Μητροπολίτου Ύδρας, Σπετσών, Αιγίνης, Ερμιονίδος και Τροιζηνίας κ. Εφραίμ*, Hydra 2011, pp. 257-263.

the emblems of the parish, as well as representations and signals of emblematic content are clearly reflected, in trying to perpetuate the fair beyond the specific timing.

In this direction also leads the yearly repetition of these events, with greater or more limited scope, depending on the circumstances and the specific situation data, but with the clear statement that it is a continuation of the preceding. The continuity in time proves the establishment, and this factor is a condition of self-righteousness for the contributors of such parish events[1], which should be highlighted that are purely voluntary, with minimized expenses, propped on volunteers and partners, generally folksy, active in every parish.

Besides, we should not forget that in the category of modernist parish events are also included all kinds of educational activities, which the parishes organize and carry out, with the aim of gathering and bringing together people, especially young people, around the parishes. After 2009, the economic crisis of Greek society, which becomes more and torturously felt in large urban centers, led to a concentration of various social functions around the parishes, to the level of free offer to people who cannot pay for them: food, schools for students, purchase of medicines, clothing and even medical care often covered at parish level, by church resources[2].

Already before the outbreak of the crisis, the parishes offered for free knowledge and skills, within their social work: painting lessons, music and dance, cookery and craft courses (woodwork, copper art, jewellery making, etc.), and even foreign languages lessons and providing basic medical and legal knowledge are some of the areas in which the parish work spread. The students of those, basically afternoon, classes, often exhibit their works - with any revenue from the sales to primarily strengthen the parish fund - and actively participate in the events referred to here.

Basically is another aspect of the contributing to society of the parishes of the cities, in the sense that the joint participation in such actions under the auspices of the Church, most often creates or rebuilds and transforms social relations, becoming an essential social unity factor and enhancing the local community ties in the wider operating area of these parishes[3]. And it is this social role, which in final analysis places particular emphasis to these actions, making them the most beloved collective events among people, beyond their obvious religious, intellectual and functional significance for the believers of our times[4].

Conclusion

The novel elements of our above mentioned contemporary church fairs, are typical aspects of the contemporary also Greek popular religiosity, which the religious folklore studies. Aspects important for the study of the forms our modern sense of tradition takes, and the transformations the older forms undergo, while the tradition process traverses human societies over time.

In these forms coexist both developments and older data transformations, as much as new forms, adopted either from abroad or from other sectors and divisions of the organized social life. In fact, it should be noted that in the religious folklore we cannot refer to "our own" and "foreign" elements, since from the moment an element of the traditional religious behaviour is adopted by the people, it becomes a fact of the folklore of the given place and time[5]. So the adoption of forms from the

[1] Cf. Elaine J. Lawless, «Brothers and sisters: Pentecostals as a religious folk group», *Western Folklore* 42.2 (1983), pp. 85-104.

[2] M. G. Varvounis, «Αστική λαϊκή θρησκευτικότητα σε ενοριακά πλαίσια: η περίπτωση της ενορίας της Αγίας Αναστασίας της Πατρικίας της Ι. Μητροπόλεως Περιστερίου», in G. Andriomenos (ed.), *Ευκαρπίας Έπαινος. Αφιέρωμα στον καθηγητή Παναγιώτη Δ. Μαστροδημήτρη*, Athens 2007, pp. 183-199. Idem, «Λαϊκά θρησκευτικά πανηγύρια αθηναϊκών ενοριών», in G. K. Kairophyllas – S. G. Philippotis (ed.), *Αθηναϊκό Ημερολόγιο* 19 (2008), pp. 210-218.

[3] Hitoshi Miyake, «Folk religion», in *Religion in Japanese culture: where living traditions meet a changing world*, New York 1996, pp. 79-96. Idem, *Shugendō: essays on the structure of Japanese folk religion*, Center for Japanese Studies, the University of Michigan, 2001. Cf. P. A. Morris, «The effect of pilgrimage on anxiety, depression and religious attitude», *Psychological Medicine* 12.2 (1982), pp. 291-294.

[4] Roberto Motta, «Ethnicité, nationalité et syncrétisme dans les religions populaires brésiliennes», *Social Compass* 41.1 (1994), pp. 67-78. George MacDonald Mulrain, *Theology in Folk Culture: The Theological Significance of Haitian Folk Religion*, P. Lang, 1984. Arnaldo Nesti - F. Dassetto - A. Bastenier, «Gramsci et la religion populaire», *Social Compass* 22.3-4 (1975), pp. 343-354.

[5] M. G. Varvounis, «Η ελληνική λαϊκή λατρεία μεταξύ Ανατολής και Δύσης: ζητήματα πολιτισμικού διαλόγου στη Θρησκευτική Λαογραφία», *Phasis. Greek and Roman Studies* 13-14 (2010-2011). Institute of Classical, Byzantine and Modern Greek Studies – Ivane Javakhishvili Tibilisi State University, pp. 416-434.

people, which inevitably means the beginning of a series of changes and transformations, is the critical point after which we cannot talk about outlandish customs, but for manifestations of the single folklore.

Through this adoption of forms, with their subsequent changes and amendments, or rather the "stochastic adjustments" of the basic characteristics of the live tradition by the people, the renewal of the tradition is achieved, as much as the enrichment of the customary life of the people[1]. This, in turn, is essential for the vitality and the continuation of the social impact and the acceptance of the tradition, which is an active procedure in progress, and not a set of fossilized situations, things, opinions, and actions[2]. And this happens even in the case of popular religious tradition, no matter how cumbersome and slow in development these by definition conservative and typically almost repeated religious and liturgical traditions of a people are[3].

In this process, the so critical from a cultural perspective since it's linked to the substance of our daily tradition itself, the novel elements of our contemporary religious fairs are critical points, as shown above in detail.

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[3] Cf. G. Vozikas, «Οι υπαίθριες αγορές των θρησκευτικών πανηγυριών στην πρωτεύουσα», *Λαογραφία* 41 (2007-2009), pp. 195-196.

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The Effects of Networks on New Entrepreneur's Internationalization, a Case Study from Izmir-Turkey

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Abstract

Entrepreneurship is not only one of the important topics of developed countries but also takes place in developing countries. State and government agencies, as well as private sector representatives spend efforts for increasing the number of entrepreneurs in an economy. Thus, it is expected to decrease unemployment rates, prevent unrecorded economy and accelerating innovation capability of a nation. To achieve these goals, it is crucial to understand who the entrepreneur is, how their potential will be brought out, what kind of support does he/she need. Especially in emerging economies, entrepreneurs should have vision of being international to gain competitive advantage. Because of that reason researches on internationalization of new ventures have been intensified for 20 years. After experiencing and observing the role of networks and networking on sustainable entrepreneurship, number of studies have been increased. In this study, we chose to conduct in depth interviews among the companies who are in business less 5 years and having an export percentage 10% in accordance with total sales. The findings of the research show that networking accelerates internationalization of new ventures.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, networks, internationalization

Introduction

Success in local or domestic market can limit the internationalization intention of firms, those have tendency to invest and grow in their local market (De Clerq et al., 2005; Arbaugh, Camp & Cox, 2008). But some reasons such as economics crisis, payment risks, international price differences, demand fluctuations, scarcity of natural and human resources, government incentives for export, low wages and tax rates, may have triggering effect on internationalization of firms (Kemer, 2003; Pangarkar, 2008). Due to number of variables, businesses and businessmen will have to be more knowledgeable and attentive than ever before in the global and uninhibited international trade areas, wherever they are in the world (Mirze, 2010).

It is possible to say that the definitions of entrepreneurship are sufficient, but the concepts and definitions related to international entrepreneurship are constantly renewed and the studies about this field include a new researcher day by day. Early studies on internationalization mainly focused on MNE's, but increasing number of entrepreneurial companies, and SME's directed scholars to explore internationalization of different types of companies.

The Conceptual models of international entrepreneurship have drawn attention on; potential of creation wealth, environmental and organizational characteristics, survival and growth (Arbaugh, et al., 2008).

Internationalization simply means operating beyond borders of home country. By leading studies and great contributions to the literature, Mc Dougall and Oviatt (2008, p. 903) define international entrepreneurship as " combination of innovative, proactive, and risk-seeking behavior that crosses national borders and is intended to create value in organizations"

Literature Review

The internationalization can be either in step by step or beginning from company establishment, and according to Crick and Spence (2005) this phenomenon can take place via planned or unplanned. According to stage models of internationalization, export operations are the initial steps of internationalization. Different kinds of stage models(incremental models)were revealed by different scholars. Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul (1975) Johanson and Vahlne, (1977) from Uppsala University-Sweden, developed a model named as their region and university. Uppsala Model of Internationalization (U-M) has four main steps:

In the first step of this model there is no regular export activities,

In the second step, export emerged with the help of independent representative,

In the third step, company will establish a foreign subsidiary

And the last, company will start operations (including manufacturing) abroad.

One of the another crucial contribution to stage (incremental) models was from Cavusgil (1980), this model also considered as Innovation- Related Internationalization. According to his model of internationalization, company sells only to domestic market in the initial step.

Second step is called as pre-export phase, means, seeking information for export qualification.

Third step is Experimental export, the firms starts to export products to countries which are physiologically close to home country.

In the fourth step the firms export directly more than one country with high volumes.

Fifth step committed involvement, means the firms decides about allocating resources in terms of export or domestic sales.

Other reputed incremental models under the Innovation Related Internationalization Models revealed by Bilkey and Teaser (1977), Czinkota (1982) and Reid (1981). Incremental models, Uppsala Internationalization Model and Innovation Related Internationalization Models are behavioural oriented. These models are closely similar, main differences between them are, number of the stages and definitions of steps (Erkutlu & Eryiğit, 2001).

In the literature there can be seen different approaches to internationalization, one of the most important is capital based view, which include, general human capital, management know-how, specific know-how, and ability to acquire financial capital(Becker, 1975; Cooper et al., 1994; Westhead, Wright & Ucbasaran, 2001). According to study of Westhead et al. (2001) experience about working abroad, networking potential of founders, remarkable management know-how encourage firms to be exporter, all these encourage internationalization.

In the discipline of internationalization, stage models were inadequate to explain the process, after acceleration of globalization. According to Lindquvist (1988) and Bell (1995) small company internationalization is affected by relations between customers, entry mode and choosing target market. Not only characteristics of the company and the market determines entering new markets and internationalization but also, position in a foreign network and strength of relationship within network plays crucial role (Johanson & Matson, 1988).

Another model for internationalization is Born Globals, these are the companies,, which have global vision and begin export with one or more products in two or three years after establishment (Knight & Cavusgil, 1996; Luostarinen & Gabrielsson 2006, Servais et al. 2007).

According to Lin, (2010) The international entrepreneurship approach explains the internationalization of the enterprises from the perspective of the entrepreneur, together with the experience and the networks of the entrepreneur. Networks

have potential to provide experiential knowledge to the companies, especially to SMEs which they strongly need in the first stages of their internationalization process and accelerate speed of internationalization because of synergetic relations (Lindqvist, 1997; Dana, Etemad & Wright, 1997). It also provides confidence that facilitating the internationalization process will make it easier for the firm to find solutions to possible problems in international markets.

Social networks and physical networks are related each other; infrastructure, communication equipment, transportation are the parts of pyhsical networks, relations between people during business transactions are the social part of networks (Casson, 1997; Casson & Della Guista, 2007). Axelson and Easton (1992) defines network as " sets of two or more connected exchange relationships" These relationships take place among, the company itself, suppliers, government agencies, customers and shareholders.

Methodology

The aim was to investigate and find out the roles of Networks and their contribution on internationalization of new entrepreneurs. According to our literature review, there were a few specific studies conducted related with networks and internationalization in Turkey. Because of that reason, due to exploratory nature, in depth interviews was chosen as research method (Yin, 1989; Sasi & Arenius, 2008). Qualitative methods should be used to clarify social issues in order to get deeper information (Hill, et al. 1999; Hoang and Antoncic, 2003; Jack, Dodd & Anderson, 2009). Purposive sampling approach was used and 5 participants selected from the members of Agean Exports Union. Series of 5 interviews made with the participants. The duration of interviews was approximately 30 minutes duration per participant. Collected data inductively analysed, network patterns were discovered. Main limitation is our sample size it is not enough to generalization, and the industry types. Working with different sectors and more samples are our future objectives to improve our study.

Findings and Conclusion

According to quotas derived from transcripts we found three main themes.

First theme is **To Overcome Cultural and Language Barriers**

New entrepreneurs who were decided to internationalization have anxiety about overcoming cultural barriers. Studies of Coviello & Munro, (1997) Coviello & Martin (1999) indicated the importance of informal network relations such as friends and family members which our findings supported their claim as well.

 "Before we established our company, we conducted market research on the product. We think Germany will be a suitable market for us. My friend from high school lives in Germany. First, I shared the subject with him. I asked him to find a company for us. The first prototype samples arrived to potential buyers through him. He told us about attending a fair in Germany. In this fair we found a good buyer from Egypt. We export our products both Egypt and Germany"(MO, Partner &Export Manager, Plastic Sector, 2 years old)

 "Our company owner was born in Netherlands, educated there, and had worked for 6 years there. From foundation of our company our orientation is for EU market. Because he had good contacts from EU because of his last relations, he knows 3 languages which enable us to export our products easily". (F. A. Export Manager, Company A, Chemical Industry, 3 years old)

 "Our position in Turkish market is pretty good. But to survive in this business world, people should integrate themselves to new markets, not only domestic, but also international ones. Language and way of doing business are important issues for new companies. I sent my daughter to Italy for fashion certificate program. One of her friend's father also was in men's wear business. With her help I had chance to met him in Italy. He helped me about making patterns in Italian style. After that with their help we started to make collections for famous Italian brands. We also started to export our products to Urumqi-China with a support of an broker"(SH, Owner, Textile, 5 years old).

They had exports to the firms in EU and they knew how to get certification for EU. With the help of broker company we've got requested certificate and started to sell our products with them. We are still working with them, because without them it would be risky for us to start ourselves, but we have also our own export department for exporting our products directly. We have self confidence, we attend regularly international fairs and we are getting important proposals about partnership" (AD, Export Manager, Mineral Processing Sector, 5 years old)

Intermediaries also acting as connector between the firm and customers abroad, they facilitate business transactions both parties. Intermediaries as formal networks, initiates buying and selling activities without bringing producer and customer (Havila, et al. 2004; Oviatt & Mc Dougall, 2005).

"We have met with Turkish entrepreneur in the fair. She helped us during the fair as translator. It has been 3 years since we started to work with her. She is our exclusive agency now, because she now hot to deal with German customers"

"Before we established our company, we conducted market research on the product. We think Germany will be a suitable market for us. My friend from high school lives in Germany. First, I shared the subject with him. I asked him to find a company for us. The first prototype samples arrived to potential buyers through him. He told us about attending a fair in Germany. In this fair we found a good buyer from Egypt. We export our products both Egypt and Germany"(MO, Partner &Export Manager, Plastic Sector, 2 years old)

According to Johanson and Vahlne (1977) in the first step of internationalization, -with the aim of eliminating risks- firms are directed to physically closer markets. From our interviews we can infer same remarks. Germany market is not closer to Turkey but the population of the Turkish people in Germany, enable internationalization of the firms in Turkey. Founders and managers that in firms contemplating and executing international expansion they need to take into account the structure and content of their networks. For instance, SME managers ought to be mindful of the background and expertise of their international contacts and recognize the value of language proficiency in the facilitation of communication with network members. (Musteen, et al. 2010).

Second Theme is **The Way of Doing business**

Our aim was to have competitive position in the domestic market. We are the third biggest company in our sector. But our competitors were really big, it was not easy to get market share from them. Then we decided to export our products to Europe. Because Europe market is safe and logistically close to our country. But we did not know how to deal with standards related with product and operational procedures. One of my friend suggested me a broker company in Izmir.

With the help of broker company we got requested certificate and started to sell our products with them. We are still working with them, because without them it would be risky for us to start ourselves, but we have also our own export department for exporting our products directly. We have self confidence, we attend regularly international fairs and we are getting important proposals about partnership" (AD, Export Manager, Mineral Processing Sector, 5 years old)

According to study of Arbaugh, et al. (2008) knowledge and cultural factors are more important than the companies who are acting in domestic markets. To overcome these issues entrepreneurial firms look for proper network agents for themselves and the successes of the firm in terms of internationalization is connected with the transition from dyadic relationships to multilateral network relationships (Sasi & Arenius, 2008).

Third Theme is **Reducing Risk**

They had exports to the firms in EU and they knew how to get certification for EU. With the help of broker company we got requested certificate and started to sell our products with them. We are still working with them, because without them it would be risky for us to start ourselves, but we have also our own export department for exporting our products directly. We have self confidence, we attend regularly international fairs and we are getting important proposals about partnership" (AD, Export Manager, Mineral Processing Sector, 5 years old)

"For eliminating domestic market risks, our team is decided to enter new markets, and for us, the best way of finding new customers abroad is to attend international fairs. One of the basic challenge was how to communicate in a correct way with Foreign customers. First we attended an international fair in Germany. We have met with Turkish entrepreneur in the fair. She helped us during the fair as translator. It has been 3 years since we started to work with her. She is our exclusive agency now, because she now hot to deal with German customers. I am also member chamber of commerce, commission of cosmetics. I am sharing my experiences and encouraging other members for export business " (L. K, Owner, Company B, Cosmetics Sector, 3 years old)

It can be seen that internationalization of new enterprises in Turkey can be preferred especially in the countries where the Turkish population lives intensively. The reason is that the lack of language, culture, and ways of doing business can be overcome by those who speak their own language and share common culture on this issue. Our main limitation for this

paper is about the city, which we selected our sampling from. The highest number of educated entrepreneurs are living in Izmir. Their vision and their aim related with internationalization can be differ from the entrepreneurs who are living in central and eastern Anatolia. In order to increase the validity and reliability of the study, we ought to increase the number of samples from different parts of Turkey. Because empirical observations show that entrepreneurship tends to concentrate geographically and that while some communities exhibit high rates of entrepreneurial activity, others with similar initial characteristics, do not (Minniti, 2005. p. 24).

According our research on internationalization of new entrepreneurs, we found below contributions of networks.

Support at stands at the fairs,

Organizing Bilateral meetings

Translation services

Pre-financing

One of the basic challenge is for Turkish new entrepreneurs is language. New entrepreneurs fear of making communication failure and misunderstandings. Operational and payment procedures, requested product standards also another issue for the entrepreneurial firms in Turkey to deal with. Experienced, and qualified broker companies or people who have god relations in targeted foreign market, help new firms for internationalization by eliminating potential risks and teaching them how to make business abroad. Relatives and close friends who are living and working abroad, also play important role in internationalization of new entrepreneurial firms.

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Investigation of Attitudes and Perceptions of Human Resource Managers at Hospitality Establishments Regarding Affirmative Action Programs A Case Study in Eskişehir-Turkey

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the perceptions and attitudes of human resource managers at some hospitality organisations regarding the employment of disadvantaged individuals as part of affirmative action program in the province of Eskişehir-Turkey. This study is a qualitative study focusing on real cases to inspire other organisations. The data were collected through active interviews, and the collected data was analysed through the use of manual qualitative data analysis methods. The findings of the study reveal that perceptions of human resource managers regarding disadvantaged individuals at hospitality organisations are closely related to disabled individuals. They do not have positive attitudes towards the employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism as part of affirmative action programs. They are also against positive discrimination of disadvantaged individuals in the employment in tourism for some reasons. All these findings suggest that participants are confused about some terms regarding affirmative action.

Keywords: Affirmative action, employment, tourism, disadvantaged individuals, hospitality organisation

Introduction

The issue of affirmative action has been a major debate among policy makers and administrators managing organisations for long years. Affirmative action (AA) is related to workplace policies and practices aiming to eliminate any discrimination in any workplace among the members of protected classes (Crosby et al., 2006). It is commonly believed that the terms of affirmative action (AA) and equal opportunity (EO) are two closely related terms to one another, and they can be used synonymously. However, they are actually two terms which significantly differ from one another in many ways. The first difference between the two terms is that EO is mostly reactive. It means that EO attempts to remove any discrimination when it occurs. However, affirmative action plans aim to prevent any discrimination within an organisation before it takes place reacting in a proactive way (Crosby et al., 2006). Affirmative Action Programs (AAPs) have been a controversial issue for employment policies in most workplaces throughout the world. With the help of the AAPs, policy makers aim to reduce traditional discrimination practices among employees.

AAPs started to be a major concern in the USA first in history, but it has become a popular issue throughout the world in time. Governments around the world have started to pass new regulations and laws encouraging and leading organisations to decrease any discrimination practices in workplaces (Jain, Sloane, Horwitz, Taggar, & Weiner, 2003). The regulations passed in these countries require organisations to adopt equal opportunity policies and to improve the employment opportunities for the members of underrepresented groups in the society. As individuals employed in organisations have been subjects to AAPs, understanding their psychological reactions to AAPs used in workplaces has been very important. Psychological reactions of employees at organisations such as attitudes of employees play significant roles in the development of affirmative action policies and in the implementation of the AAPs in workplaces. In the determination of the effectiveness of the AAPs in workplaces, managers and employees' supportive attitudes towards the implemented AAPs

are very important for organisations (Hitt & Keats, 1984). As a consequence of this fact, many types of research have been carried out in the field to investigate the attitudes and perceptions of the workers and administrators in organisations. To have a better understanding of affirmative action, which is the subject of this study, it is very important to have a clear definition of "attitude". Attitude is defined as an evaluative judgment regarding an object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). If employees and managers' attitudes towards AAPs can be understood better in organisations, it becomes easier for those implementing AAPs in organisations to manage any AAP related issues. For example, positive support or any resistance to AAP can be managed more effectively in such cases (Bell, Harrison, & McLaughlin, 2000). The most basic aim of this study is to come up with new evidence based on a different context for the AAPs and reactions of human resource managers towards it.

Structural Features of Affirmative Action Programs

The most important structural feature of AAPs is the amount of the focus on applicants' demographic traits such as gender and race-ethnicity, and therefore the relevant research in the literature has focused on these two traits briefly mentioned above. The AAPs used in research are classified into four types as suggested by Sanders (2004)

The first of these is opportunity enhancement. In this class, AAPs offer assistance to the subject group members before the decision of employment was made. This is done with the help of focused recruitment or training. In this category, demographic traits of the applicants are disregarded in the employment decisions. Just opposite, their primary aim is to have more target group members in the pool of qualified candidates to have more alternatives. Thus, decision makers have more alternatives to select and the average quality of the chosen ones are higher than the case when less target group members are available in the selection pool for the decision makers in employment.

The second structural feature of AAPs is equal opportunity, which is the elimination of any discrimination within the organisations. AAPs do not allow decision makers to put a negative focus on membership in an AAP target group. The third one is tiebreak AAPs. Members of the target group are preferred more often over the others if their other qualifications are equivalent. Thus, the amount of positive weight put on the target group is kept at the minimal level. The last structural feature of AAPs is strong preferential treatment AAPs. This one prefers members of the target group even when the qualifications they have are less than those owned by the non-target group members. Thus, more weight is put on demographic traits.

In brief, affirmative action programs are workplace policies and practices designed to reduce historical forms of discrimination based on demographic distinctions among employee. These programs aim to incerase the number of individuals from disadvantaged groups in the work areas where they have been underrepresented traditionally. These programs also help organisations to find out any discrimination within the organisation monitoring the employees well. This is done with the systematic collection of the data from organisation building cause and effect relationship regarding the detected problem.

Affirmative Action for the Employment of Disadvantaged Individuals in Tourism

The employment opportunities in different sectors are mostly based on the match between the job necessity and the qualifications that applicants have regarding the applied job. If the match is good between the job necessity and qualifications, the employment becomes more functional. The match mentioned may be very difficult for those with some significant disadvantages. According to the 30th article of the labour law numbered 4857 and according to the labour law numbered 3713, there has been some quota by the authorities regarding the employment of disadvantaged individuals, physically handicapped individuals and former convicts in the public and private sector. There has been no other legal regulation regarding the employment of other disadvantaged individuals. Therefore, it is very important to focus on the employment of all the disadvantaged individuals in tourism except the ones defined by the law. It can be suggested here that even the employment of the disadvantaged individuals regulated by law are not positively treated by the sector representatives. Therefore, what they think about affirmative action programs is a great wonder. Affirmative action is defined as the whole of the policies, strategies, methods and practices developed for the benefit of disadvantaged individuals in the society. The purpose of affirmative action programs is to help the disadvantaged individuals to be treated more advantageously in their workplaces and education lives than normal individuals (Akbaş and Şen, 2013). Banning discrimination for the purpose of assuring equity within a society seems to cause more social problems. When individuals need to be treated differently because of some features, there is also a need to take some measurements regarding the

elimination of the disadvantages caused by this features. The measures that are also named as affirmative action tend to provide a real equality in employment rather than having equality in word within workplaces (Karan, 2009). Whereas the criteria for equality in employment have been made clear in labour law and constitution, practitioners do not feel clear about them when a need emerges for equal employment in business life. The attempt to ensure real employment equality through affirmative action programs has always been subject to labour contracts and regulation. It is also hard to find an adjudication regarding affirmative action in Turkey, affirmative action is evaluated depending on features of each event emerging in business life (Ulucan, 2013). As tourism has many sub-branches, employment of disadvantaged individuals is closely related to employers' perceptions and implementations regarding affirmative action in workplaces. That is why; this study has great significance as it aimed to raise awareness regarding affirmative action programs in the hospitality industry through a qualitative research.

METHOD

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions, experiences, attitudes and views of human resource managers regarding the employment of the disadvantaged individuals in 7 hospitality establishments in the province of Eskişehir. To do that, the following research questions were looked for answers within the scope of this study;

What are the perceptions of the human resources managers regarding disadvantaged individuals?

What are the views of the human resources managers regarding the employment of the disadvantaged individuals in the hospitality industry?

What are the views of human resources managers regarding the affirmative action in the employment of disadvantaged individuals in hospitality industry?

Is there any interesting experience of human resource managers with any disadvantaged individuals?

Limitations of the Study

This qualitative study was conducted at only 7 hospitality establishments in the province of Eskişehir. The biggest limitation of this study is that it was conducted at a few hospitality establishments. Therefore, it is difficult to make generalisations using the findings of this study, which is always so in qualitative studies by their nature. However, qualitative studies can have inspiring findings for other establishments operating in the same sector.

Design of the Study

This study aims to fill in a gap regarding perceptions of human resources managers in hospitality industry regarding affirmative actions and strategies in Turkey. A qualitative case study approach was used in this study to answer the research questions and objectives. This approach uses rich in-depth interviews to gather data (Berg 1989). This study is grounded in an interpretive paradigm attempting to see the events through insiders' perspective (Jennings 2001). One reason for using a qualitative approach is to collect rich information from the participants because it cannot be done so effectively through standard quantitative instruments (Veal, 1997). Qualitative research is flexible and they allow researchers to be creative for the detailed analysis of research data collected in the study. Human resource managers were primarily chosen as participants in the study due to their knowledge regarding their company's operational strategies in employee hiring.

The data collection method used in this study to address the research questions was qualitative interviewing. Qualitative interviewing can be in-depth, semi-structured or loosely structured forms of interviewing as suggested by (Mason, 2002). For this study, the data collection was done through semi-structured in-depth interviews with 7 different hotel managers to gather data regarding affirmative action. Many advantages of interview techniques as a data collection method have been suggested by researchers. Jennings (2010) suggests that semi-structured interviews can be used to reorganise and expand the responses. The semi-structured schedule provides a relaxed interview setting for both the interviewer and interviewee. Each interview was also type recorded for the further analysis of the collected data.

Participants

7 hotel managers were communicated within the scope of this study in the province of Eskişehir, and they were briefly informed about the aim of the study. They were also informed about the data collection instrument and procedure. All of them volunteered to participate in the study.

Interview Form and Data Collection

Semi-structured interview technique was used in this qualitative study to collect data from the human resources managers. The interview form consisted of four open-ended questions. The interview questions were given to the participants through e-mail prior to the interviews upon their request. Then interviews were arranged through phone calls with the human resource managers and then the interviews were conducted with them in their workplaces. The questions developed for this study were directed to the participants and the answers were type recorded for further data analysis. The active interviewing technique was used in this study and this technique takes the advantage of interviewee's personal experience accepting him/her as an authority on the examined issue. At this point, the interviewer is responsible for keeping the conversation focused on the key points of interest, but they should also be ready to revise the interview questions under the light of the emerging new ideas. The questions which were asked to the participants are as follows;

Who are the disadvantaged individuals according to you? What do you recall when you are mentioned about disadvantaged individuals?

What do you think about the employment of the disadvantaged individuals?

What do you think about affirmative action in the employment of the disadvantaged individuals in tourism sector?

Do you have any interesting experience that you had with any disadvantaged individual? If there is, could you tell us about it, please?

Data Analysis

The data collected through semi-structured interviews were analysed with descriptive data analysis method. The analysis was done in four stages. At the first stage, a framework was formed with the help of the research questions of this study for data analysis. Thus, it was made clear under which themes the collected data could be grouped. It was very important to combine the collected data under relevant themes in a logical and meaningful way. After that, the organised data were defined and direct quotations were presented from the interviews. Following this stage, the findings of the study were explained and meaningful relationships were built among them. Cause and effect relationships among the findings were made clear to support the discussion, and relevant comparisons were made among different cases.

Validity and Reliability

Qualitative studies are considered to be reliable when the data is collected and analysed in one hand by the same individual (Kirk & Miller, 1986). Therefore, the interviews in this study were conducted by only one individual and the collected data were also analysed by the same individual to make the study a reliable one. Then the analysis procedure was revised and edited by the other researchers to increase the validity and reliability of the study. On the other hand, validity in active interviews, as in this study, is obtained through the conversational approach in data collection in field research (Platt, 2002). Opposed to the survey interview, which is a common way of data collection in quantitative studies, it is possible for both parties of interactions to clarify meaning in communication in active interviews. Another reason why this study is a valid one is that the findings of the study were shared with the participants of the study, and they confirmed the findings. The findings of the study were also shared with a field expert, and they were discussed in detail. The data of the study were also stored in confidence by the researcher for any further confirmation in the future. The process of data analysis was explained in detail. For the external validity, the stages of the study were explained in detail. Direct quotations from the interviews were also presented in the study to support the findings of the study.

Results

In this qualitative study which was conducted at 7 hospitality organisations in Eskişehir province aimed a few things, one of which is to reveal the perceptions of human resource managers at some hospitality organisations towards disadvantaged individuals in employment. The following question was asked to the human resource managers in the interviews as the first

step, "*Who are the disadvantaged individuals according to you? What do you recall when you are mentioned about disadvantaged individuals?* The findings obtained are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Findings regarding the perceptions of managers towards disadvantaged individuals.

Disadvantaged Individuals	Participants (P)
Disabled individuals	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7
Drug users	P1, P3, P5, P7
Terror-stricken	P6
Former sentenced persons	P2, P3, P5, P7
Those with different sexual preferences	P3
Immigrants	P4
Those from shelter houses	P4

When the replies given to this question in the interviews were analysed, it was found that the participants' perceptions regarding disadvantaged individuals varied from one another and significantly differed. All of the participants placed "disabled individuals" under the category of disadvantaged individuals. However, 4 of the participants replied the question as "drug users", "former sentenced individuals" and "immigrants" as shared answers. That makes it clear that the human resource managers of the subject hospitality organisations had deficient knowledge of disadvantage individuals when all answers are considered.

Following the first question addressed to the participants, the following question was asked; " What do you think about the employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism sector?" The answers received fort his question varied from one another, some of which were positive and some of which were negative. Some extracts are given below and then they are analysed.

"Government should take more responsibility in the employment of disadvantaged individuals to increase the employment rates in the sector as should be in all sectors. I do not think that the government has done enough in this matter" (P1)

"It is our duty to help those individuals in their employment and manage their lives as normal individuals" (P2)

"Organisations do not seem to volunteer in employing such individuals if they are legally forced to do so" (P3)

"I do not think we need enforcement to employ such individuals in tourism because qualification is important in tourism sector as it is a service based sector" (P4)

"The government should employ such individuals in public sector, but it should not legally for private sector in employment of disadvantaged individuals. We are a private sector and we have to struggle to commercially survive but public sector does not have such concern" (P5)

"I should not be forced by the government in the employment of disadvantaged individuals. I need to employ the people who will have a real function in the operation of the organisation" (P6)

"It is not appropriate to employ such individuals in all sectors. Tourism is one of these sectors which need special qualification. If we employ everybody as they are disadvantaged in tourism, we will have big problems" (P7)

The replies received from the participants reveal that more than half of the participants were against the employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism. In other words, they had negative perceptions regarding the employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism. Their main concerns seem that they consider tourism a sector which is service dominant. Employees have to interact with customers face to face most of the time and they consider disadvantaged individuals as problematic ones to allow them with clients. Two participants suggested that tourism is not a sector where

such individuals could be employed freely. They state that public sector is one where such individuals need to be employed. What is interesting is that their replies all show that they consider disadvantaged individuals as potential source of problem in their employment.

To find out the perceptions and attitudes of human resource managers towards affirmative action, the following question was asked to the participants; "*What are your views as human resources managers regarding the affirmative action in the employment of disadvantaged individuals in hospitality industry?*

"*I am not positive for affirmative action plan in the employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism because I personally believe that they will cause a lot of problems within the organisations. Our sector is based on service and interaction between employees and customers. I believe that employment of such individuals as part of affirmative action will give serious damage to the operative capacity of the organisations*" (P1)

"*As a manager of this organisation, my priority is to employ the individuals whose qualifications match the needs of the job in my organisation. If I have to obey the requirements of affirmative action programs, I will have to employ those with irrelevant skills and qualifications*" (P2)

"*I am against affirmative action in employment in tourism. Tourism is a service dominant sector and interaction is very important in this sector. If you employ disadvantaged individuals as affirmative action programs require, you risk a lot of things*" (P3)

"*When affirmative action is implemented in hospitality organisations in tourism, it will lead to serious and irreversible consequences in the organisation. It is against the principle that relevant job should be given to the relevant employee with relevant qualifications regarding tourism and service delivery*" (P4)

"*Qualification should always have the priority in employment. Employment of such individuals as part of affirmative action programs can be good in some sectors, but tourism cannot be one of those because employees have great significance in hospitality organisations*" (P5)

"As we have difficulty in finding the right employee for the right position, it would be more difficult to do so if implementing affirmative action in employment is done. Public sector is the right place to employ such people as they have no *concern regarding profitability*" (P6)

"*I do not think it is a right way of increasing the employment of such individuals in tourism. We are different, and this sector is very sensitive. Skill is very important. Where will I place such people in my workplace?*" P7

All of the findings obtained from the participants regarding affirmative action in employment in tourism reveal that all of the human resource managers are against affirmative action programs because of some concerns. Almost all of the participants stated that tourism, especially hospitality establishments need skill and qualification based employment as it is a service sector. The interaction between employees and customers has primary significance, so employees should be selected considering their skills and qualifications. As their perceptions are negative towards affirmative action in the employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism, especially hospitality establishments, their attitudes are also negative towards affirmative action in tourism.

Human resource managers were asked the following question to reveal their perceptions and attitudes towards affirmative action in the employment of disadvantaged individuals in hospitality establishment; "*Do you have any interesting experience that you had with any disadvantaged individual? If there is, could you tell us about it, please?*" Only one of the participants had an interesting experience with any disadvantaged individuals in the past, and the other participants had no experience or they do not remember any experience regarding this issue. The experience is as follows;

"*At one of the organisations where I worked as a manager, our human resource responsible employed a former sentenced person in the organisation. When we examined his qualification for the most appropriate placement within the organisation, we decided to employ him in the kitchen as a person responsible for the transfer of the consumable materials in the kitchen, but he, in time, requested to work in the frontline to interact with consumers as he found himself qualified for it not to make him feel that he was positively discriminated in the organisation. However, we had problems with him and many consumers delivered many complaints about him. When asked him for explanation, he said that he was negatively discriminated within the organisation by the other employees and managers as he was a former sentenced person. We had to stay silent but*

complaints continued in time and we could not speak about this matter with him. We had to dismiss him, which was a bad experience for us" (P3)

Whereas only one participant suggested a negative experience with the employment of any disadvantaged individual, it was a negative one. In his experience, it was clear that the disadvantaged employee exploited the fact that he was employed as a disadvantaged individual. When the participants' perceptions and attitudes are considered under the light of the responses given to the former questions directed in the interviews, it can be suggested that human resource managers are negative towards affirmative action and employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism.

Discussion

The findings of this qualitative study suggest that the perceptions of human resource managers at hospitality organisation in Eskişehir province are closely related to disabled individuals, physically or mentally. Therefore, it can be suggested under the light of this finding that participants have low level of awareness regarding disadvantaged individuals. In fact, the term of "disadvantaged individuals" is more comprehensive than disabled individuals. As they mainly focus on "disabled" individuals when asked about disadvantaged individuals, they mainly associate disadvantaged individuals with disabled individuals, which is the main cause of the confusion here.

When considered from the point of employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism, it can be suggested that they are not positive towards their employment in tourism. The main reason for that, as suggested by the participants in the relevant replies to the relevant question in the interview, they consider tourism as a service dominant sector. Therefore, interaction is very important between customers and employees and they do not feel sure about the rapport between customers and disadvantaged individuals when employed in their organisations. They believe that any mismatch in the interaction between customers and employees will cause reversible consequences for the organisation.

Participants' reactions to affirmative action seem to be parallel with their reaction to employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism. They do not volunteer to employ disadvantaged individuals in tourism as part of affirmative action programs. They believe that tourism is a too risky sector to positively discriminate disadvantaged individuals in tourism because skills and qualifications possessed by those employed in tourism. When individuals are subject to affirmative action in employment in tourism, they believe that they have to ignore the skills and qualifications sought for, which in time leads deterioration in service delivery and customer satisfaction in hospitality organisations.

After all those findings, it can be concluded that tourism cannot be considered as a sector where affirmative action can be implemented in employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism. However, those operating in tourism sector, especially in hospitality organisations, can be asked for their ideas before putting legal forces in the employment of disadvantaged individuals not to cause the negative consequences mentioned above by the participants. That does not mean to say that tourism should be excluded from affirmative action, positive discrimination in employment of such individuals, but further studies and field work should be done to raise awareness of human resource managers at hospitality organisation regarding the difference between disabled individuals and disadvantaged individuals. Thus, human resource managers' perceptions can be changed positively to help them adopt positive attitudes towards the employment of disadvantaged individuals in tourism. If they have less concern about the performance of those employed as part of affirmative action, their employment rates in tourism can be increased.

In brief, it can be suggested that human resource managers' false perceptions regarding disadvantaged individuals are the main barrier to the employment of such individuals in tourism. The interaction between the sector and policy makers should always be kept alive. Even disadvantaged individuals should undergo skill and qualification analysis for better placement in workplaces to increase their job performance. Thus human resource managers' perceptions and then attitudes will change for positive in time. The conclusions draw here are based on some hospitality organisations in Eskişehir province. Further and more comprehensive research can be conducted on more organisations to test the findings of this qualitative study. Further research can focus on this.

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Business Climate Versus the Attraction of Direct Foreign Investments in Albania

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Abstract

There are statistics that foreign direct investments (FDI) in Albania have significantly declined. Business climate and skill of policies to attract FDI in Albania has apparently not impacted the promotion of investments from foreign businesses. This study assesses the business environment disadvantages and the readiness and availability of foreign investors to take risks with their investments in a foreign market facing the business climate of the host country, as well as the skill or failure of the latter for long term cooperation. Some basic components of the business climate in Albania, impact and their attractiveness to foreign investors will be analyzed and assessed. The research methodology selected for this study is the quantitative one, where a number of about 100 CEO and administrators of medium and big foreign companies in Albania have been planned to be interviewed. The measuring instrument will be standardized and after data collection, a series of analyses will be built such as correlation, means, standard deviations, frequencies, Chi-square ($\chi2$) where the value *p>00.5*. Analysis of variables will be realized through SPSS program. The study will be closed with relevant conclusions and recommendations.

Keywords*:* foreign direct investments, business climate, fiscal policy, management.

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid economic growth and integration in the European Union are listed among the key priorities in the Albanian government program and of the regional governments as joining the European family appears to be the final station for Albanian people and Balkans as a whole. Therefore, the main domestic policies over the last years have had a positivist approach to the economic liberalization and business climate improvement, leasing to better conditions for doing business in Albania and to attract foreign direct investments (FDI). We see such an overview in the doing business study conducted by the World Bank (2015). Albania had an obvious improvement over years in the alignment among countries. Practically, in 2014 Albania was classified at the 62th position compared to the 108th position of one year ago in 2013, but the last year situation is worse, because Albania lost 35 positions and it is classified at the 97th position. The law of foreign direct investments in Albania provides a favorable climate to attract foreign direct investments (FDI). Further, based on the Albanian legislation, there is no restriction regarding the entry of foreign investments and there is equal treatment with local and foreign investors.

On the other hand, it is noted that foreign direct investments (FDI) are highly instrumental to the generation of local investments to attract funds, facilitate the transfer of management skills and technological knowledge, expand local market competition, create modern employment opportunities, increase global market access to goods and export etc (Moosa, 2002). Accordingly, taking into account the importance and key role of FDI for the developing countries, the governments of these countries attempt to stimulate the FDI attraction, practicing various stimulation packages in fiscal policies but not only. Such reforms may create a friendly climate for foreign investors, with a view of minimizing or removing trade barriers and state involvement in business issues, attempting to provide mutual partnership between the government and investor, and without underestimating the competition level of other regional countries so that to make the country more attractive for foreign investors.

However, a number of empirical researches carried out in different countries show that development and implementation of reforms is an ongoing and inadequate process because other associated policies will be required to further improve the business climate and of investments in general (Navaretti and Venables, 2004). Readiness and availability of the

governments to build appropriate infrastructure (Wheeler and Mody, 1992) have a positivist approach to fiscal and institutional policies, representing key factors for the developing countries, with a view of increasing the inflows of foreign investments (Henisz, 2000a, b).

Being a serious coherent issue for international companies and economics of the developing countries, it has given rise to our research study. Based on a quantitative empirical research, we will highlight some of the business climate components contributing to the attraction of FDI. The basic purpose of the study is to analyze the impact of business climate on the attraction of FDI, addressing the independent variables: corruption, fiscal policies and political stability. Hence, we will identify the correlational relationship between the dependent variable of business climate and independent variables of corruption, fiscal policies and political stability.

In close connection with theoretical and empirical studies, the present study is based on the research question of investigative character: Does the business climate (corruption, fiscal policies and political stability) impact the attraction of FDI in Albania?

The study hypotheses to be tested in the wake of this study are raised on the key components influencing the attraction of FDI in Albania. Null and alternative hypothesizes are determined as below:

$H_1 \rightarrow$ Corruption has a negative impact on the attraction of FDI.

$H_2 \rightarrow$ Fiscal policies influence the attraction of FDI.

$H_3 \rightarrow$ Political stability has an impact on the attraction of FDI.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are wide empirical literature sources on the course followed by FDI investments in developing countries, and their impact on host countries. Yet, which are the reasons of business transfer or doing business in a foreign country?

Most of these studies highlight a series of main factors attracting foreign investors, such as the internal economic environment, market size and opportunity to establish an economy of scale (Mitra and Golder, 2002); quality of infrastructure, labor force cost, (Wheeler and Mody, 1992) economic opening, capital gains, political stability (Schneider and Frey, 1985), good governance (Globerman and Shapiro, 2002), macroeconomic stability, level of economic reforms, trade liberalization, heritage of natural resources, privatization method etj. Garibaldi etc, (2001), namely, the business and investment climate in general. All these factors, according to Rugman (1981), constitute advantages of both main groups:

a) *specific sustainable advantages of the company or "driving force"* as we would refer to the country of origin. Specifically, the company skill, capacity or additional potential to expand its activity abroad such as technology, various knowledge, management or marketing skills and other assets; and

b) *specific advantages of the host country* or "force of gravity" of the host country, in our opinion, include all specific advantages afforded by the host country such as natural resources, quality and quantity of labor force or otherwise referred as human assets, labor force cost, cultural factors, corruption level, tariff and non-tariff barriers, fiscal policies etc. Based on the specific qualities of the host country or to put it differently "attributes of the host country" are determinant in the FDI inflow (Smith, 1981). On the other hand, empirical researches demonstrate that FDI investments generate a positive impact on the economic growth of the host countries (Duttaray, Dutt and Mukhopadhyay, 2008).

A number of scientific studies have treated with high priority the role of business climate on the attractiveness of FDI investments in the developing countries as an instrument of globalization increasing the equality of the distribution of income and goods as a whole (Pica and Mora, 2011). Based on the study conducted by Kinda (2010), in many countries of the world it appears that serious limitations in relation to FDI attraction are financing restrictions, institutional concerns, corruption and physical problems of infrastructure (Asiedu, 2002) etc. Further, the studies of Kaufman etc (1999) and of many other researchers conclude that the most important indicators of FDI attraction are political stability, government's effectiveness, regulatory burden or fiscal policies, law enforcement, corruption level and labor force cost (Wheeler and Mody, 1992).

II.1 Corruption

Corruption is a social problem, a lack of rules, distortion of social norms and values required for the normal functioning of a free market economy (Primorac and Smoljić, 2011). Corruption is a behavior that constitutes a deviation of normal performance of public duties for personal profit or abuse of office by public officials for personal gain, or of a particular group (Bardhan 1997; Bardhan, 2002), impacting the economic development in general (Abed and Gupta, 2002; Easterly 2001), involving additional cost of public or private spending (Kurtzman etc, 2004), in order to create a less favorable environment for FDI and not only. Based on a number of scientific studies, corruption has unequal access to treatment of different groups of interest (Gupta etc., 2002), creates additional costs, escalating prices (Anand etc., 2005), is a serious barrier to economic prosperity of the country (Mauro, 1995; Mauro, 2002) for the access to public goods (Mauro 2002) etc.

Apart from the transaction costs in economy, corruption involves much higher costs in the form of artificial distortions of economy as a ground of opportunistic pragmatist approaches of the corrupt officials. These costly expenses will have to be latter added up through the increase of taxes (Rose-Ackerman 1997), and curtailing of expenses or public investments with a direct impact on the economic growth and increase of inflation etc (1992).

Accordingly, based on the above literature, many researchers have concluded that corruption is a serious obstacle to the attraction of foreign direct investments. Nevertheless, there are other researchers who admit that corruption may have a positive impact on FDI attraction (Egger and Winner, 2003; 2005). We will see below how corruption will impact on the Albanian economy.

II.2 Fiscal policies

Many researchers empirically draw the conclusion of relations between taxes and economic growth, as well as the attraction of foreign investors in particular (Dzambaska, 2013). Hence, changes in the fiscal burden, by facilitating it, produce a significant effect in the increase of number of local business on one hand and they represent a positive instrument to enhance attractiveness and FDI attraction on the other hand (Kaufman etc, 1999; Gropp and Kostial, 2000). A healthy investment climate may sharply reduce transaction costs of the enterprises and the opposite occurs in the increase of doing business cost to the extent that foreign investors do not any longer desire a specific market, notwithstanding the other benefits that may be potentially provided by this market.

The governments often decide on fiscal facilities such as the reduction of tax rate on the corporate revenues to attract FDI investments (Hines, 1999), in strategic sectors or specific regions. This tactic is basically applied by developing countries and economies of the countries in transition. There are many countries that have applied these fiscal incentives, including Albania, which has recently approved six strategic sectors and approval of a free economic zone offering fiscal facilities and not only for the purpose of FDI attraction (relevant law, 2015).

Macroeconomic stability, the sustainability of fiscal policy are considered a key component in decision-making and attractive to foreign investors (Demekas etc. 2007). Therefore, many researchers believe that the policies of the host country are a determinant factor in FDI decision-making. An open market policy that promotes macroeconomic stability, stimulates fair competition on one hand and on the other hand strongly encourages private sector development, is obviously very attractive for absorption of investment and not only. Further, Mitchell (2002) concludes that fiscal competition between countries leads to a reduction of the fiscal burden as foreign investors may transfer their businesses to countries with lower tax burden. Therefore, in this way fiscal competition helps to reduce fiscal burden and FDI absorption (Mitchell, 2002). Furthermore, Diamond and Mirrlees (1971) recommend that small economies should avoid taxation of income received by foreign investors to attract more FDI.

II.3 Political stability

Numerous scientific researchers have found out that political and economic risks seriously prevent the entry of FDI, namely, the political instability creates an uncertain economic environment both at present, and in the longer term to absorb new investments (Barro, 1991; Corbo and Schmidt- Hebbel, 1991). Political stability and sustainable policies of trade opening during the transition of developing countries tend to attract more foreign investors (Campos and Kinoshita, 2003) because it is a good opportunity of expansion for FDI, while the latter are instrumental to the reduction of unemployment and economic growth (Greenaway etc, 2002).

Countries characterized by political stability are commonly associated with democratic institutions and they are supposed to have a positive impact on the entire economy through the process of checks and balance for state administration (Harms and Ursprung 2002; Leavell etc., 2004). Hence, as it appears from the above literature, political stability provides a positive contribution in attracting FDI, but there are other researchers who oppose this line of thought. According to them, they may have a negative effect on FDI investment, since foreign investors may be able to receive better incentives and treatments by autocratic regimes and countries that do not have adequate political stability (Bellos and Subasat, 2012) .

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study is built upon the positivist approach with objective ontological position, where the social reality is existent and may be studied independently from us as researchers (Bob Matthews and Liz Ross, 2010). Knowledge on the phenomena of business climate of the employees FDI attraction is based on what we as researchers may observe and record from the reality, being objective in relation thereto, without impact on data and survey respondents.

In order to prove the hypotheses, present data with easily observable values are used, which are obtained from opinion polls of 94 CEOs and managers of medium and large businesses in Albania. All data are coded and subsequently analyzed by the statistical program SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, version 20). Average value, standard deviation, frequency and other statistical data have described the characteristics of the study on population. Testing of hypothesis is accomplished through Chi-square test ($\chi2$), where the proper statistical level is accepted at $p < .05$.

We have established contacts with all human resources departments of some medium and large companies of FDI (Foreign Direct Investments) operating in Albania, from where we were able to get the opinions of 94 top management leaders. Of those interviewed, 27 were women and 67 men. Sampling was randomly made, by calculating the number of foreign companies operating in Albania. In case a manager refused to participate in the survey, another manager showing interest for the survey was selected.

DATA ANALYSIS

Some other demographic data

We will present some demographic data of this study through related charts. The first chart provides related data regarding year of activity of foreign companies operating in our country. From 94 participant companies in the study, 54 of them are Ltd companies; 28 companies are joint-stock companies (JSC); representative branch office of a foreign company, or tax representatives, and 12 other companies.

Based on the data collected, *24 of them have a production activity, 15 are wholesalers and retail companies, 46 service providers, and 9 other different activities.*

In order to evaluate whether Albania has increased its foreign investments during the years of the loan, the chart below provides survey data, which results are that there is a decrease in absorption of foreign investments in the country in recent years is; respectively, according to chart data in recent years, we have by 2010 two companies that began its activity in Albania, in 2011 only one company, and in 2014 only 2 companies. But, if we refer to data coming from the Bank of Albania, we see that during 2014 we have a decline in foreign direct investment by 15%, compared with a year ago, (Bank of Albania, 2015).

Chart No.1: Initial Year of Activity of Foreign Activities in the Country.

Some of the problems encountered by the respondents in the Albanian business environment are presented in the chart below. They evaluated, according to their judgments and opinions, the issues listed in the chart below, with a measured ascending scale from 1 to 5, where a weighted average is presented for each question (Figure No. 4). The assessment is made as follows: from 1 = *It is not a problem*, to 5 = *It is a very serious problem*.

Problems of the business community in Albania

Issue	Average
Informal/ unfair competition	3,60
Other infrastructure issues (including ,...)	2,29
Administrative court performance	2,92
Telecommunication	1,63
Relations with local administration	1,93
Access to road infrastructure	2,75
Various inspections and control activities	2,52
Environment inspection authority	1,95
Local tax management	2,61
Local tax management	2,81
Frequent changes of administration staff	2,72
Frequent changes of laws and procedures	3,61
Awareness and understanding of legal provisions	3,35
Politikat e nxitjes/Nxitesat e Investimeve	3,33
Investment promotion policies	3,01
Political instability	3,15
Working rules	1,93
Access to qualified labor force	2,71
Access to electrical power/ energy black outs	2,20
Customs and trade rules	2,61
Crime, thefts and turmoil	2,82
Courts	3,62
Corruption	3,39
Permits and licenses for businesses	2,21
Access to funding/ financing	2,03

an average from a lower 1 to a higher 5

Chart no.2: Weighted average of opinions on business environment issues in Albania.

The hypothesis of this study was established based on the research question, where we first hypothesis was **H1: Corruption adversely affects the promotion of foreign investments.** According to the bivariate correlation analysis there is a negative relationship between the two variables, where the growth of corruption in Albania has increased the possibility of an unfavorable business climate for foreign investments in the country. Practically, the value of the correlation coefficient between the two variables is -0.125 and the level of reliability (*alpha observed*) is 0.0247 lower than 5%, which means that there is a statistically stable positive relationship between the two variables of the study.

Even in the case of testing of the second hypothesis/ assumption; **H2 → Political stability affects the promotion of foreign investments (FDI)**, it was tested the possible relationship between two variables by means of the bivariate Parsons' correlation analysis. The results of the data show that there is a positive relationship between the two variables,

where the increase of the variable of the level of political stability is associated with the increase of the possibility that Albania is considered with a favorable climate for foreign direct investments, and the coefficient of the correlation in this case is 0.149. The conclusion of this analysis is a positive relationship, statistically stable, between these two variables, where the level of security is 0.047, which is lower than 5% (*alpha observed <5% or p <.05*). The graphic form below presents the value of the coefficient of correlation between the independent variables, corruption and political instability, and the dependent variable such as FDI.
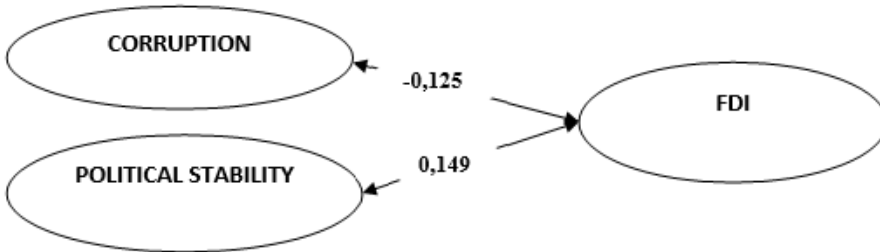
Fig No.1: *Corelational relations between the variables of corruption, political stability and FDI*

As for the third hypothesis of this study, **H3, fiscal policies affect the promotion of foreign investments in the country**, based on an bivariate analysis, the correlation relations between the variables of this hypothesis were tested, where FDI is taken for analysis as an dependent variable, and some fiscal policy components are taken as independent variables of the country. As shown in the figure below, we observe that all independent variables have negative relationship with the dependent variable or FDI, and in all cases, it is clear that the value of the level of security is lower than 5% (*alpha observed <5% or p <.05*). This analysis showed that there is a negative relationship statistically stable between the variables. The following figure shows the relevant values of the correlation coefficient for each case of the scheme
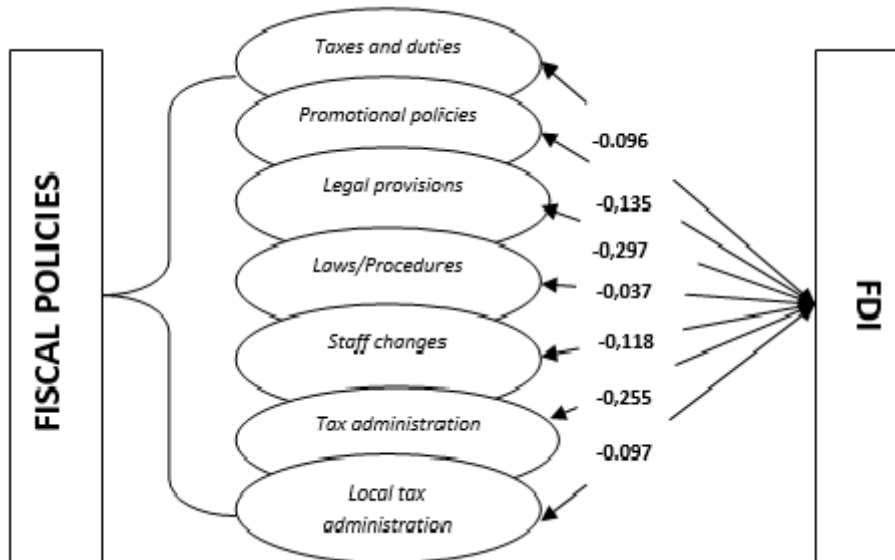
Fig no.2: *Corelational relationship between the variables of fiscal policies and FDI in Albania.*

Testing of hypotheses through hi-square test

Through Chi-Square test, analysis of the three hypotheses of this study to prove the statistical stability and the security level (*alpha observed <5% or p <.05*) was conducted. For the first hypothesis, two main variables such as corruption and the FDI were taken for analysis and as resulted from this analysis, the data showed that for the value of the observed Chi-square test of 44.411, with df = 24, and a security level lower than 5%, which in this case is 0.007, it is concluded that this hypothesis is confirmed, so it is statistically stable. With the same model of analysis, the relationship between the variables of the second hypothesis, namely variables of political stability and FDI, was tested, which results for the observed Chi-square test value of 34,405, the degree of freedom df = 24, give a value of the level of security again lower than 5%, and we can consequently admit that the hypothesis is confirmed even in this case, so it is statistically stable.

Last hypothesis, as shown in the summary table of the chi-square test, consisting of a number of independent variables such as: levels of taxation, investment promotion policies, clarity and understanding of the legal provisions and tax procedures, frequent staff changes in administrative, tax management, local taxes management, compared with the dependent variable of FDI. In all cases, the analysis of test chi-square test showed that the level of security is lower than 5%, which means that the hypothesis is verified and that there is a stable statistic relation between the two variables (refer to table no 1).

Hypothesis	Pearson Chi-Square Tests	Value	df	Asymp.Sig (2-sided)
H_1	Corruption* Business Climate	44.411[a]	24	0.007
H_2	Political Instability * Business Climate	34.405[a]	24	0.028
H_3	Taxes and duties * Business Climate	32.053[a]	24	0.021
	Promotional policies* Business Climate	41.307	24	0.014
	Legal provisions * Business Climate	41.321	24	0.018
	Laws/Procedures * Business Climate	42.006	24	0,011
	Staff changes * Business Climate	44.303	24	0.009
	Tax administration* Business Climate	42.704	24	0.032
	Local tax administration * Business Climate	43.621	24	0.019

Table No.1: *Chi-Square test for three study hypotheses*

CONCLUSION

Results of the survey show that there is a decrease of foreign direct investment (FDI) in Albania during the recent years, and namely in 2014 there is a decrease of FDI in Albania by 15%, compared with a year ago.

Foreign companies operating in our country are mainly ltd companies (limited liability company) with 44%, followed by joint stock companies with 29%, and representative offices with 16%, and the remaining 11% are various. Among them, it is worth mentioning that 26% are mainly focused in manufacturing, 50% are service oriented; 15% is focused on wholesale and retail sale in the local market, and 8% have different activity.

Some serious problems identified by foreign investors in Albania are as follows: the informal economy and unfair competition, which are evaluated with 3.6 / 5 points (3,6 out of 5); frequent changes in tax laws and procedures, evaluated at 3.61 / 5; another element negatively affecting the absorption of foreign investments are the courts 3,62 / 5; high corruption in state administrations which is 3.39 / 5, and many other elements which are shown in chart No.2.

Based on the analysis of Pearson's correlation, the first hypothesis **H1: Corruption adversely affects the promotion of foreign direct investments (FDI)** is confirmed. According to the correlation bivariate analysis, there is a negative relationship between the two variables, which means that with an increase of corruption in Albania, FDI on the country decreases. The same conclusion is also reached through the analysis of Chi-Square test, which showed that for the value of chi-square observed test of 44.411 with df=24, and a level of safety lower than 5%, it is 0.007, so we reach the conclusion that hypothesis H1 is statistically stable.

The second hypothesis, **H2 → Political stability affects the promotion of FDI.** Based on the analysis of Pearson's bivariate correlation, the relationship between these two variables is tested, which resulted in a positive relationship between the two variables, where the increase of the variable of political stability is followed by an increase of the possibility of a favorable climate for foreign investments in Albania. The analysis confirmed that there is a statistically stable positive relationship between these two variables, where the level of security is 0.047, which is lower than 5% (*alpha observed <5% or p <.05*). Even through Chi-Square test, the H2 hypothesis is confirmed, as for value of the observed Chi-square test of 34,405 and degree of freedom df = 24, the value of the level of security is again lower than 5%.

The third hypothesis of this study is **H3 → fiscal policies affect the promotion of foreign investments in the country.** Based on the analysis of Pearson's bivariate correlation it is confirmed a statistically stable negative relationship between fiscal policy variables (unsustainable) and foreign investments.

We draw the same conclusion through the analysis of Chi-Square test. It followed that in all cases the security level is lower than 5%, implying that there is a stable statistical relationship between the two variables, namely the hypothesis H3 is proven.

In conclusion, based on the data results of foreign investors carrying on their activity in the Albanian territory, it follows that the main factors impacting the attraction of foreign investments are: *low corruption level, political stability and fiscal sustainable policies.*

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The Importance of Clinical Psychologist in the Process of Divorce

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Abstract

The Family Code in Section 6, 155 is foreseen to include clinical psychologist in the process of divorce in court in cases where the parties are in conflict, when it is claimed elements of physical and psychological violence perpetrated by one or both parties towards each - other or child. The aim of this study was to reveal the importance of the involvement of a clinical psychologist in the process of divorce. So study aims to highlight the necessity of the presence of a clinical psychologist in the process of divorce within the framework of the general principles of the Family Code as long as it guarantees the right to be heard by the parties involved they also guarantee the right presence of a psychologist in the process. The study was conducted on the basis of qualitative methods which deal mostly with history and stories and include subjective meanings, feelings, thoughts and beliefs. The approach used in the study is the epistemological interpretation. Qualitative data were collected on an examination of 60 cases of divorces filed in the District Court of Elbasan in the period January - May 2016. This study emphasized the importance and necessity of a clinical psychologist as an expert in the process of divorce as the expertise provided is a guarantee of the process and respect for the rights of the child in the first place and for the parties involved in the process.

Keywords: Importance, Clinical Psychologist, Process, Divorce

Introduction

The role of the clinical psychologist in the process of divorce in court.

The Family Code in Section 6, 155 is foreseen to include clinical psychologist in the process of divorce in court in cases where the parties are in conflict when the claimed elements of physical and psychological violence are perpetrated by one or both parties towards each - other or child.

The inclusion of a psychologist as an expert in family issues (Bestine, R. 1997) is a revolution in terms of mode of judgement and the treatment of subjects involved in the process of divorce. The expertise offered by this professional is a guarantee of the process and respect for the rights of the child in the first place, and for the parties involved in the process. And through the involvement of expert clinical psychologist, the court has the opportunity to assist the examination of the opinion of the parties and of minors. This happens when the family judges or judges for children in advanced countries have been trained in interviewing and assessing the information received from the child and the two parties.

The presence of clinical psychologists as a professional in the process of divorce is necessary in some important aspects (Bestine, R, and Tuschen, B; 1996):

1. Guarantee to the appropriate parties the state of psycho-emotional in expressing opinion and get valuable information (thinking, feeling, way of feeling) about the issue.

2. Ensuring the institution of the court a specialized professional expertise in the process of assessing claims of the minor and parties and mainly based on two criteria are age and ability of the child to understand.

3. Ensuring the evaluation of the morale and material of the family.

4. Provide mental health assessment

Applying the principle of involvement in the divorce process is expressed in detail in the specific provisions of the Family Code such as Article 6, 155, 225, 230, 267 etc.

The importance of clinical psychologist in the process of dissolution of marriage (divorce) consists in providing professional expertise to assist the parties and the minor to express their selves and court to realize their opinions, assess climate in the family environment, family dynamics, the presence or not of physical violence or psychological, to assess emotional and social situation of minors and the parties to the court to make a decision as right as possible. (Dehmel at. al, 1974).

So, clinical psychologist involvement in the process of divorce comes as a determination within the framework of the general principles of the Family Code and as long as the parties are guaranteed the right to be heard in the process they are guaranteed and the presence of clinical psychologist.

Being that national legislation does not provide any guidance on whether in case of dissolution of marriage should be the same psychologist who will do the evaluation report psycho-social and at the same time will manage to have a view of the parties and the minors involved in the process. Albanian practice so far has followed the rule of involvement the same psychologist who performs both functions.

Clinical psychologist tasks set by the court in the process of divorce.

1) What is the family history of the parties already seeing positive and negative sides in order that the parties are released from the crisis on their personal relationships to be seen in the perspective of the child's interest?

2) What are the capabilities of each parent effectively?

3) What are the parental duties for every parent that have performed in the past?

4) What is the relationship of each parent with the child?

5) How parents can cooperate effectively together in well-grown of the children?

6) How is the mentally healthy of the parents?

7) What is the coping ability and personality of the child?

8) What are the moral and material conditions of the parties?

9) Is it possible for parents to provide adequate care for children?

10) What is the clinical psychologist's opinion regarding to the evaluation of statements of minors in accordance with their age and development of their mental and social situation?

11) What is the clinical psychologist's opinion regarding the evaluation of the statements of the parties?

12) The evaluation of the personality of minors within the dynamics of the family situation in which they are located.

13) Are there indicators of domestic violence or child abuse?

The purpose of this assessment from the clinical psychologist is to help the judge to understand family dynamics and take appropriate measures in relation to the best interests of the minors and the parties involved in the divorce process.

Measuring elements to the present assessment are scientific based, who verify its reliability and validity.

In accordance with the evaluation cases are used these instruments:

- Semi-structured interviews.

-Family Evaluation System by Darlington.

- Psycho-legal assessment by G. B Camerini, L. Volpini, Sergio G., G. De Leo (2009)

- Guidelines for the evaluation of child custody in family (Family Psychological -Association APA).

Definition of terms and their operationalization

Keyword: Clinical psychologist, Family Code, Psychodiagnosis, structural diagnostics,

Clinical psychologist - is the individual who has received academic formation in clinical psychology as a scientific discipline. Clinical psychologist deals with the evaluation and diagnosis of mental and psychological health, family dynamics with the appraisal, family functioning as a healthy system or not, the provision of therapeutic services etc.

Family - is a key part of the Constitution of Albania, Law No. 9062, dated 8. 5. 2003. Family. Pursuant to Articles 53, 54, 81 and 83 paragraph 1 of the Constitution, proposed by the Council of Ministers.

Psychodiagnosis- consists of psychological diagnosis made upon request. The request may be submitted by the individual himself, from family or from a third entity as a legal institution or school facilities (Deusinger, D, 1986).

Analysis Psychological realizes its goal thanks to psychological tests on psychosocial issues, related legal and case evaluation entity, would give his view, in assessing the personal capacity of the mental health of the man, or the injustice of his treatment, has also cases of prisoners, criminals, definitely go to such a test in order to have the punishment, treatment and judgement of mental health grounds deserved.

Structural Diagnosis - is a traditional form of psychodiagnosis which enables psychologist to identificate and interpretate the results obtained from the development of psychological tests, consultations during psychotherapy sessions, avoiding subjective psychological attitudes (Dieterich, 1976).

Methodology

The study was conducted on the basis of qualitative methods which deal mostly with history and stories and include subjective meanings, feelings, thoughts and beliefs. The approach used in the study is the epistemological interpretation.

The purpose of research:

The purpose of this study has highlighted the importance of the involvement of a clinical psychologist in the process of divorce.

So study aims to highlighted the necessity of the presence of a clinical psychologist in the process of divorce within the framework of the general principles of the Family Code as long as it guarantees the right to be heard the parties involved they also guarantee the right presence of a psychologist in the process.

Sample

Qualitative data were collected on an examination of 60 cases of divorces filed in the District Court of Elbasan in the period January - May 2016.

Study measuring instruments

- Semi-structured interviews.

-Family Evaluation System by Darlington.

- Psycho-legal assessment by G. B Camerini, L. Volpini, Sergio G., G. De Leo (2009)

- Guidelines for the evaluation of child custody in family (Family Psychological -Association APA).

Results

Qualitative data were collected on an examination of 60 cases of divorces filed in the District Court of Elbasan in the period January - May 2016.

The following results highlight the importance of clinical psychologist in the process of divorce in terms of the necessity of the process needs.

Assessment of climate in the family as a necessity of the evaluation process by clinical psychologist as an expert in the process of divorce.
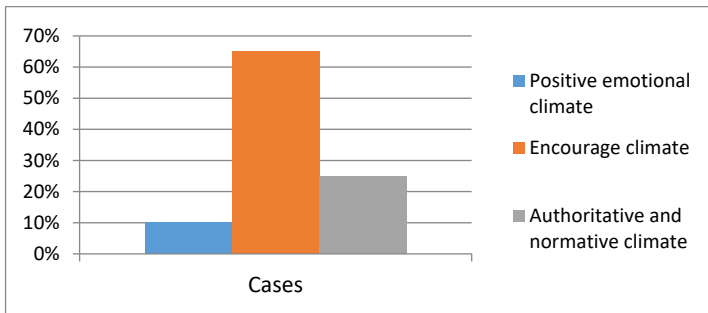
From the above qualitative data obtained from the cases included in the study clearly shows the necessity of the need for environmental assessment of clinical family psychologist as:

In 65% of cases for divorce prevails a climate of violence and encouraging ongoing conflicts constitute and the basic motivation that drove the parties to this process.

In 25% of cases for divorce prevails a climate of authoritarian violence and constant conflicts constitute the basic motivation that drove the parties to this process and only 10% of the cases the climate in the family was quiet, not tense in higher level.

Assessment of psychological health of the parties as a necessity of the evaluation process by clinical psychologist as an expert in the process of divorce.

From qualitative data above obtained from the cases included in the study clearly shows the necessity of the need for assessment of psychological health psychologist clinical as 78% of cases after evaluation by the expert result in psychological health on average and 22% with low levels psychological health.

Assessment of the authenticity of claims for the exercise of physical or psychological violence by the parties as a necessity of the evaluation process by clinical psychologist as an expert in the process of divorce.
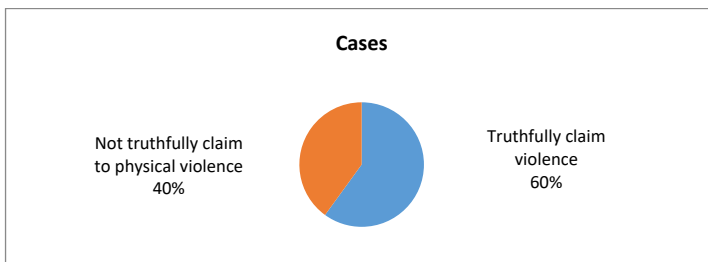
Qualitative data cases included in the study after evaluation by a psychologist clinical expert in the process of dissolution of marriage it shows that in 60% of cases claim the exercise of physical violence Amongst the parties is true the only 40% of cases not proven legally its authenticity.
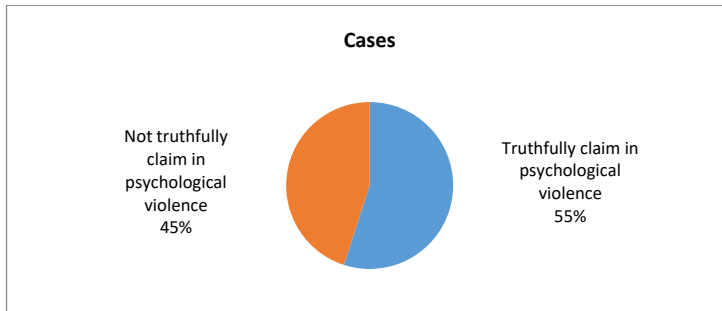
Cases

Qualitative data cases included in the study after evaluation by a psychologist clinical expert in the process of dissolution of marriage it shows that in 55% of cases the claim to exercise psychological violence amongst the parties is real and only in 45% of cases not proven legally its authenticity.

Conclusions

This study emphasized the importance and necessity of a clinical psychologist as an expert in the process of divorce as provided expertise is a guarantee of the process and respect for the rights of the child in the first place and the parties involved in the process.

The above results of qualitative stressed the importance of the clinical psychologist in the process of divorce in:

- Assessment of the climate in the family as a necessity of the evaluation process by clinical psychologist as an expert in the process of divorce.

- Assessment of the psychological health of the parties as a necessity of the evaluation process by clinical psychologist as an expert in the process of divorce.

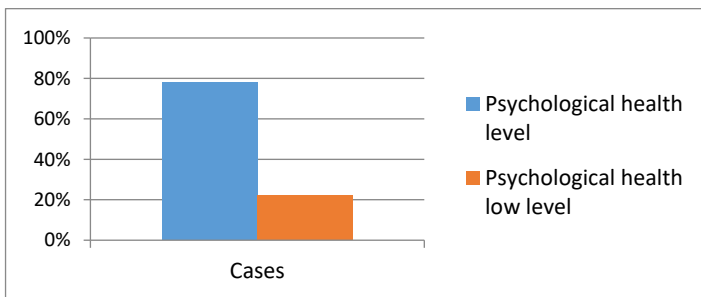- Assessment of the truthfully of the claims for the exercise of physical or psychological violence by the parties as a necessity of the evaluation process by clinical psychologist as an expert in the process of divorce.

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Poverty and Migration in Western Balkan Countries

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Abstract

According to Lee (1966), the number of immigrants in a specific country is positively related with the level of the corresponding diversity of areas and people. Negative economic conditions in origin countries lead to the increase of migration flows; as a consequence, we find high immigrant volumes in wealthier countries and a significant level of mobility in least developed countries. Every stream provokes a counterstream: a relevant part of immigrants return to their home country, due to possible future economic recessions or to the learning or developing particular skills. Dissimilarity between countries and strong immigration barriers reinforce the counterstream effect. We analyze in this paper the link between poverty and migration in Western Balkan countries, and the respective implications for reforms and policies. The number of Western Balkan citizens who emigrate to developed European countries has dramatically increased over the past years. This is a consequence of increasing unemployment, poverty and social inequality. We also estimate a particular econometric model, including different experimental variables, related with migration and poverty.

Keywords: poverty, migration, Western Balkans.

Introduction

1. Facts and figures

Western Balkan (WB) region includes Kosovo, Albania, Croatia, Montenegro, Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Macedonia. Croatia is not included in this group in the recent scientific studies and reports, mainly due to the economic gap with the other countries. Croatia is the only WB country which is actually part of the European Union (EU), since July 2013. The number of WB emigrant has dramatically increased over the past years. The largest groups originate from Albania, Kosovo and Serbia. This phenomenon is a consequence of increasing social inequality and poverty. Table 1 shows the population living below income poverty line and percentage of the population living below the international poverty line $1. 25 a day for five WB countries.

Population living below income poverty line(%)	National poverty line	PPP $1. 25 a day
Country	2004–2014	2002–2012
Albania	*14, 3*	*0, 5*
Bosnia and Herzegovina	*17, 9*	*0, 0*
Montenegro	*11, 3*	*0, 2*
Serbia	*24, 6*	*0, 1*
FYROM	*27, 1*	*0, 3*

Table 1. Population living below income poverty line and percentage of the population living below the international poverty line $1. 25 (in purchasing power parity terms) a day for five Western Balkan countries. Source: Authors' Elaboration on United Nations Data.

Albania signed the Stabilisation and Association Agreement (SAA) with the EU in June 2006, which entered into force in April 2009. Albanian citizens can travel without a visa to the Euro area since December 2010. In June 2016, the EU countries granted Albania the candidate status. The most important European destinations for Albanian migrants are Italy, Greece and Germany. The number of Albanian nationals who resided in Germany was 24. 00010 in 2014. In 2013, there were 465. 000 Albanian nationals who resided in Italy12. The total number of Albanian nationals who reside in Greece is more than 600. 000.

In November 2007, the Serbian government signed the SAA with the EU, which entered into force in September 2013. Serbian citizens can travel without the need for visas to the Euro area since December 2009. In March 2012, Serbia obtained the candidate status and in January 2014, the European Council initiated the official accession negotiations. The recognition of the independence of Kosovo is an unsolved problem for Serbia an important obstacle to the EU membership. Germany and Austria are the countries with the greatest number of Serbians in Europe. The German residents with Serbian background were about 305. 000 in 2014. In 2015, the number of Serbian nationals who reside in Austria was about 114. 000.

In 2004, the SAA between EU and the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia entered in force. In 2005, the European Commission accorded the candidate status to Macedonia, fourteen years after the declaration of independence from Ex-Yugoslavia. In 2009, Macedonians obtained the right to travel without the need for visas to the Euro area. In 2012, the European Commission initiated a High-Level Accession Dialogue with the Macedonian authorities in 2012, a contribution to the acceleration of public administration and electoral reforms, the protection of minorities' rights, the promotion of market competition and economic growth. The naming disagreement with Greece is an important obstacle for the accession of Macedonia to the EU. Greek authorities consider 'Macedonia' a Greek term, connected with an ancient Greek region. Greece would exercise its veto right to obstruct the Macedonia's membership to the EU, if this problem remains unresolved. Macedonian road to EU is also conditioned on the difficult relations with Bulgarian authorities, who have expressed their indignation against the distortion of history between the two countries. The protection of Albanian minority rights is another problem, correlated with the accession of Macedonia to the EU. Albanians should enjoy equal rights and equal opportunities as Macedonians. The largest communities of Macedonians live in Germany, Italy and Switzerland. There were 77. 000 Macedonian citizens living in Italy in 2013. The number of Macedonian citizens in Germany was 83. 00010 in 2014. There were 63. 000 Macedonian citizens living in Switzerland in 2013.

Bosnian citizens can travel to the Euro area without a visa since December 2010. EU and Bosnia and Herzegovina started the High-Level Dialogue on the Accession Process in 2012. The SAA between Bosnia and Herzegovina and the EU entered into force in 2015. Germany and Austria are two of the most important destinations for the emigrants of Bosnia and Herzegovina. There were 164. 000 Bosnian nationals who resided in Germany in 201410. The number of Bosnian nationals who resided in Austria was 93. 000 in 201511.

Montenegro is an independent state since the dissolution of the Union of Serbia and Montenegro after the referendum of May 2006. Montenegro reopened new accession negotiations with the EU and signed the SAA in 2007, which entered into force in May 2010. Montenegrins can travel without visa to the Euro area since December 2009. After the 2010 favourable opinion of the European Commission regarding the application for EU membership, Montenegro initiated the accession negotiations in 2012. Germany and Switzerland are the most important West European destinations for Montenegrin emigrants. In 2014, there were 2. 500 Montenegrins who resided in Switzerland in 201413. The number of Montenegrin migrants for the this year in Germany was 20. 00010.

Kosovo is a potential candidate for the accession to the EU. The Assembly of Kosovo declared independence in an extraordinary session in 2008. The number of United Nations member states which have already recognized Kosovo's independence was 113 in November 2016; of these, 23 countries are members of the EU. The USA and the EU have assisted Kosovo and its authorities in the road to the economic progress and in the consolidation of the rule of law. Most of the EU countries have their diplomatic offices and embassies in Kosovo. In 2015, Kosovo signed the SAA with the EU, an important incentive for the implementation of reforms. In Germany and Switzerland, we can find the largest communities of Kosovars. In 2014, the number of Kosovar citizens who resided in Germany and in Switzerland was respectively, 185. 00010 and 100. 00013.

2. Literature review

According to Lee (1966), factors which help or obstruct migration can be marked with respectively, positive and negative signs. For example, a better climate affect positively migration into a certain country and vice versa. Negative economic conditions in origin countries lead to the increase of migration flows; as a consequence, we find high immigrant volumes in wealthier countries and a significant level of mobility in least developed countries. According to Lee (1966), migrants move generally through known bilateral routes, such as the movement of Sicilian immigrants to the Northern United States cities. Every stream provokes a counterstream: a relevant part of immigrants return to their home country, due to possible future economic recessions or to the learning or developing particular skills. Dissimilarity between countries and strong immigration barriers reinforce the counterstream effect.
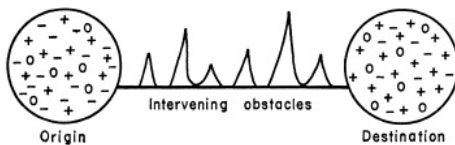

Figure 1. The migration process. Source: Lee, 1966.

The author also focused on migrants characteristics. Migrants from a specific origin country are not a good sample of the corresponding population, due to different ways of adaption to host countries factors. Successful people in origin countries are more likely to respond positively to destination country factors and vice versa. Other relevant individual variables like sex, age, education, profession, size of family and marital status can stimulate or prevent migration. Lewis (1954) developed for the first time a model for forecasting migration flows, based on a neoclassical macroeconomic approach. This is known as the dual-sector model and consists of two sectors, an urban sector that is public or private, and characterized by a high marginal productivity of labour, and a rural or subsistence sector, with very low marginal productivity of labour. The rural, less developed sector is made up of self-employed and informal jobs, where wages and productivity are low, while the urban and developed sector is governed by the industrialists who offer jobs in factories, plantations, etc., that provide high wages. Wages and income differences, and the enlargement of the developed sector stimulate the emigration from the rural sector. Workers migration will continue as long as the difference in labour demand is zero, and as a consequence, total labour productivity will increase. Ranis and Fei (1961) extended Lewis (1954) model for developing countries, and took into account the Rostow (1960) stages of economic growth, particularly the 'take-off' period, which lasts 20 or 30 years and it is characterized by an increase of urban population and industrial progress, mainly caused by workforce growth. They evaluated the effects of emigration from the rural (agricultural) areas to the fast growing urban (industrial) sector on wages and total production. The authors argued that these sectors are particularly related to each other. The immigrants employment will encourage productivity and investments in the urban (developed) sector. The 'gap' created by the movement of people may be exploited to help the progress of the rural (less developed) sector, so as a consequence, future policies should encourage investments and economic growth in both economic sectors. According to Harris and Todaro (1970), earning differences and urban unemployment are two relevant factors of movement from rural to urban areas. People will migrate only if the expected urban income is significantly greater than the rural (agricultural) product. The variables of employment and wages in the developed sector are positively related with the urban income. Labour productivity in the less developed sector and the corresponding wages and income are also in a direct relation. Individuals will migrate from one sector to the other until equilibrium between expected real wage in the developed sector and agricultural real wage is reached. A rural income growth will stimulate backward migration. This means that labour opportunity cost in the developed sector is higher than in the rural sector. Harris and Todaro (1970) argued that policies oriented towards wage subsidies and barriers to migration will contribute to the economic growth of both sectors. According to Piore (1979), international labour migration is generally affected by pull factors. Developed countries are characterized by a dual labour market: a principal market that is composed of stable and lucrative jobs for domestic workers, and a less developed market of precarious and unqualified jobs that are carried out by immigrants. Both the low wages and the existence of a considerable number of immigrants, lead to the refusal of these jobs from domestic workers. They are attracted by a better prospective and higher wages, which are achievable in the principal market. This approach is rather superficial for the reason that it considers a single pull variable and do not include other possible factors of migrant flows. Mabogunje (1970) developed the General Systems approach to analyze migration. In this analysis, migration is considered

as a dynamic process, characterized by continuous changes over an infinite period of time. The author also took into account the spatial aspect of migration: rural-urban movements may alter significantly the society composition. People often migrate from less developed areas to big industrialized cities. According to this model, the decision to migrate in developed areas is largely influenced by the institutions, the so-called sub-systems, and other different factors.
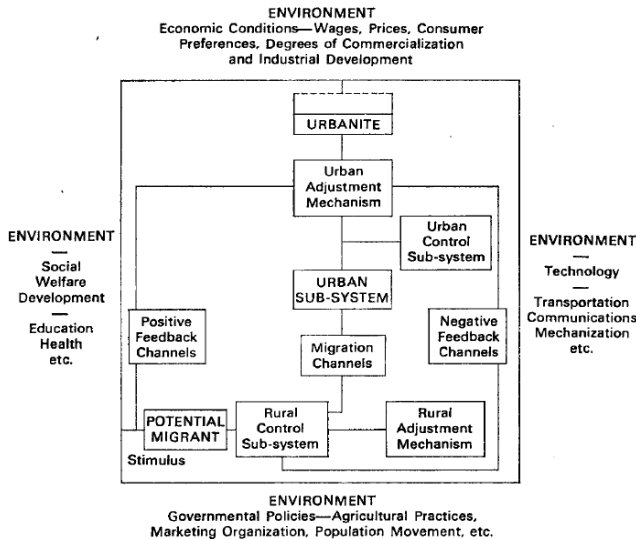
Figure 2. Theory of rural-urban migration. Source: Mabogunje, 1970.

The most important rural sub-system is the family and the society. Urban sub-systems (agencies and government) can help or obstruct people movement. The model includes other possible factors that affect the decision of a potential migrant such as the environment (which can transmit negative or positive signals), and the information from existing immigrants. Borjas (1994) analyzed the contribution of immigrants to countries economy and on the efficiency of immigration policies. Highly skilled foreign immigrants, and well-integrated into the labour market, have a positive impact on economic growth and contribute to the reduction of wage differences between foreign and domestic workers. Foreigners that have been living in the U. S. for over 20 years earn more than natives, despite the modest influence of immigrants on wages of native workers. Goss and Lindquist (1995) considered different approaches for the study of labour migration, focusing on the network theory. The authors took into account a vast network of mediators, which objective is to maximize their individual profit. They also operate as institutional agents helping in the implementation of regulations and in the achievement of certain balances. Regardless of this contribute, mediators can often affect negatively migrant selection.

Guilmoto and Sandron (2001) analyzed rural-urban labour migration in developing countries. They considered migration as an institution, in order to identify the routes and networks that contribute in people movements. The authors included in their analysis some particular aspects of the society such as regulations, traditions, values and principles. Networks are infrastructures that encourage migration and help to determinate the potential destinations and intervals of stay. They also decrease transaction costs and facilitate the integration in the destination country. The endogenous features of networks can also inhibit people movements. Hatton and Williamson (2011) considered the life cycle of emigration to the U. S. from five major areas: Asia, Latin America, North Africa, Middle East, Sub-Saharan Africa. The authors tested some supply and demand side variables, and confirmed the significant correlation between the decision to migrate and poverty, education, demographic transition and migration stock.

3. Empirical results

We analyze some of the WB migration factors, considered in micro and macro theories of migration in an extended gravity model. We estimate two different equation, basic and experimental. The basic equation includes the populations of origin and destination countries, and the corresponding distances. The experimental equation also includes the GDPs per capita

and the unemployment rates of both home and host countries. The following table shows the definition and the expected signs for the considered variables.

Variable	Definition	Expected sign
mig_odt	Migration stock in destination d from origin o at year t	Dependent variable
gdpcap_ot	GDP per capita in origin o at year t	-
pop_ot	Population in origin o at year t	+
gdpcap_dt	GDP per capita in destination d at year t	+
pop_dt	Population in destination d at year t	+
dist_od	Bilateral distance	-
unemp_diff_odt	Difference between unemployment rates in origin o and destination d	+

Table 2. Definition and expected sign of considered variables.

We have estimated the equations for a specific dataset which includes WB migration stock in the principal European destinations for the time period 2010-2015. Eurostat and OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) were our main sources for migration data. GDPs and the respective populations were obtained from the World Bank database. Bilateral distances were sourced from the CEPII GeoDist database (Mayer dhe Zignago, 2011). Unemployment rates data were obtained from Eurostat and the World Bank.

Random effects resulted the most apropriate estimation method. This is a particular case of the fixed effects model, where we assume that the unobserved heterogeneity is stable over time and correlated with the explanators. The following table shows the estimation results for the formulated equations. Variables are expressed in the natural logarithmic form. Coefficents signs are always according to the initial expectations. Parameters are statistically significative, so we confirm the relevance of the considered variables for migration stocks. The adjusted R-squared are relatively high, so our factors expain a relevant proportion of the variability of the dependent variable. The coefficient values are comparable to past similar studies (e. g. Pedersen, Pytlikova and Smith, 2008; Ortega and Peri, 2013).

Independent variable	Basic equation	Extended equation
Intercept	6, 451(0, 0011)	4, 943(0, 0038)
gdpcap_o		-1, 351(0)
pop_o	1, 093(0)	1, 853(0)
gdpcap_d		1, 285(0, 009)
pop_d	1, 013(0, 004)	1, 17(0, 002)
Dist	-2, 284(0)	-2, 352(0)
unemp_diff		0, 704(0)
Adjusted R-squared	0, 616	0, 657

Table 3. Estimation results (coeffcents and the corresponding p-values).

4. Concluding remarks

Migration is considered as a dynamic process, characterized by continuous changes over an infinite period of time. Wages and income differences, and the enlargement of the developed areas stimulate the emigration from the less developed countries. Negative economic conditions in origin countries lead to the increase of migration flows from the WB to developed European countries. Other relevant individual variables like sex, age, education, profession, size of family and marital status

can stimulate or prevent migration. We estimated in this paper two particular equations for WB migration stocks. According to the results, poverty and unemployment also stimulate emigration from WB countries.

The immigrant's employment will encourage productivity and investments in the developed countries. The 'gap' created by the movement of people may be exploited to help the progress of the less developed countries, so as a consequence, future policies should encourage investments and economic growth in both countries. Developed countries are characterized by a dual labour market: a principal market that is composed of stable and lucrative jobs for domestic workers, and a less developed market of precarious and unqualified jobs that are carried out by immigrants. Both the low wages and the existence of a considerable number of immigrants, lead to the refusal of these jobs from domestic workers. They are attracted by a better prospective and higher wages, which are achievable in the principal market. Highly skilled foreign immigrants, and well-integrated into the labour market, have a positive impact on economic growth and contribute to the reduction of wage differences between foreign and domestic workers.

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Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families Within the Albanian Context

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Abstract

The purpose of this exploratory study is to investigate about the changes in legal framework and the role that legislative measures play in promoting and protecting all the people rights, especially of all migrant workers and members of their families. The study employs a mixed methodology, comprising a review of the legislation, institutional framework, statistics data and some of the relevant literature in the field of international law, regarding the conventions, bilateral agreements and some other documents for promoting and respecting migrant workers' rights. The findings of this study are supported in prior research in analyzing a lot of documents, strategies, prepared by NGO-s and other government institutions. The in-depth analysis of the qualitative data revealed a basic understanding of promoting and protecting migrant workers and members of their families in my country.

Keywords: international law, social cohesion, migration, migrant worker, work, education, social protection, promoting and protecting migrant worker's rights, legal framework etc.

Introduction

In fulfillment of international obligations arising from the conventions on human rights, in which our country is a party, the Albanian institutions have a legal obligation to periodically report on the implementation of the provisions of the United Nations Conventions on the Rights of man, in which our country has signed and ratified. Through reporting, the key is fulfillment of international obligations in the field of human rights, especially the fulfillment of obligations related to the protection and respect of human rights in all aspects of life.

Albania has ratified a number of conventions and international agreements on the protection of human rights, particularly in the field of labor migration, making them part of of domestic legislation. Among them are: the Convention of the International Labour Organization (ILO) No. 97, "Migration for Employment"[1], Convention no. 143 "For migrant workers (additional provisions) in 1975", as well as the Council of Europe Convention "On Legal Status of Migrant Workers"[2].

One of these conventions is the UN Convention for the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families[3]. The entire spirit that permeates this convention relates to the obligation of States Parties, in accordance with international instruments concerning human rights, to respect and ensure to all migrant workers and members of their families within its territory or subject to the jurisdiction their rights under the present Convention[4].

In all provisions of the Convention is foreseen taking necessary legal, institutional and administrative measures by member states, and they have to follow within the guarantee specific rights identified in the Convention.

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[1] Ratified with law no.9320, dated 25.11.2004
[2] Ratified by Parliament with law no.9555, dated 8.6.2006.
[3] This Convention is ratified by Parliament with law no.9703, dated 2.4.2007.
[4] *In Article 7 of the Convention stated that: "... States Parties, in accordance with international instruments concerning human rights, undertake to respect and ensure to all migrant workers and members of their families within its territory or subject their jurisdiction, regardless of gender, race, color, language, religion, belief, political or other opinion, national origin, ethnic or social origin, nationality, age, economic status, wealth, marital status, status of birth or other rights Theirs...".*

National Report, obligation deriving from the Convention

Each State Party shall submit to the Committee of Experts of the Convention a report on measures taken on the implementation of the Convention, beginning from the entry into force of this Convention for that State Party [1].

Our country has reported periodically and during the current reporting period on protecting the rights of migrant workers and members of their families, what stands out is the dynamic movement of migration flows (in particular those Albanian)[2].

The report presents information on the implementation of 93 articles of the UN Convention, "On Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families" and the measures taken by the state authorities responsible of the development of legal, institutional and policy regarding the fulfillment of the obligations arising from the Convention for the period 2011-20[3].

The report contains information on the implementation of the provisions of the Convention, the Committee's recommendations on the Protection of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, and is based on the closing remarks (December 2010). Important place in this report, occupies the progress achieved in the legal, institutional, policy, difficulties/ challenges to guaranteeing the rights of migrant workers and members of their families.

Also, IOM has published a study "Assessment for the Protection of the Rights of Migrant Workers in Albania", which was prepared within the framework of the project "Promotion of good employment opportunities and protection of migrant workers in Albania"[4]. In preparing the report were consulted international conventions on migrant workers, particularly the rights of women migrant workers and other issues related legislation and regulatory framework on migration in Albania. They met and discussed with several key players, individual interviews with stakeholders and immigrants in Albania[5].

Legislative measures in compliance with obligations of the Convention

In the context of fulfillment of all obligations arising from being a member state to the Convention, our country has taken a series of legislative, economic and political measures, that for this category to be offered assistance and be guaranteed rights and fundamental freedoms, in the framework of obligations to the European Convention for the Protection of Human rights.

So, one of the legislative measures is the adoption of the Law on Foreigners [6], which guarantees improvements related to social protection for the treatment of foreigners to prevent discrimination in the treatment of employees. In the area of integration of foreigners, provides design and implementation of the National Programme of Social Integration of foreigners by institutions. Also, the circle of rights of migrant workers is enlarged in terms of revoke and not on the cancellation of the residence permit for health reasons, inability to work after issuing residence permits, changes in the labor market or unemployment for a certain period[7]. The law provides that the revocation and cancellation of the residence permit and therefore, the removal from the territory to persons employed or self-employed does not apply to health reasons or disability after obtaining a residence permit, changing labor market or financial difficulties due to the interruption of work for a period specified by law.

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[1] Article 73 of the UN Convention "On Protection of Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families". Second periodical national report, submitted pursuant to Article 73 of the Convention for the Protection of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (CMW), was developed in accordance with the instructions on the form and content of reports to be submitted by states parties, for the period 2011-2015.

[2] According to official data, about this situation, by the relevant state institutions are taking important measures of legal, institutional and practical to address them.

[3] Concretely, the report determine the definition of migrant workers, the rights and freedoms that should be guaranteed as a right to life, freedom of movement from the country of origin, the prohibition of torture, prohibition of forced labor, freedom of thought, conscience and religion as well as information on the recommendations of the Expert Committee after reviewing the first report of Albania in 2010.

[4] This study was made possible through funding by the Government of the Kingdom of Sweden, through the Coherence Fund "One UN".

[5] The full study can be read it in: http://www.albania.iom.int/publications/reports/assessment of the protection of the rightsof migrant workers in Albania

[6] Law no.108/2013, "On Foreigners", as amended, approved on dated 28.3.2013 and published on Official Gazzete, no.48, pg.2111.

[7] Article 41 and 42, paragraphs 3,4 and 5.

In National Strategy for Employment and Skills 2014-2020[1] are including labor migration policy for 2014-2020. The measures of the action plan of this strategy contribute directly or indirectly to guarantee protection from various forms of discrimination.

Another one law that provides protection for migrant workers is the law on Emigration of Albanian Citizens for employment purposes[2], which stipulates the establishment and functioning of counters migration, which provide information for Albanian citizens who wish to emigrate, as well as support for reintegration returning migrants.

The obligations arising from bilateral agreement in this field

Our country has signed several bilateral agreements, through which guaranteed the provision of mutual assistance to employment for migrating to different countries.

So, in April 2014 it signed an agreement with the State of Qatar, between the Government of the Republic of Albania and the Government of the State of Qatar regarding the regulation of employment of citizens of the Republic of Albania in the State of Qatar. The employment agreement with Qatar aims at defining the rules and regulations of employment of Albanian citizens will be employed in the State of Qatar[3].

Agreement in Article 9 provides that the terms and conditions of employment of the worker in the State of Qatar defined by an individual employment contract concluded between the employer and the employee. The individual contract contains the main work conditions, and the rights and duties of the parties, which are in accordance with the provisions of the agreement and labor law of the State of Qatar [4].

In May 2012, with the German Party was signed memorandum of understanding on cooperation in the framework of pilot project "Triple Win Migration"[5]. The main purpose of the pilot project is to reconcile the divergent interests of the German labour market, the home countries and the workers themselves so that everyone benefits. For the skilled workers, labour migration is an opportunity for personal and professional development. Many of them take their new-found skills back home later, thus benefiting their country of origin. In home countries with high unemployment, the scheme helps to ease the pressure in the labour markets and boosts the economy, as labour migrants generally send money back home to support their families. And German employers gain access to well-qualified staff.

Defensive measures within a social benefit – contributions from social and health insurances

In accordance with international experience in the field of social protection, protection of migrants is regulated through adherence to international legal instruments in the field of social protection, signing of bilateral agreements between the respective countries, as well as national legislation.

Rules for the coordination of social security schemes to employed persons, self-employed persons and members of their families who move within the community are defined in Council Regulation Nr. 1408 / 71 and Regulation Nr. 883 / 2004 of the European Parliament and the European Council.

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[1] Approved with decision no.818, dated 26.11.2014, of Council of Ministers, "On approvement of National Strategy for Employment and Skills 2014-2020".

[2] Law no.9668, dated 18.12.2006 "On emigration of Albanian Citizens for employment purposes", as amended with law no.10389, date 3.3.2011.

[3] In the text of the agreement is set out in a detailed way procedures to be followed by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs of the State of Qatar, for the submission of applications for recruitment by employers of this state, determining the employer shall take all the necessary procedures for the selection of workers and their journey to the State of Qatar. Also, the government of the State of Qatar will take over the prosecution of restoration procedures Albanian workers when their contract work is completed.

[4] The contract specified the details of that employer obligations related to employee housing, salary, medical treatment etc.

[5] With the Triple Win Pilot Project, the Federal Employment Agency's International Placement Services (ZAV) and GIZ have jointly developed new, sustainable and effective approaches to recruiting foreign skilled ëorkers for the German labour market in response to German demographic trends. Under the pilot scheme, applicants from countries outside the EU are recruited to fill vacancies in German companies. This form of labour migration complements domestic labour market measures such as improving training, raising the retirement age, and increasing the percentage of ëomen in employment.In the recruitment of skilled workers from countries outside the European Union, the Triple Win Pilot Project focuses on the interests of German companies, foreign skilled workers, and the countries of origin – benefiting all three groups.

Our country has guaranteed and continues to guarantee, through the improvement of the legal framework, protection of foreign nationals and stateless persons, who work in Albania. In this sense, the Government has adopted a number of bilateral agreements with EU countries and not only in the field of social protection [1].

These agreements consist of the provision of social security benefits and is based on the principle of equal treatment of workers in employment, dealing with benefits and income. Also, coordination rules ensure that persons moving from one country to another and their dependents and survivors preserve the rights acquired or are being acquired. Union of periods provided under the various national legislations will be taken into consideration to ensure the right to benefits and their calculation.

The object of these agreements are the benefits from the Albanian scheme of mandatory social insurance, which include specifically mandatory social insurance for pensions, work accidents, occupational diseases, maternity and sickness, and about the other party, the benefits associated with benefits for health insurance, accident insurance and pension insurance, etc. The parties have agreed to give these benefits based on their respective social security legislation.

It is currently in process of approval of the decision of the Stabilisation and Association Council on the coordination of social security schemes between the Republic of Albania and the EU, pursuant to Article 48 of the SAA.

Protective measures in the fight against human trafficking

New Action Plan for Social and Economic Reintegration of women and girls victims of trafficking[2], helps in socio-economic development of women and girls VT / VMT in the field of economic empowerment, such property rights, employment and vocational training, housing, education and social care. In this context, the function is set and the state authority responsible for the identification, referral, protection and reintegration of victims / potential victims of trafficking. This authority on the foundation of his work has the harmonization of the existing legal framework in practice and international experience, which provide mechanisms to monitor the situation of migrant female, including those employed as domestic, with national practices in order to obtain protective measures and providing appropriate guarantees that protect these categories of exploitation and violence

Conclusions

Nationals of one of the member countries of the European Union and the Schengen area, who are legally resident in the Republic of Albania enjoy the right to employment as well as Albanian citizens, they didn't granted the employment permit or registration certificate[3].

The employer has a legal obligation to guarantee employees the principle of equal treatment with regard to the salary and other working terms and conditions of employment, social security, the right to health care, minimum and maximum duration defined working hours, duration annual leave pay, minimum salary, including rising salary for overtime, health and safety, safeguards for the work of pregnant women, women who have recently given birth or breastfeeding, as well as minors, ban discrimination, etc.

The child's right of a migrant worker to have the name, registration of birth and nationality, access to education on the basis of equal treatment, respect for cultural identity of migrant workers and their family, should be to the attention of state

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[1] Agreement between the Republic of Albania and the Republic of Turkey, for social protection, which entered into force in 2015. The cooperation with Belgium government in the field of social protection is finalized with the approval of the Law No.35/2014 and, agreement has entered into force in January 2016. Cooperation with Macedonia for social protection agreement, adopted by the Council of Ministers decision No.228. dated 3.11.2015, of the Council of Ministers and was signed in Skopje on March 17, 2015, from ministers social issues counterparts. The agreement with the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. was ratified by the Parliament of the Republic of Albania, Law no.42 / 2015, dated 16.04.2015. The agreement with Hungary was approved with the decision nr.531, dated 06.08.2014, of the Council of Ministers and was signed in Tirana on 10.12.2014. Currently, this agreement is in the legislative procedure for ratification. Signing of the agreement on social protection between the Republic of Albania and Romania took place in Bucharest, on February 27, 2015, between the ministers of social affairs counterparts. Currently, this agreement is in the legislative procedure for ratification by the Assembly of the Republic of Albania. Other arrangements could be: with Canada, the Czech Republic (approved by the decision of CoM).

[2] Approved with decision no.115, dated 17.2.2016, of Council of Ministers.

[3] Articles 25, 27, 28: Principle of equality of treatment in respect of: remuneration and other conditions of work and terms of employment; social security; and right to receive urgent medical care.

authorities responsible. So, the main laws and bylaws drawn up by education institutions in the Republic of Albania and to serve the education and integration of children of migrant workers, with a focus on providing and improving opportunities and services related to legal aspects and political have related to education and the right to education[1].

Also, public institutions should cooperate, based on their competencies, with social partners, non-governmental organizations and international organizations for the promotion and implementation of programs of integration of foreigners into society. In all the activities exercised, public institutions and NGOs provide foreigners with protection against any form of discrimination. As above, it recommended increased efforts by the State party to combat smuggling of migration, especially of women and children, making the necessary steps to detect the illegal movement or clandestine migrant workers and their families and bringing them to justice.

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[1]　The Constitution of Republic of Albania, approved by law no. 8417, dated 21. 10. 1998, as amended

[2]　The Law no. 9320, dated 25. 11. 2004, Convention of the International Labour Organization (ILO) No. 97, "Migration for Employment"

[3]　The Law no. 9555, dated 8. 6. 2006, Convention no. 143 "For migrant workers (additional provisions) in 1975", as well as the Council of Europe Convention "On Legal Status of Migrant Workers

[4]　The Law no. 9703, dated 2. 4. 2007, the UN Convention for the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families

[5]　The Law no. 108/2013, "On Foreigners", as amended, approved on dated 28. 3. 2013

[6]　The Law no. 9668, dated 18. 12. 2006 "On emigration of Albanian Citizens for employment purposes", as amended with law no. 10389, date 3. 3. 2011.

[7]　The Law no. 69/2012 "On system of preliminary education in Republic of Albania"

[8]　The Law no. 7995, dated 20. 9. 1995, "For the promotion of employment", as amended.

[9]　The decision no. 818, dated 26. 11. 2014, of Council of Ministers, "On approvement of National Strategy for Employment and Skills 2014-2020".

[10]　The decision no. 115, dated 17. 2. 2016, of Council of Ministers.

[11]　The decision no. 115, dated 17. 2. 2016, of Council of Ministers "On approving of National Action Plan of economic and social re-integrationof women and girls, victims of trafficking".

Links:

[1]　www. kryeministria. al

[2]　http:/www. albania. iom. int/publications/reports/assessment of the protection of the rightsof migrant workers in Albania

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[1] Articles 29, 30, 31of the Convention: Right of a child of a migrant worker to a name, registration of birth and nationality; access to education on the basis of equality of treatment; respect for the cultural identity of migrant workers and members of their families.

An Introduction to Program Accreditation in Foreign Language Schools in Turkey

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine the process of accreditation and the widespreadly preferred accreditation institutions in the preparatory programs of universities in Turkey. Accreditation process in English language teaching requires the involvement of all employees in the process from the upper management level to the lower level. It develops and evaluates language teaching in a multifaceted way as physical facilities, education, academic staff and management. Conducting an action research in a preparatory program which is planning to begin an accreditation process is suggested for further research following this review.

Keywords: Accreditation, Language teaching, Preparatory program

Introduction

With the impact of globalization, information technologies and competitiveness, the higher education sector is heading towards "mass education" and there is an increase in number, size and program diversity in universities. Growth and development in higher education leads universities to institutional quality processes and program / faculty-based accreditation processes (Aqlan, Al-Araidah & Al-Hawari, 2010).

The necessity of conducting teaching in accordance with accepted quality standards is the subject of research and applications. Universities apply for accreditation to ensure that they meet or exceed international standards of education and training. In addition to accreditation, many different quality control tools can be used to increase institutional effectiveness. Total quality management, six sigma, corporate reporting, benchmarking can be given as examples (Alstete, 2007).

Evaluation processes in higher education, program and field evaluation studies have begun to gain importance since the 1980s. In this sense, the first examples are France, Finland, Holland, England and Denmark. The first country to use accreditation in terms of quality assurance is England (Süngü & Bayrakçı, 2010). It is after the Bologna Process that accreditation applications increased in universities. With the signing of the Bologna Process in 1999 by higher education representatives from 29 European countries (today 49 countries), the formation of the European Higher Education Area was targeted; a close relationship between national and international higher education systems was established and student and instructor mobility was initiated. Moreover, in 2001 accreditation was proposed as a quality assurance tool at the Bologna management conference

(Haug 2003; Sin, Tavares & Amaral, 2016).

What is accreditation?

Accreditation, which provides quality control and assurance in higher education, can be defined as a certified quality assurance in which competence, authority and reliability are approved; the conformity of an institution program to certain standards in the process is inspected / measured (Adelman 1992; Herdman, 2010; Kopelow & Campbell, 2013). Accreditation also indicates that the program has internationally recognized accreditation standards and the program is introduced to students, other institutions and public in this regard (URL 1).

In a program that is in an accreditation process; topics such as management, academic staff, physical environment features and facilities, library, registration procedures, students, academic calendar, teaching methods, measurement-evaluation, teaching-learning tools and laboratories are subject to a multifaceted study and evaluation. Every topic mentioned here is handled directly in relation to education and training. For example, beyond being a place where books are located when the library is handled, how the library is incorporated into teaching & learning, how it is used to improve education, how

many learners can use the library, numbers of books, students and academic staff are handled by their place in practise (Aqlan, Al-Araidah & Al-Hawari, 2010).

Accreditation process

Accreditation processes are mostly similar because accrediting institutions/agencies set similar goals and standards. Since the school makes its decision at the point of applying for accreditation, the process requires volunteering. First, the school / program sends a report showing its own status to the accrediting institution/agency that reviews accreditation standards.

Relevant documents such as the standards of the accrediting institutions and the preparation of the institutional reports are usually shared on the institutions' websites or a representative can be contacted for guidance. The accrediting institution and accreditation-candidate school carry out studies in accordance with the accreditation standards and school visits of the authorized person. And after the inspections, the accrediting institution makes the final decision consequently (Prasad & Bhar, 2010).

One of the most important issues in the accreditation process is the support & involvement of all employees in the process from the top management to the bottom level similar to the other quality improvement tools' processes. Motivation, interaction and support of all employees in the process from the top to the bottom level are of great importance (Aboelmaged, 2010; Jenicke, Kumar & Holmes, 2008).

In research on school experiences that are in the process of accreditation or have completed the process, it is seen that academic staff may perceive this process as challenging and exhausting in terms of time and workload due to increased demands. Academicians may find it difficult or unpleasant when they see the accreditation process solely as the extra workload that must be met to provide standards. However, in this process, if they set goals in order to develop themselves professionally and work in order to achieve that instead of working with the perception of "solely following the standards of an outer institution", then there could be a more effective process for both parties (Talbot, 2016). Therefore, encouraging academicians to set objectives for professional as well as institutional goals during the accreditation process can be encouraged.

Accreditation of prep programs in foreign language schools in Turkey

Universities in Turkey have schools / programs that have completed or are in the process of accreditation. There are various accreditation institutions/agencies with a program-based accreditation authority. These institutions have been accrediting education faculties, pharmacy education programs, science-literature faculties, language and history-geography faculty programs and nursing education programs. For the accreditaton of prep (preparatory) programs in foreign language schools in universities it is seen that CEA and Pearson Assured institutions are mostly preferred. Those two institutions' - the CEA and Pearson Assured - accreditation processes have some differences in some respects, but they also have some similar orientations.

When the background of the standards in English langue teaching is examined it is clearly seen that English language teaching has been explored and developed continuously as a professional field especially since the 1940s. For more effective and efficient language teaching processes, standards have been developed. There are various institutions around the world that work on the development and recognition of those standards. Accreditation UK (administered by British Council and English UK), American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), European Association for Quality Language Services (EAQUALS), International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), Commission on English Language Program Accreditation (CEA) and TESOL International Association are some of these institutions (Pennington & Hoekje, 2014).

Prep programs of foreign language schools in universities are increasingly applying to accrediting institutions to meet the international standards in language teaching as well as to be respected for it. When those programs with accreditation processes are examined, it is seen that CEA and Pearson Assured accreditating institutions are mostly preferred in Turkey.

CEA (Commission on English Language Program Accreditation) is an institution that provides accreditation of English language programs and institutions. The CEA Standards for English Language Programs and Institutions comprise 44 individual standards in 11 standards areas. And the accreditation process consists of six steps (URL 2):

Table 1. CEA Steps in Accreditation Process

Step 1: Application for eligibility	A school / program applies by completing the documents showing that the eligibility criteria are met.
Step 2: Workshop	Participation of the school / program representatives in a 2-day workshop (in CEA office abroad or at TESOL events) to receive guidance on the preparation of the standards and the self-study report.
Step 3: Self-Study plan	One month after the workshop, the site submits a plan for its self-study and CEA staff provides feedback on the plan.
Step 4: Self-Study report	The school / program explains how it believes it meets each of the 44 CEA standards, documents compliance, evaluates how well it meets the standards, and recommends areas of improvement in a self-study report.
Step 5: Site visit	A three-person team reads the self-study report prior to conducting a 3-day on-site visit. The visit includes class visits, a tour of facilities, and interviews with administrators, faculty, and students in order to verify the contents of the self-study report. The team applies the CEA Standards in its review process. The review team-report includes its findings related to each of the 44 CEA standards. The school receives the report and writes a response to the findings.
Step 6: Review by the Commision	The 13-member CEA Commission uses the self-study report, the review team report, the response from the site, and a review of finances to make its accreditation decision. For initial accreditation, the Commission may grant 1-year or 5-year accreditation. For re-accreditation, the Commission may grant 1-year of 10-year accreditation. Sites that receive 1-year accreditation must respond to requirements before being considered for continued accreditation.

In the first step of CEA accreditation application, information of those subjects is prepared in a report (CEA Standards for English Language Programs and Institutions, 2016):

Mission of the program/school;

Informational materials:

Introductory information about the program/school e. g. academic calendar, website and other marketing materials.

Curriculum:

Provide a curriculum overview that includes course objectives and student learning outcomes for all courses and levels.

Faculty:

Submit a document describing the general requirements for faculty hiring and a list of current staff showing their qualities.

Facilities:

Provide materials showing the facilities at which courses are offered.

Administrative structure:

Submit an organizational chart showing the lines of reporting within the program and its outer operational relationship.

Student services:

List services available to students, such as counseling and advising, housing, health insurance,social and recreational activities.

Other

Provide documents showing evidence of student enrollment for the past three instructional periods.

Pearson Assured (formerly Edexcel Assured), is an independent organization with training or learning programmes designed for in-house delivery and assessment. Similar to the CEA, first the school / program needs to supply evidence to support their quality systems against each objective of the Pearson Assured. Then the Quality Advisors of the organization carry out very thorough assessments before awarding Pearson Assured status. The accreditation process is consisted of four steps (URL 3):

Table 2. Pearson Assured Steps in Accreditation Process

Step 1	Contact the local representative.
Step 2	The relevant Pearson Assured Guidance and Policy Documents are sent to the school / program, they are completed and returned including the application form.
Step 3	A Quality Advisor visits the site to conduct a review of the quality management system.
Step 4	If all quality measures are met, the program will receive Pearson Assured Status for 1 year, as well as marketing information and files for using the Pearson logo. However, if not all quality measures are met, Pearson Assured works with the school to improve quality systems and a second site visit is arranged.

Once Pearson Assured Status is received, it is valid for 1 year. At the end of the year, a different Quality Advisor visits the site to inspect whether quality standards are still being maintained. If there are problematic things in the system, they are resolved. However, if they cannot still be resolved, Pearson Assured has the right not to award the status or to withdraw the Pearson Assured brand if serious quality issues are found. The topics to which the Pearson Assured determines the quality objectives of the school / program to be accredited are listed below. A detailed report on the sub-topics regarding the framework of these topics is required to be prepared by the applicant school / program (Pearson Assured Handbook, 2016):

Managing the organisation:

The organisation structure, staff resources (roles and team-working), physical resources and administrative systems.

Managing learning/training:

Design of education/training, maintaining and improving quality, learner/trainee recruitment, malpractice, appeals and complaints.

Managing assessment (if applicable).

Even though the CEA and Pearson Assured accreditation processes differ in some respects, they have similar orientations on topics such as education, physical facilities, academic staff and management.

Conclusion and Further Research

In the twenty-first century, universities have become massive with the influence of globalization, information technologies and competitiveness, and they have a much more interactive structure than they had in the past. It is getting much more important to apply internationally accepted education and training standards. Therefore, the use of quality improvement tools such as accreditation is increasing in a variety of programs and schools/faculties.

The effectiveness and efficiency of teaching English is very important both in Turkey and in the world. Thus, the application of English language teaching at internationally recognized standards and the fact that the school has a reputation in this respect is leading to an increasing number of school accreditations.

In this study, the concept of accreditation is dealt with and two different accreditation institutions, which are widely preferred in the preparatory programs of universities in Turkey, are examined. Following this review, an investigation of how the accreditation process is experienced in an English preparatory program, which will start the accreditation process, is suggested through an action research method. This method is often used by researchers in the field of education to find solutions to contingent problems or to improve their situation (Beyhan, 2013; Glesne, 2013).

In this way, the process of accreditation process will be discussed such as how the unit passed through the process, the place / role of the academicians in the work done, the emerging problems and solutions, and the communication processes among the academicians themselves and with the administrators in the process. It is believed that by carrying out an action research method in the process of accreditation as a quality development tool it will be possible to look at the process critically, to identify possible problems and solutions in the process, and to improve the institution itself. Moreover, the study can constitute an application sample for the institutions that will start the accreditation process by transfering these experiences.

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Effects of a Quality Management System on the Financial Performance in Banking Sector: Case Study Kosovo

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Abstract

Creating and improving the services quality, presses the financial institutions to make differentiation from the competition and better position in market for itself. The modern approach to quality management system in the financial and banking sector includes faith, activities which make the client satisfied and this is particularly true in the goodness and help the employees with whom customers will come in contact giving accurate and clear information, discipline and long-term approach. The objective of this study was to establish the effect of quality management system on financial performance in the Kosovo banking sector. At the same time, the concept of quality as a rule leads to confusion and misinterpretation, because it is difficult to determine its exact meaning. The quality of the product or service is the first and often the last thought of the people, when they talk about quality. The concept of quality as an indicator of fulfilling the requirements of the standards or level of excellence is part of advertising, when it comes to their product or service. In tackling the problem, we used empirical methods, which will enable us a correct result of our paper. The results of the paper does not result in significance between banking services and performance of the banking sector in Kosovo.

Keywords: Quality management, financial services, customer, banking sector, quality dimensions

JEL Classification:M-10; L-15; G-21 / **UDC Classification**: 005. 6. 336. 7

1. Introduction

In the conditions of globalization, growing competition and lack of differences in banking markets, quality of service becomes a decisive factor of survival and success of banks. Customers come to the center of the business philosophy, and they are those that require new products, better, faster and more reliable service. In such environment, banks must meet or exceed the expectations of increasingly demanding customers. High-quality service is a way to achieved customer loyalty, facilitate the cross-selling of banking products, that ensuring greater market share and, at the same time, reducing operational costs, which will ultimately lead to increased profitability.

The banking sector in Kosovo has been dedicated to improving the quality of the customer service for years, and it has intensified its investment in banking technology. Commercial banks through the adoption of new technologies have enabled access to businesses and customers in the global financial markets, and have aligned the economy of Kosovo with the global economy. Only with continuous adjustment, fast decision making and adequate changes, organizations can survive in turbulent markets and increasingly complex doing business in order to achieve the expected success. Therefore, the quality of products and services is imposed as a strategic objective that organizations seek to achieve, thus, it is imposed as a competitive factor which has a significant impact on the performance of doing business. Quality management is a revolutionary step in increasing business efficiency, which is equally important for all banks, regardless of their size. This activity is focused on general improving of the Bank operations, which reduces costs, raises the employee morale and constantly improves the quality of products and services. This affects the competitive position of banks in the market toward the strengthening of the faith of the users themselves. The bank also constantly strives to win new elements of the quality, aiming to achieve the competitive advantage.

The goal of any organization is to achieve and maintain the competitive advantage. One way to achieve this objective is that the organization is faster and better in fulfilling the desires of the users compared with the competition. Acting in this way they are trying not only to meet, but also exceed the expectations of the users, and create the opinion among them

that competition is not in good condition and adequate to meet their needs. To achieve this it is not an easy and simple task, where quality management systems are responsible for achieving the goals of the quality to of the determined objectives. Aiming to gain the importance of the quality, which belongs to it, specific circumstances should be created which should be included along with modern technological development, including the severe competitive race, particularly expressed in the global market. Thus, in such circumstances, the quality can play a role as a strategic weapon in an attempt to keep the existing and the new markets. Every organization applies a special system of quality management, including banks as institutions with significant amounts of capital employed, number of employees and a complex organizational structure, generally recognized with the quality importance upon the offering of the services, mainly they have recognized the importance of quality in the case offering of the services, and therefore most of the banks implemented a formal system of quality management.

The economic crisis in Europe, and on the other hand the partnership between states and the lack of economic, political and social stability, has affected the investment and development of the economy in general. The economy of Kosovo has continued its growth trend despite the unfavorable international situation. In this way, it has managed to maintain macroeconomic balance It is important to know whether the banks do understand the current consumer needs and if the efforts they make meet the said needs. Thus, the management of service quality and consumer satisfaction is an essential task for finance- banking institutions in Kosovo.

2. Literature Overview - Importance of QMS and quality on banking rervices

The standard ISO 9001 defines the process as an activity or group of activities that uses resources to return input values into the output   values. (ISO 9001:2015). Each organization contains a certain number of more or less interrelated processes, which are ultimately important for the quality of the product. Quality of service at the present time has become a prerequisite for economic efficiency and a major driving force of the activities of successful organizations. Although there are a large number of definitions for the quality, the most widely accepted is the one that puts customers at the center and the fulfillment of its requirements. The Quality of management in the banking system includes security system, and focuses on what the user wants to speed up and facilitate the use of banking services. A major role in establishing relationships with customers belongs to the employees, that is, the involvement of employees in banking activities is necessary to enhance the quality of products and services. The prerequisite for this is an understanding of the employees in each segment and those who are in constant touch with some customers. In the quality and competitiveness, the development and application of new technologies has also a significant impact. Quality of services is the most important aspect in banking, as well. Business success can be reinforced if you conscientiously search for newer and more effective ways of improving the quality of your ways of serving customers. Quality is vital for organization success. It has become inevitable for banks to work on enhancing quality within their functions, product and services and the way they manage their organizations. Quality denotes an excellence in goods and services, especially to the degree they conform to requirements and satisfy customers (Islam. A. and Haque, A. F. M. 2012).

When it comes to quantitative benefits, a study was conducted back in mid 1990s, particularly covering American banks, from the point of view of service quality improvement. The study showed that improvement of service quality may increase the returns in a bank (Harvey, 1996, p. 11). As shown in Table 1 below, according to the data from this study, the improvement of service quality resulted in increased returns on assets (ROA) from 1. 05% to 1. 38%, and increased return on capital (ROE) from 16. 10% to 21. 22%.

Type of Bank Performance	Before Service Improvement	After Service Improvement
ROA	1. 05%	1. 38%
ROE	16. 10%	21. 22%

Source: Harvey, T. (1996), p. 11

Adopting QMS at the level of the organization is a strategic decision that "directs and controls the organization in terms of quality", aiming to improve its efficiency and effectiveness in order to increase the satisfaction of stakeholders by meeting their requirements. A qualitative QMS does not in itself make an organisation more profitable, efficient or customer focussed, but it will give to an organisation the ability to do anything better, from production to sales. A Quality Management System can be seen as a complex system consisting of all the parts and components of an organisation dealing with the quality of processes and products. A QMS can be defined as the managing structure, responsibilities, procedures,

processes, and management resources to implement the principles and action lines needed to achieve the quality objectives of an organisation. The importance and increasing attention to service quality in financial institutions is fully justified by the sociopolitical changes that have arisen (Cowling & Newman, 1995). As quality is defined as the totality of characteristics of a product that bears on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs, customer's satisfaction measurement appears as the most objective way of global assessment of the quality level of a given product. Customer's satisfaction is an essential measure that should have a status in corporate culture and effect until process improvements. Quality management as well as business strategies recognize the vital importance of customer's satisfaction to the success of an organisation (Ahonen, 1999). The quality service does not happen itself, but comes as the result of the quality of work of all those involved in its creation. Thus, the quality of the management processes beyond the scope of producing or offering of the services, while covering all functions of the organization and all individuals within the organization, as well as those which may affect the quality of its products or services. The basic elements of the quality are determined to help companies that are focused on the quality to constantly improve their results, while following the consumers, as well as other stakeholders. The satisfaction of the consumer is defined as follows: "The satisfaction of the consumer is the consumer's reaction to a self-fulfilling experience or a part of it" (Buttle, 2011). Upon the building of the quality relationships with customers, the bank can satisfy more customers than its competitors and better understand their needs. Most banks in Kosovo have intensified their investment in banking technology in order to divert customers from bank counters in order to reduce the costs. On the other hand the literature suggested that for banking customers personal relationships are still preferred as a primary means of communication and exchange between the bank and clients. (Tyler and Stanley, 2001).

Main banks of Kosovo are owned by foreign banks, which operate under the Basel standards, and have a much elaborated system of management user system. Based on research conducted for customer satisfaction in the bank, it is estimated that bank competitions mostly affect their ability to offer banking services, the development of technology that ensures fast and easy use of banking products by the user and the way banks interact with customers. Major objections in operation of bank the surveyed have on terms of loans, due to the lack of transparency, complex procedures, as well as rates of higher interests. The surveyed also see the quality of bank as a communication of banks with customers. In recent years, banks, due to increased competition, have developed more diversified services with the highest quality in order to survive and operate profitably. (T. Sadeghi, Bemani A. 2015).

Almost all Kosovar commercial banks have focused, till recently, on certain categories of clients when presenting. The main goal is to improve customer service and increase his delight. As a continuing relationship is the relationship with the client must provide that security, sense of control and a sense of trust, minimize risks, and ultimately lower costs. (Gronroos, 2004). One factor that may have an impact on customer loyalty to banks, are interpersonal relationships. Personal relationships can help to build long-term bilateral relations that make the customer perceives as the service gets differentiated services that offer other banks (Berry, 1995). Do the banks clients feel so in Kosovo? The undertaken researches from the researchers have found that banks that are oriented from the clients keep their customers longer, indicating that they are satisfied (Appiah et al, 2001). In order to create a quality management model for banking services, it had been necessary to determine the specifics of banking services, to analyze various theories of the customer satisfaction genesis, make a comparison of different models for measuring customer satisfaction and analyze the advantages and disadvantages of quality management models in banking. Why does customer satisfaction matter? There are two reasons. Customer satisfaction shows whether we are doing the right things and whether we are doing them in the right way. A customer is the only financial contributor and in times of harsh competition customer satisfaction plays a more and more important role in making a purchase decision (Goodman and Colin 1992). Finally, should always bear in mind that the customers always give priority to those service providers who offer the highest quality at the most acceptable price. Quality should be valued by the customers and should always be put in relation to their needs and expectations (Nagaprasad, H. and Yogesha, B 2009).

Methodology and Data

The paper uses secondary data to measure financial performance indicators of the financial sector, with a special emphasis on the banking sector in Kosovo for the period 2000-2015, the data source of the paper are based on the annual reports of the Central Bank of Kosovo for the financial performance indicators of the banking sector, as well as data on the quality of the services of the banking sector in Kosovo. Some financial indicators during the reporting periods are missing, as in the period after the war in Kosovo (1999), the data were not presented in the absence of credible data and for other reasons. The sample of the paper consists of 10 commercial banks in Kosovo, which are owned by different, with most dominant

foreign capital, while a small part of the local capital, and sample of the paper includes the structure of some electronic services and physical commercial banks in Kosovo, which shall be treated through social science program SPSS statistical, empirical methods for testing the hypothesis of the paper. If the P-value ≤ α, then we reject the null hypothesis, whereas starting if P-value> α, then do not reject the null hypothesis.

Hypotheses

The main hypothesis of this paper is:

H_0 – Application of Quality Management System (QMS) in the banking sector services does not have impact in the performance of banking sector in Kosovo;

H_1 – Application of Quality Management System (QMS) in the banking sector services have impact in the performance of banking sector in Kosovo;

Variables

In determining the performance of the banking sector have used financial indicator of profitability, as key elements for description of the performance of the banking sector. Professor Ameen (et al, 2015), in determining of the performance of the banking sector has used these financial indicators in their empirical analysis, through financial indicators of profitability. QMS in our work will be treated in terms to offer banking services to customers of banks in Kosovo. In determining the elements of the quality services offered by banks in Kosovo are limited, because the banking sector of Kosovo is still in its development stages, so we have restrictions on use of the elements of the definition of services of commercial banks in Kosovo.

Profitability of banks is measured by:

Return on Assets (ROA) = net profit / total assets is a measure of profitability that shows how the bank performs services related to its full potential. Return on assets ratio measures the net income in relation to total assets. This report indicates the return on all assets of the bank after they pay interest and taxes. This report shows how well a bank is managed as it shows how profit is created for each unit of average assets. Return on assets ratio is a ratio which is used quite a lot in the empirical analysis of capital adequacy as it permits comparison between banks of different sizes;

Table 1. ROA in the banking sector in Kosovo (2000-2015)
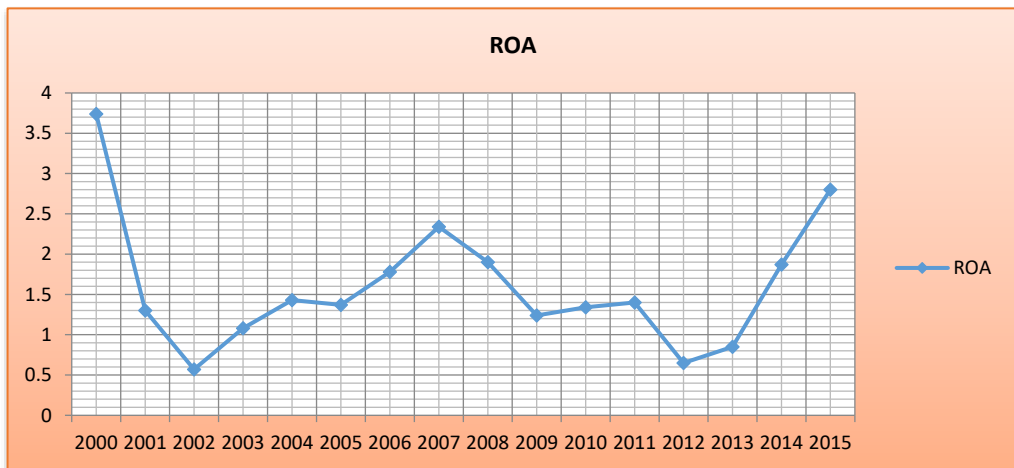
Source: CBK Annual reports and statistical reports, 2000-2015

Return on Equity (ROE) = net profit / total equity represents shareholders report which invest to ensure a return on their money and this report shows how well I was progressing investment accounting terms. ROE is inverse indicator between profitability and risk that the bank undertakes, and a good indicator for comparing performance between banks

Table 2. ROE in the banking sector in Kosovo (2000-2015)
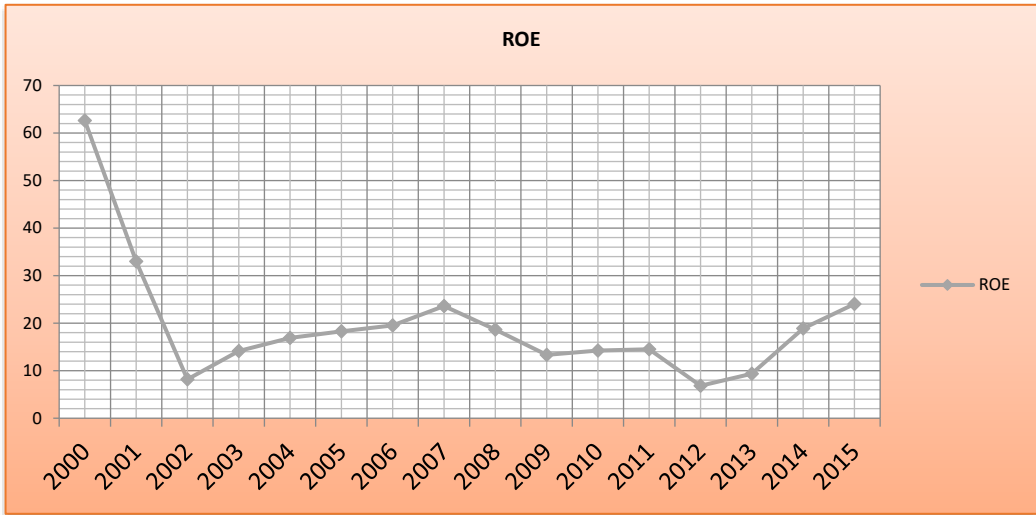
Net Margin Ratio = net profit / sales profit after tax shows that the bank is able to generate from its banking operations.

Source: CBK Annual reports and statistical reports, 2000-2015

Table.3 NMR in the banking sector in Kosovo

Source: CBK Annual reports and statistical reports, 2000-2015

In terms of the data services of the banking sector in Kosovo (2001-2015), the variables were limited, since empirical Analyze quantitative data are missing, as such, only a few elements of banking services to their customers have been used. Services that affect the achievement of customer satisfaction, which have direct and indirect impact on the performance of the banking sector are closely related to their quality, because poor quality services affect poor performance of banks, and vice versa.
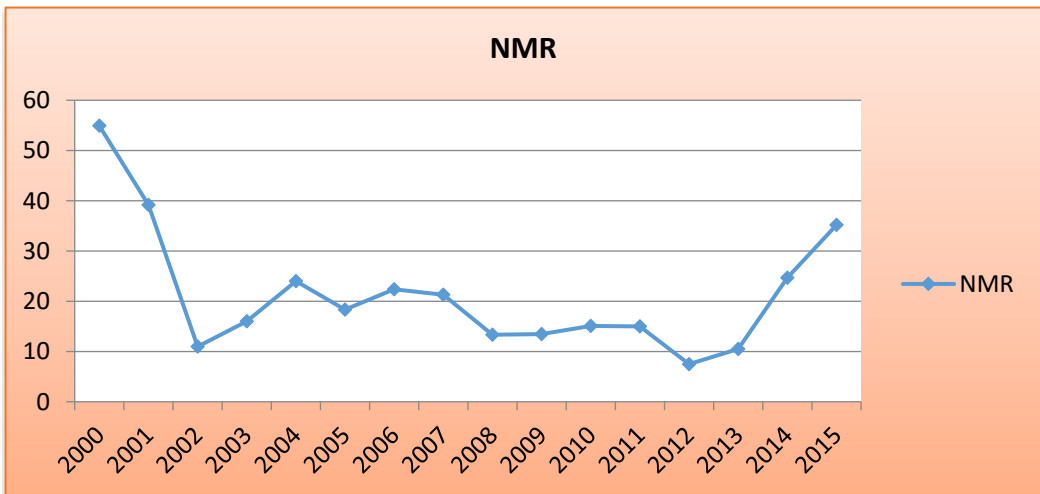
Table 4. Services banking sector in Kosovo (2000-2015)

Years	NB	NE	ATM	POS	E_Banking
2001	28	637	-	-	-
2002	118	1393	14	-	-
2003	147	1676	35	-	-
2004	207	2068	43	-	-
2005	224	2341	102	1406	837
2006	220	2416	116	1767	3316
2007	235	2715	155	2554	4742
2008	287	3607	240	3426	13051
2009	292	3444	339	5251	40924
2010	303	3768	415	6194	55292
2011	310	3728	460	7534	68992
2012	310	3727	483	8592	68990
2013	305	3549	496	9071	131365
2014	268	3510	498	9349	157761
2015	255	3510	540	9705	187297

Source: CBK Annual reports and statistical reports, 2000-2015

Table. 4 reflects NB- number of branches and sub-branches of commercial banks in Kosovo, MAILING number of employees in the banking sector, the number of ATM-s, POS and E-Banking- number of users this service over the years in Kosovo. The data are presented from 2001-2015, where some data are missing, due to the annual reports of disappearances in CBK's.

Statistical analysis and hypothesis testing

In statistical analysis the descriptive analysis shall be included, correlation and simple linear regression in testing of the paper hypotheses. Statistical analysis will show us the main elements of the performance indicators of the banking sector and the banking sector quality services at a better reflection of the empirical results of the paper. Descriptive analysis will include all the economic variables of the paper, in order to facilitate our empirical analysis.

Table 5. Descriptive analysis of all economic variables

Statistics

		NB	NE	ATM	POS	E_Banking	ROE	ROA	NMR
N	Valid	15	15	14	11	11	16	16	16
	Missing	1	1	2	5	5	0	0	0
Mean		233. 93	2805. 93	281. 14	5895. 36	66597. 00	19. 754375	1. 603750	21. 360625
Median		255. 00	3444. 00	289. 50	6194. 00	55292. 00	17. 595000	1. 385000	17. 165000

Mode	310	3510	14a	1406a	837a	6. 8300a	. 5700a	7. 4900a
Std. Deviation	81. 771	1004. 098	199. 968	3185. 078	65494. 049	13. 1609959	. 8151718	12. 4271785
Variance	6686. 495	1008212. 495	39987. 055	10144720. 455	4289470485. 000	173. 212	. 665	154. 435
Skewness	-1. 358	-. 870	-. 065	-. 230	. 801	2. 526	1. 300	1. 564
Std. Error of Skewness	. 580	. 580	. 597	. 661	. 661	. 564	. 564	. 564
Kurtosis	1. 571	-. 333	-1. 862	-1. 720	-. 610	7. 813	2. 064	2. 481
Std. Error of Kurtosis	1. 121	1. 121	1. 154	1. 279	1. 279	1. 091	1. 091	1. 091
Minimum	28	637	14	1406	837	6. 8300	. 5700	7. 4900
Maximum	310	3768	540	9705	187297	62. 6200	3. 7400	54. 9300
Sum	3509	42089	3936	64849	732567	316. 0700	25. 6600	341. 7700

Source: author / Calculation SPSS 1

Descriptive analysis results indicate that the banking sector in Kosovo have fluctuated in different periods of time, where: Monthly ROA in the banking sector in Kosovo is 1. 60%, with the percentage motility of 12:57% to 3. 74%, while ROE has average 19. 75% with mobility rate from 6. 83% to 62. 62% and 21:36% NMR. Profitability indicators show that the banking sector is performing better than at the beginning of its operation, with banking services which in relation to the structure of deposits and loans is worse, because it has a low average of ATMs and users of electronic banking services, while the structure of branches and subsidiaries is better, with an average of 233 banking units and the average number of employees in 2805.

Table 6. Correlation of all economic variables

Correlationsᵃ		NB	NE	ATM	POS	E_Banking	ROE	ROA	NMR
NB	Pearson Correlation	1	. 914	. 713	. 632	. 305	-. 751	-. 576	-. 627
	Sig. (2-tailed)		. 000	. 014	. 037	. 363	. 008	. 064	. 039
NE	Pearson Correlation	. 914	1	. 850	. 780	. 546	-. 483	-. 244	-. 293
	Sig. (2-tailed)	. 000		. 001	. 005	. 082	. 133	. 470	. 381
ATM	Pearson Correlation	. 713	. 850	1	. 988	. 868	-. 402	-. 157	. 004
	Sig. (2-tailed)	. 014	. 001		. 000	. 001	. 220	. 644	. 990
POS	Pearson Correlation	. 632	. 780	. 988	1	. 910	-. 366	-. 127	. 059
	Sig. (2-tailed)	. 037	. 005	. 000		. 000	. 268	. 710	. 864
E_Banking	Pearson Correlation	. 305	. 546	. 868	. 910	1	-. 033	. 176	. 407
	Sig. (2-tailed)	. 363	. 082	. 001	. 000		. 923	. 605	. 214
ROE	Pearson Correlation	-. 751	-. 483	-. 402	-. 366	-. 033	1	. 953	. 848
	Sig. (2-tailed)	. 008	. 133	. 220	. 268	. 923		. 000	. 001
ROA	Pearson Correlation	-. 576	-. 244	-. 157	-. 127	. 176	. 953	1	. 883
	Sig. (2-tailed)	. 064	. 470	. 644	. 710	. 605	. 000		. 000
NMR	Pearson Correlation	-. 627	-. 293	. 004	. 059	. 407	. 848	. 883	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	. 039	. 381	. 990	. 864	. 214	. 001	. 000	

Source author / Calculation SPSS 2

Relevance correlation between economic variables descriptive and significances draws connections between them. The above link correlation between variables is between ATM and NMR's, but the economic analysis it is not a theoretical basis for the correlation analysis. Strong positive link between ROA, ROE and NMR shows that the banking sector has a good performance, so magnified as an indicator of profitability will grow another financial indicator.

To test the hypothesis of the paper we used simple linear regression, where the model is constructed on the basis of existing data which are based on the analysis above. Dependent variable are taking the performance of the banking sector, ie we used the average of the combination of three indicators of profitability (ROE, ROA, NMR) and independent variable QMS, with the combination of variables banking services in Kosovo (NB, NE, ATM, POS, E-Banking).

$Performance_t = C + \beta_1 TQM_t + \varepsilon$

C – Constants for variables

E – random error for period t

T – 2000 year to 2015 years.

Table 7. Results of simple linear regression

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	12. 305	1. 853		6. 642	. 000
	TQM	3. 345E-006	. 000	. 043	. 156	. 879

a. Dependent Variable: Performance

Source author / Calculation SPSS 3

The results of linear regression show that the level of significance is 0879, which shows that QMS isn't an element that has had an impact on the quality of banking services and had no impact on the performance of the banking sector in Kosovo, a parameter indicating that banks in Kosovo are not oriented to offer quality services for the achievement of meeting the needs of customers, but they are more oriented to less quality services to achieve their financial goals. The The level of significance rejects the hypothesis H_1 ad approves the hypothesis H_0 that the application of the Quality Management System (QMS) and its requirements in the banking services sector has not affected the performance of the banking sector in Kosovo.

Conclusions

The paper empirically treated the problem of the impact of QMS in the performance of the financial sector in Kosovo, with particular emphasis on the banking sector in Kosovo, where the used empirical treatment in the paper is correlated with complete data available for this problem in Kosovo. The conclusion of the paper is that the application of the requirements of Quality Management System in the banking sector in Kosovo is still not at the right level, respectively nonsignificant between QMS and banking sector performance.

The current economic situation and the positions taken by banks present on the Kosovar market make the implementation of quality management within the banking system more important than ever. Thus, from these results we can say that the banking sector in Kosovo, still does not comply with quality services and does not take into account the "Voice of the Customer", which represents desires, thoughts, perceptions, expectations, demands and specifications of users and based on these financial institutions to produce services that meet the requirements of users and also to eliminate the possible failures that occur upon the offering of banking services. The banks that will be able to adequately combine its sales offer with the quality of service have real chances to increase their market share (what all banks are striving for) and, implicitly, their profit.

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On Referential Distance in Written Texts

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Abstract

Apart from personal pronouns which are by far the most used referring expressions in English and Serbian, reference can be established and maintained using demonstratives. Their function is to refer to the location or distance of a person or an object. The aim of this paper is to examine reference realised by demonstratives with special regard to the restrictions written discourse imposes on their usage. The texts we used for analysis are narrative stories written in the two languages.

Keywords: demonstratives, reference, restrictions, English, Serbian.

Introduction

Although one of the commonest way to maintain once established reference is by means of personal pronouns, reference can also be maintaned in other ways. Our aim in this paper is to show the reference made by demonstratives in narrative stories written in English and Serbian. Unlike Serbian, English distinguishes demonstrative pronouns and demonstrative determiners, each of which may perform referential function.

In the reference of a text demonstrative determiners fulfill their referential function if they occur with a noun, i. e. dependently, as in the example excerpted from our corpus:

When he reached for the gearshift *the boy* in front accommodated him by swinging his hairless knees out of the way. Mr. Kapasi noted that *this boy* was slightly paler than the other children.

(IoM, p. 33)

On the other hand, demonstrative pronouns may refer to an entity or the whole range of entities if they are used independently, without a noun, as in the following example which is also taken from our corpus:

He put down two embroidered place mats…and set out the plates…He put the ivy in the middle… He switch on the digital clock radio …What's all *this...* (IoM, p. 17)

The demonstrative pronouns relate to the personal pronouns in much the same way as the demonstrative determiners are related to the definite article (Biber et al. 1999:347). Demonstrative pronouns have the same form as demonstrative determiners and can be singular (this/that) or plural (these/those).

Like the definite article and personal pronouns, demonstratives have definite meaning, and therefore their reference depends on the context shared by speaker/writer and hearer/reader (Quirk et al. 1985: 372). There are several characteristics of demonstrative pronouns:

Singular form may refer back to the whole text previously mentioned:

I wondered, too, what would happen if *suddenly his seven daughters were to appear on television, smiling and waving and blowing kisses to Mr. Pirzada from a balcony.* I imagined how relieved he would be. But *this* never happened.

(VV, p. 41)

Not only can they refer back but they can also refer forward to what is to be said:

Somehow, without saying anything, it had turned into *this. Into an exchange of confessions* — the little ways they'd hurt or disappointed each other, and themselves.

(IoM, p. 16)

Demonstrative pronouns may refer to plural referents:

He had never admired *the backs of his wife's legs* the way he now admired *those* of Mrs. Das...

(IoM, p. 60)

Plural forms can also refer to the whole range of previously mentioned things that have plural-like characteristics:

He had cheated on a college exam, ripped a picture of a woman out of a magazine. He had returned a sweater and *got drunk in the middle of the day instead. These* were the things he had told her.

(IoM, p. 19)

Although the usage of demonstrative pronouns is restricted when they refer to humans, the only instance where demonstratives can refer pronominally to human reference is in relational clause of the equative type where one element is supplying the identification of the others (Halliday, Hasan 1976: 63):

Do you want to know the woman who's fainted?

That's Michael Barrett's girlfriend… (VV, p. 50)

We have already said that one of the characteristics of demonstrative determiners is that they can be used in the form of singular or plural. The function of demonstrative determiners is to refer to a familiar referent, to inform about its quantity and its distance from the speaker/hearer. Performing that task they can be easily combined with countable and non-countable nouns alike.

Demonstratrative determiners *this/these* and *that/those* are closely related to the meaning of the definite article in English. Even though the usage of the definite article is mostly restricted to countable nouns, the definite article can also occur with non-countable nouns and it can be sometimes replaced by a demonstrative determiner:

I beg your pardon, Mrs. Das, but why have you told me *this information*?"

(IoM, p. 42)

To show that demonstrative determiners are in a close relation with the definite article we give an example which shows that demonstrative determiner can be used after indefinite noun phrase which brings an entity in discourse for the first time:

Beyond the fields was a forest, and in *this forest*, there was a clear, blue lake.

(FT, p. 4)

No matter how logical it would be to expect the structure in which indefinite NP precedes a demonstrative NP, the reverse situation is also possible. This means that demonstratives are not restricted to reference maintenance only. They can also introduce an entity into a discourse as in the following text where the entity *guy* is referred back with the indefinite NP *a barefoot man*:

"Hey, do you mind stopping the car. I just want to get a shot of *this guy. "* Mr. Kapasi pulled over to the side of the road as Mr. Das took a picture of *a barefoot man*...

(IoM, p. 33)

Moreover, demonstrative determiners may refer to animate and inanimate referents, which can be located in the vicinity of a speaker or far away.

But there is a rule that can be more or less applied generally: demonstrative determiner in a combination with a noun may refer to animate and inanimate entities while demonstrative pronouns usually refer to inanimate entities.

Although *this* and *that* anaphorically refer to what has previously been said, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 59) claim that *this* is more specific than *that* since *this* has the speaker as its point of reference while *that* has no particular reference point it is simply interpreted as *not this.* According to the same authors (1976:61) there are marked differences among different styles and varieties of English as regard their patterns of anaphoric usage. In narratives of a traditional kind such as children stories and ballads, we often find *that* where, in conversational narrative, a speaker would tend to use *this,* conveying a sense of immediacy and also of solidarity with the hearer, of shared interest and attention.

Lyons (1975) argues that the distance is what separates *this* and *that* from the definite article, which is quite neutral in showing distance. *This* refes to the things that are less distant and *that* to the things that are more distant, hence the distiction between these two demonstratives.

Demonstrative pronouns in Serbian have the adjectival characteristics and they usually occur with nouns but they can also stand alone as the independent part of a sentence. Serbian distinguishes several types of demonstrative nouns: ovaj/ova/ovo; taj/ta/to; onaj/ona/ono; ovakav/ovakva/ovakvo; ovoliki/ovolika/ovoliko; onoliki/toliki. They may refer to the people/ entities that are in the vicinity of a speaker (ovaj/ovoliki), or the people being spoken to (taj/toliki) and the people that are absent (onaj/onoliki). Proximity is usually referred to by *ovaj/ova/ovo,* while the distance is referred to by *onaj/ona/ono.*

Moreover, the pronouns of this type in Serbian can refer to the qualitative characteristic of the entities being referred to:

Vaši očevi su bili hrabri, a i vi ćete biti *takvi.* (Stanojčić, Popović 1997: 91)

Types of reference

Demonstratives are specific though not rare referring expressions. In this paper we analysed their usage in narrative stories. One of the most striking facts we noticed is that demonstratives were usually restricted to the reference to inanimate entities. The reference they made was realized in two ways: by independent demonstrative pronouns and by dependent demonstrative determiners. The following lines show the types of reference demonstrative may establish.

a) Time reference

In this type of reference, demonstratives refer to time showing whether something is near or distant in time reference. Both languages share this feature:

… even though Shoba and Shukumar hadn't celebrated Chistmas *that year.*

(IoM, p. 10)

Ta zima 1973. počela ja naglo s mrazevima...

(KSM, p. 17)

b) Anaphoric reference

In this type of reference, demonstratives occur within a NP and refer to the entity, that is to the whole range of entities that have been previously mentioned in the text:

The baby had been born dead... Her placenta had weakened and she'd had a cesarean... The doctor explained that *these things* happen.

 (IoM, p. 11)

In Serbian language, the most frequent pronouns to form this type of reference are the pronouns *taj/ta/to*:

Vladar se morao još jednom vratiti natrag i pokušati sa *trećim vratima... Ta vrata* su ga odvela drugim hodnikom...

(CR, p. 79)

c) Associative reference

This type of reference presupposes that the interlocutor/listener will be able to establish associative relation between the antecedent and what follows it. In our example this type is illustrated by the verb *imagine* that is the antecedent and the NP with demonstrative determiner *these images*:

… he imagined a day when he and Shoba might need to buy a station wagon of their own, to cart their children. He*imagined himself* gripping the wheel, as Shoba turned around to hand the children juice boxes. Once *these images* of parenthood had troubled Shukumar.

(IoM, p. 11)

As the analysis shows, demonstratives are mostly used for referring to inanimate entities. Singular forms are much more frequently used than plural forms. Moreover, demonstratives primarily make anaphoric reference but we have shown they can make other types of reference. The following table shows the distribution of demonstratives in narrative stories.

Table1 *Distribution of demonstratives in narratives (English language)*

Demonstrative determiners				Demonstrative pronouns	
animate		Inanimate			
this	these	this	These	this	these
1	1	20	5	12	0
that	those	that	Those	that	those
0	1	21	10	7	1

In our corpus written in Serbian we observed the frequency of the three types of demonstrative pronouns and analysed the way they influence the establishment and maintenance of referential continuity in this type of narrative story. The most frequent is the pronoun *taj* when refers to singular inanimate entities. The least frequent is pronoun *ovaj* which refers to animate singular and plural entities. The table number 2 gives the distribution of demonstratives in written narratives n Serbian.

Table 2 *Distribution of demonstratives in narratives (Serbian language)*

Ovaj/ova/ovo				Taj/ta/to				Onaj/ona/ono			
animate		inanimate		animate		Inanimate		animate		inanimate	
sing	pl	sing	pl	sing	pl	sing	Pl	sing	pl	sing	pl
1	1	8	0	3	0	49	6	8	1	11	1

Speaking about the differences between the two languages it is interesting to mention that demonstratives from our Serbian corpus made other types of reference: situational, local, and cataphoric.

1) Situational reference

Although typical of spoken discourse, situational usage of demonstrative pronouns in Serbian occurs in narratives, in the form of the dialogue *with the choice of demonstrative determiner reflecting speaker's perception of distance* (Biber 1999: 273):

   Ti dobro znaš šta hoću. Anđelar je na *to* besno bacio ubrus.

(KSM, p. 11)

2) Local reference

The example we provide shows the demonstrative pronoun used to denote the place the story is set in:

A *na toj pučini* sedeo je đavo.

(CR, p. 83)

3) Cataphoric reference

This type of reference is established through something following the demonstrative determiner. The demonstrative usually occurs independently and points to the things that are to be mentioned:

Kako se *to* zove? *uboj, pečat, žig, ožiljak.*

(CR, p. 11)

Conclusion

In both languages, English and Serbian, demonstratives can perform referential function and both languages chiefly use singular demonstratives to refer to inanimate entities. Even though demonstratives are related to the meaning of definite article which usually maintains reference, demonstratives can also introduce an entity into discourse.

English and Serbian share the ability to use demonstratives to make time and anaphoric reference. In time reference they show that something is near or distant in time while in anaphoric reference they refer back to the previous text.

In both languages demonstratives are used to show the proximity and the distance of a referent. In English demonstrative determiners are more frequently used than demonstrative pronouns. Estimating by frequency of occurrence, In Serbian the pronoun *taj* is the commonest demonstrative used for referring in this type of narrative.

Аннотация

За исключением личных местоимений являющимися наиболее часто используемым инструментом для произведения ссылки, в английском и сербском языках ссылка еще может быть достигнута и использованием демостративов, указывающих на местоположение какого-то лица или объекта. Целью данной разработки является изучение того как производится ссылка на определенную сущность используя демонстративы, с особым акцентом на свободу и ограничения в связи с произведением ссылки демонстративами в двух языках. Текст, который служил нам для этого вида анализа является рассказом, написанным на упомянутых языках.

Ключевые слова: демонстративы, произведение ссылки, ограничения, английский язык, сербский язык.

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Social Contract: Sovereign Contracted or Created? - Comparative Analysis Between T. Hobbes and S. Pufendorf

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Abstract

This paper has in its focus the notion of 'Sovereign'. The discussion will be conducted within the "School of Natural Law", which we will focus on two representatives; Thomas Hobbes and Samuel Pufendorf. Through a comparative philosophical analysis, we are going to stop on the basics, the genesis of sovereign power. Political philosophy in the context of finding the source of sovereign power is a problem in the landmark of the unsolvable. ” Scool of Natural Law” referring to the natural condition has the solution to this problem. Compare lines will start from this premise, to know after, how the reason goas towards two different concepts of “Social Contract”. Contract which generates sovreigen person, it defines the nature and content of the power of this person. At this discourse, social contract as the core hub of transition, conversion to the state of nature in a civil context is rolling between the political and juridical character. Discussion, which essentially make us know the nature of the relationship between the Sovereign and members of society, sovereign and state, the member of society between each other. In other words, we will see how the political - legal forms of organization, the way of governing is determined by the nature of initial social contract

Keywords: state of nature, social contract, sovereign, civil society

Introduction

Europe of times of Renaissance and Reformation brought foundamental changes, to the forms of thought, lifestyle, socio-political organization, etc. In the context of a troubled continent, after the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire and the birth of the nation state, the notion of “Sovereign” comes naturally as time requirement.

Time which inspired scientific thinking model and approach to problems. Scientific rationality was returning to humanity, to find there the foundamentals and not to the theological principles. In this sense, secular trend in knowledge it was premise to laicise the political power. On the other hand, the decline of domination of the Aristotelian and the fragility philosophy of moral relativism would be another argument - critical to find solid foundamentals, from which the society will be consolidated in the legal and political context. Further, to organize state - nations in mutual and lasting relationship. It is on these terms that was created and developed the thoughts of the school of natural law, which would inspire the modern political discourses.

 The problem of Sovereign required secure premises, to justify a higher and strong power with the goal of organizing a sustainable society, Hobbes and Pufendorf (but not only) started from what nature teaches us. Knowledge of human nature and the natural condition of society would be basics, from where we will start a comparative discussion to find the source of sovereign power. The argument which in the context of socio-political organization, will lead to the “Social Contract”. The focus will be on understanding them meaning that gives each of them to this act, like direct genereator of the person with sovereign power. With interest, will be the juridico- political model, which comes as the post reality - contract.

Human by nature; law and natural law

What is the human by nature? In what relations, he stands with others? In the empirical logic of Hobbes, man is seen as a body, as an object among other objects of nature. In other words, man isn't seen differentiated from the natural environment. He is part of the physical nature and is defined, determined by its nomocracy. Human acting in natural circumstances is

dictated by the actions of the other objects, which are located outside him. For Hobbes is absurd to think that a man can be put in motion by himself (Tuck, 2008, p. 63). He is seen as a being totally passive and irresponsible for his behavior. The scientific rationality of Hobbes objectivised the natural explanation within the framework of psycho - physical. In this sense, man is seen more as a being naive; perceptive closely related with the direct interest of life (Levitani, 2000, p. 10).

The context of human gullibility and the state of perception is an indication that he follows its natural instinct. The instinct that essentially has factual existence (life). In such circumstances, the human is motivated by the fulfillment of this instinct, regardless of the object. Implying the total lack of regulation, means for Hobbes's that "only the present exists in nature" (Hobbes, 2000, p. 13). Importance has the momentary interest as a direct requirement of instinct for good and personal pleasure. Here falls the value or interest for the other, no moral or humane principles. Moment, the present is decisive for man in natural conditions, it dictates his behavior and actions, making a completely spontaneous human being and without given rules. The direction of the moment interest, essentially creates conditioned individual by natural requirements, but unimpeded by any other rule or principle to meet these requirements. Good and evil, right and wrong is always seen in the interest of the strongest. This is expressed from the antiquity by sophist Thrasimah (Plato, 1999, p. 26). Precisely here Hobbes gives the understanding of "Natural Law" when he writes: "The natural law … is freedom of every person to use his power, as he will himself, to preserve its nature, in other words his life and, therefore, do everything according to his judgment and reason, he conceives as the most suitable for this purpose " (Hobbs, 2000, p. 80). In other words, 'natural law' is equivalent to 'absolute freedom', where the primary goal is to ensure the physical existence, and on this purpose any kind of action is more than justified.

The opposite of the right (freedom), for Hobbes is duty (law). Here is distinguished right by law, where the natural right is absolute spontaneity, and the law of nature is the discovery of reason. In this context, the right ". . . consists in the freedom to do or not to do something, while the law stipulates and makes mandatory one of the two. So, the law and the right distinguish between them as much as the freedom and responsibility, which are incompatible with each other if they are applied to the same " (Hobbs, 2000, p. 81). Discovering the reason (law) requires binding behavior to do or not to do something which serves to a specific purpose. In the contexts of the natural condition the reason discoveres the natural law, this is unviolation of natural law of another, the right of life. The law of nature is a limitation of the absolute right of human (freedom). Relationship goes in contradiction with each other. Selfish tendence of the human, being perceptive in natural circumstances (without rules), the law of nature is not taken into account at all.

Pufendorf joins the Hobbes's idea that, external factors are often determinant in human behavior. However, otherwise from Hobbes, Pufendorf is dualist in the treatment of human nature. Man, is not just a physical being, but also mental, spiritual (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 75). From this point of view, we see man as a being not totally perceptive, but abstractive. In the judgement of Pufendorf, the human carries by nature minimum reason. If for Hobbes, human is moved by the outside world, from the perception of objects, for Pufendorf's man is more active. Man, by nature has the ability to overcome the constraints imposed by nature. So, he moves not only by external factors, but is motivated by cognitive abilities and will. He creates concepts and analyzes their meaning. How to say, the human depart from himself to act and is not just a physical object, which is set in movement by other objects, as Hobbes thinks. He chooses, without being imposed solely by external circumstances. So, man is author of his behavior, responsible for its actions (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 38).

Dualism of Pufendorf, from what I expressed, opposes the difference that makes Hobess between the "right" and "duty". Reasoning human nature means that the duty or the law is an expression of freedom and not the opposite. Whether in the Hobbes's we find the distinguishment between the duty and the right, as the difference between the law (reason) and liberty (perception), at Pufendorf's we have the expression of freedom as a combination of law and duty. In this sense the human is freedom for Hobbes, only when he is not limited by external factors, whereas for Pufendorf the human, somehow creates freedom as a synthesis between the right and duty, reason and perception.

The relationship of man with man in the natural condition

In nature, man according to Hobbes requires in complete freedom the fulfillment of private interest, it is characterized by selfishness and unkindness. This means that in the state of nature, man is seen as the enemy of man, he wants to defend himself by fighting or subjected other rivals (Hobbes, 2000, p. 77). Hence, the tendency to gain more power and he who has more power reaches to impose on others. Told in other words, natural human condition it is in a continuous state of

war, for more force, more power (Hobbes, 2000, p. 61). In this sense man tries to provide an individual power to accomplish essentially his nature, implied here the existence. He has the ability to create and enjoy the Individual power, which is always in function of his private personal interest. Within this force is measured even the freedom. The more power has this person, the less is limited. This is the power given by his ego that is exerted over others in its own interest. This is freedom in the conept of Hobbes, closely related to external factors.

The notion of "protecting themselves"' is as well a central term to Pufendorf, whom identifies it as the strongest impulse of man than any other incentive (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 59). Primary in human nature is itself, unencroachment and maintaining the personal integrity (safety). This fact makes Pufendorf subsequent and sequential of Hobbes theory (Palladini, 2008, p. 34). The fact that man bears a distinctive minimum reason, in the judgment of Pufendorf is seen as a task to not affect the Other. Even he realizes that alone is incomplete in nature, which means that "man is not born only for himself. . . " (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 75). Natural tendency to cohabit in the basics has fulfilling itself. The other is a prerequisite for this. In short words, man in all his complexity is ". . . designed by nature to social life" (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 114). The goal remains the mutual benefit and minimizes damages against each - other (Palladini, 2008, p. 34). Community is consequence of reason, which avoids the distress condition of living in conflict. This is the key difference with Hobbes, where Pufendorf didn't see the man as being extremely selfish and malicious. In the end, minimal reason makes the human to live in community, by featuring a minimal humanity. Humanism, which in the judgment of Hobbes constitutes appearance, the natural conditions of actual circumstances. At the core of this situation is the war, selfishness, conflict, unkindness - towards each other.

The necessity for a power sovereign

Referring the meaning of the" natural law" according to Hobbes as an absolute freedom, where ". . . everyone has the right to do everything, even over the body of another. So, as long as continue this right of every man to do anything, may not have security for anyone. . . " (Hobbs, 2000, p. 81). Hence, naturayl man goes toward finding ways to ensure natural existence. Rivalry, mistrust, greed for power, natural condition of war (chaos) comprise the premise of Hobbes, from where is seen the necessity of a power to change the situation by creating a sustainable social organization.

So, impossible and constantly frightened by the situation of the permanent war in the natural condition (social), man requires solid basis to realize its natural condition. He lifts up from his personal power (from liberty, his absolute right.) to surrender it to a greater power in function of protecting itself (Hobbs, 2000, p. 61). Somehow it becomes reasonable (is forced) to accept a greater power than every one in particular, but he takes care to build symmetrical relations inside of the society. But which is this power that stands above everyone? Where is it?

"Fear of repression prompted this man to come forward or seek help through friends. Because there is no other way, through which man can secure his life and liberty" (Hobbs, 2000, p. 62). To create stable and reliable reports in order to fulfill the natural law of self-defense, is accepted a government that stands above all. Only in this power we can see in real terms a compact society and deserved to be called like this. Without power, the society is in a situation of conflict, division, confusion, chaos and relativity. Judgments or other arguments on the creation of the human community, in the philosophy of Hobbes seem enough idealistic to be believed. In contrast with Pufendorf, moral for the other is against human nature. Ethical ideal is not valid because by nature man is driven by ego and personal interest.

The common thing here in both authors is, the fundamental law of nature is to achieve peace. However, at Pufendorf the man is reasonable and social being, then, why do we need the sovereign power? People can live in peace and harmony without the need for a power?! So, man will get enough with the sociality, with the natural condition, and another power would be unnecessary, excessively redundant?!

However, for Pufendorf the possibility of evil exists. Indeed, man by nature is unpredictable as human being, creeping, camouflaged, sophisticated in behavior, whom may tend to benefit selfishly in the expense of others and sociality in general. Most of people operate through a conscience acquired by sociality, tradition or social authority. However, this is not enough to think always to think always in the right way. Than, in paranoia circumstances, fear, where the moral of natural sociality is fragile, the man must proceed to protect himself, by referring to a higher power. A power, that takes care for unencroachment of the natural condition of life and sociality. "The conclusion is, to be secure, he needs to be social; which means to join forces with others like him, and to treat them in ways that they don't' bear to have un excuse for harming him. But even to be willing to preserve and encourage the benefits " (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 62). Thus, despite the sociality achieved

excists the possibility to easily dismantle this condition. Taking the argument of Hobess, the Pufendorf sees the consolidation of natural sociality to the presence of a higher power as a union of individual forces

To this argument, the fear of death is the greater natural bad, for Hobbess as well as for Pufendorf (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 61). Exceptt fear and uncertainty, the argument that unites both authors are justification (finding) of sovereign power tat the social community even in different contexts. Hobbes starts from a naive crowd, in a natural condition, while Pufendorf's departs from sociality, where every member carries a minimum reason to cohabit.

At this point of comparison, Hobbes sees man and community as totally terrible, differently from Pufendorf's where the bad is possible in society, not everyone want to affect the state of nature (sociality). Thus, the necessity of a higher power is justified by the possibility of the evil in society and not from the total bad that Hobbes describes. Hobess saw the extinction of moral relativism (social chaos) only to the political power without socialite, while Pufendorf doesn't exclude the reason of social situation but when the situations don't get resolutation by sociality, then we can refer to a higer power. In this moment of discourse, Hobbes creates short link between natural condition (the crowd) and political power, like necessity for drastic change, but Pufendorf, considering sociality as natural condition requires continuation, consolidation of the state of nature in order to avoid violation of natural law of life and sociality as an intermediary condition in realisation of this law.

Here stands clear that the sovereign power is justified over foundamentals of natural condation, but in different contexts. Interesting is the fact that the factors that lead to the necessity of a higher power are fear and uncertainty. This makes people more reasonable, being distanced from the natural law (absolute freedom of Hobbes), and seeking the law, as a guarantee to avoid the bad condition of nature. Guarantee that is given by a higher power means that it is absolute and inviolable. However different contexts of natural condition from both authors will lead us to different absolute meanings of law.

The Social Contract; Contracted power or created power?

In terms of instability and uncertainty man tends to avoid the risk that comes from moral relativism. This means that he is looking for objectivity behavior. So, he needs harmony and clear rules for himself, but even as expectation for another. Unable to achieve this in terms of individuality, the man requires a higher power, and beyond all. The greatest power that man can have is to unite all individual powers in a single one (Hobbs, 2000, p. 53). So, the greatest power is the unity of all as one body. But how can be achieved this unity?

For both authors, this unity is achieved only through social contract. From the description of natural condition, people are conditioned to enter into agreements with each - other. Pufendorf, 2007, p. 103). But, for what contract we talk about? Hobbes and Pudendorf although are contractualist they share different views for it.

In terms of insecurity and self-defense in the natural condition, everyone understands (is made more reasonable for Hobbes) should enter into agreements with other members. Basically, Hobbes contract means a dacordnes between members of society to authorize someone, as a third party, who acts on everyone. "Contract" and "authorization" have a complementary relationship in the context of the discourse of Hobbes. The authorization is an act of will and responsibility, and the contract as such should be treated as an act of deliberate and conscious. Hence, the social agreement makes the parties responsible contractual, author of its, in contrast of natural condition where the man was totally irresponsible and all his behaviors were legitimated. From this argument, Hobbes issue as a third law the absolute duty to respect the contract, as a personal responsibility (Hobbs, 2000, p 90). Expressed in these terms, Hobbes explores the concept "person" where is talking about actions, that represent him directly, what is called a "natural person", if he represents somebody else would be called "artificial person"

(Hobbs, 2000, p. 101). Precisely here, the term "person" is in the sense of responsibility. Natural person is also the author of his actions, this makes him responsible, and the artificial person is responsible for that which is autorised.

(Contract as willful and conscious act is reached when all powers are focused to a single joint force (Hobbes, 2000, p. 109). So, the contract is an act of authorization which is expressed to the postulate of Hobbes: "…. . *I authorize and give up my right of governing myself to this man, or to this assembly of men, on this condition, that thou give up the right to him, and authorize all his actions in like manner*" (Hobbs, 2000, p. 109). The members agree not to create a Sovereign but to contract a person, where everyone delegate the power and the right to him. The authorization of the Sovereign power through social contract is not an expression of unconditional abidance, without any sort of benefit. On the contrary, the social contract is

the mediator of mutual benefit, where for Hobbes equation is; individual give up on freedom and the right, he accepts to obey a higher authority, taking as a guarantee the peace, life and safety. So, the social contract is a form of exchange, where members are willing to give up the natural right (freedom) in function of peace, by accepting a minimum interaction of freedom (Hobbes, 2000, p. 81). Renunciation of freedom, the right to do something in a contractual relationship means that the other should do the same, in the same size. Abandoning the law in this case is the passage of this right to another person (Hobbs, 2000, p. 82). "Whom that carries this person is called sovereign, and is said to have sovereign power, and everyone else is called Citizen" (Hobbs, 2000, p. 109).

So the contract is an act-agreement between all to authorize individually a person with the right of power. Thanks, this pact, the society is created as unity or as a single political body, as a power of all that is given to an artificial person (Sovereign). Creating as a single body, as a political body or united in a state (Civitas). Beyond unity, the contract in the sense of authorization is a link between members, but also an individual link, directly to the Sovereign Person, after he authorize the Sovregin to carry power and his right, whereas, the contract has to do with the agreement that all the members have to do the same. A contract like this provides conviction and avoides the right of rebellion, because after all, in personal responsibility, the individual has authorized someone to subordinate to him. This becomes more often for the fact that the greatest fear of Hobbes is anarchy and chaos.

Rebellion is an expression of this trend, which will lead us again to the poor state of nature, condition which should necessarily be avoided. For this reason, this person is powerful Leviatani with primar aim peace in society and protection of everyone. His power overcomes each special and individual power.

In a schematic way, vieupoint of Hobbes will appear as below:
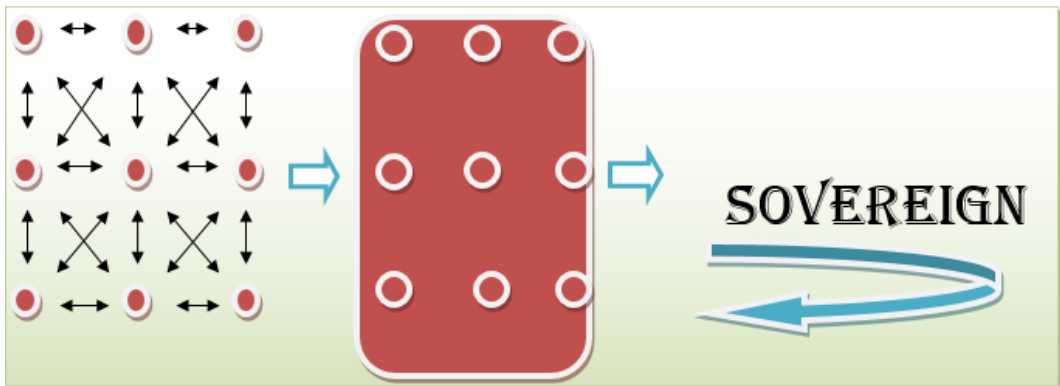
Kontrata shoqёrore (Trupi politik (Civitas) dhe individi i dalluar në të (Personi Sovran

Fig. 1

(All this sematich explanation starts from the socio – political situation (as inductive logic), going to generalization, like it is the Sovregein Person, the bearer of power of all. Sovereign government action is actually deductive logic (juridical properties), where from the personification of all on, act on whole and each in particular. Therefore, the sovereign returns over the subjects and political entities by making it sustainable fact. If we have to do the reverse way: Sovereign person on top, after spreading on the whole society and each individual (citizen) in particular. For this reason the contract is mediation in terms of conversion to natural condition in civil society and natural mankind in citizen. In a schematicall way it would appear
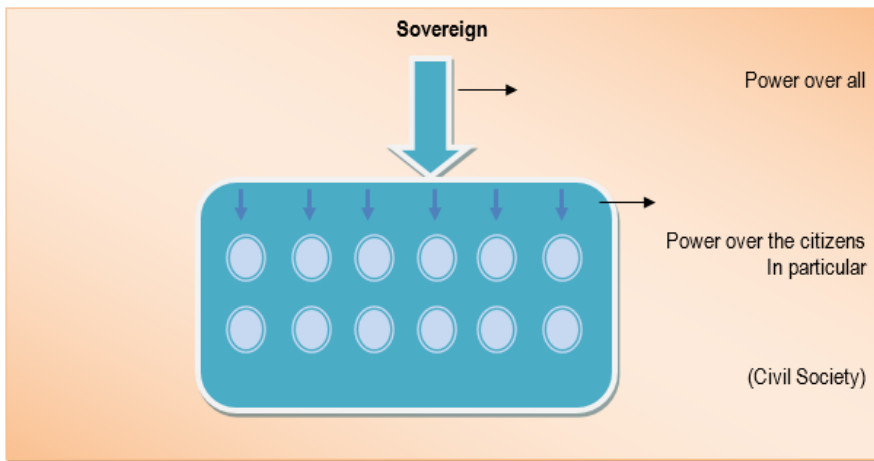
Fig. 2

Fig. 2

Even so, Pufendorf, the theory of contract sought to lead further, by seeing the viewpoint of Hobbes for the social contract as too submissive and not enough. If for Hobbes it is just a social contract, for Pufendorf as a professional jurist is needed "two agreements and a decree. . . " (Pufendorf 2007, 184). The first is the agreement of free men by nature, who gather by create a contractual relationship between each other - turning from a state of natural sociality ". . . in one sinlge union and permanent. . . with advice and common guidance; Well, they want to be co-nationals " (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 184). In contrast to Hobbes, for Pufendorf, minimum accountability in terms of natural sociality already is specified what to do and not to do. In this contract, everyone in particular, by creating the unity of the whole agree to create a new stage of society. Here is expressed between members of society to consolidate the relations between them, therefore, so to lead the natural sociality in a more organized stage. Here the society expresses as a single body. So, the initial contract consists in the agreement to create a more consolidated level of the natural sociality, emphasizing the duties, clarifies the responsibilities and hence in creation of civil society, where each member is part of the community, it is fellow citizen. Pufendorf emphasizes that power that finds its source in the voluntary union of individual forces. Even though, in a different concept from Hobbes, Pufendorf believes in a formed body, which represent the strengthest force than every other power, and this is the power of all ". . . namely the state (civitas) " (Pufendof, 2007, p. 184). Through a decree this social body as an objective unity determines the form of organization and the way of governing. Thereafter, is need another contract which determines who must be the individuals who deserve this power of the whole. From this moment, the second contract determines the nature and the profile of the person with sovereign power.

Just like Hobbes, even in the judgment of Pufendorf, the contract is an act of exchange not just material, but exchange (converter) of status, human attributes. Person accepts to give up some freedom and rights in the natural condition and in principle (theory) these to delegate the person with Sovereign Power, who cares for further consolidate natural sociality. From the deal, as we said society members commit to undertake tasks which arises now not as individuals, but as a citizen (citizen), which means obeying the created power, and from the other side in bases of exercising the power is the obligation to ensure the safety and tranquility of society, in funcrion of natural law that every single individual enjoys (Pufendorf 2007, 184).

In a schematicall way, Pufendrof viewpoint will appear in this form:
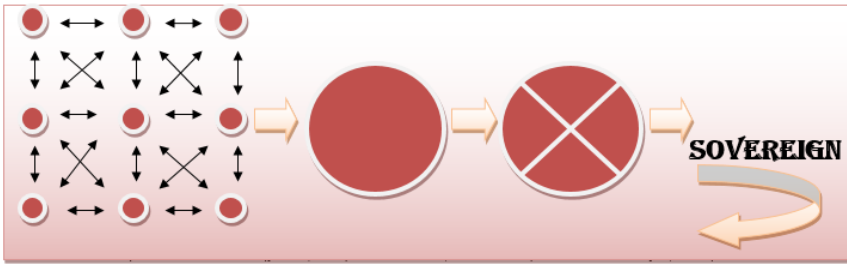
Kontrata shoqërore → (Bashkësia qytetare (Civitas) → Dekreti (Forma e Shtetit) → Kontrata e dytë (Sovrani)

Fig. 3

Reverse path is in the same view as that of Hobbes. But here remains to be evidented the difference that social body in judgment of Pufendorf's hides the individual. He mostly implied, in meltingwith the whole. According to this judgment, the sovereign and the subject lose the directly report. Mediator for the individual is the civil society where is placed in report to the Sovereign, in case when the Sovereign act over the individual the mediator is the state. At this point it seems that civil society and the state identify each - other. Schematically reverse way would be like this form:
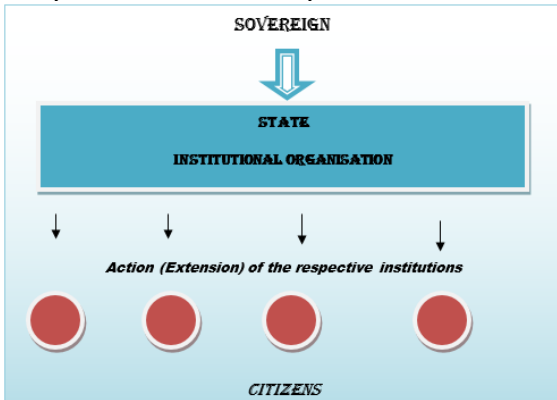

Fig. 4

Post - contract: the nature, extention and characteristics of the Sovereign

Mediator role of the contract makes possible the process of passing from the freedom or unconditional state in circumstances of absolute duties. Freedom for man after the contract is expressed more limited, as a minimum space of action (Hobbs, 2000, p. 97). Avoiding the natural condition and willpowergness (accountability) to enter in the civil society is an indication that the contract is not only intermediary, but it is untouchable, absolutely inviolable (Hobbes, 2000, p. 98). Inviolability and undifferentiabe of this contract, in the judgment of Hobbes, means that the sovereign power is absolute, untachable, unaltered. From this comparison, but even started from the meaning that Hobbes gives to the social contract, as an absolute converter, from the absolute freedom to the absolute duty we will express for a sovereign power that subdues, but in an absolute way.

Social pact means that we have determined the reference, the criteria on the actions and behavior of everyone. Now and on, the particular individual is not anymore arbiter of its actions. The sovereign in this discur is a necessary condition to society. Differently from Pufendorf he sees the politic body and the civil organization of the society with a governing power as the only meaning of the term "society". Sovereign power is the fundamental criterion of society creation. People by nature are asocial, and even don't have any inclination or desire, pleasure to live in society (Hobbs, 2000, p. 78). This criterion gives validity and regulates relations among the members. Order with Sovereign power it gives meaning even to

the politic body or creates the nature of civil society. In short, the absolutism of Hobbes sees meaning over society, the political body or civilian society as fundamentally inseparable with sovereign power.

Pufendorf concepts somehow different Hobbesian premise, where the possibility of the bad and maintenance of natural sociality will conclude through contract in a sovergein power, which absolutize only the safety and guaranty of natural law, not interested at all for forms or other actions, which doesn't violate this principle, so differently from Hobbes, where at Sovereign everything is absolutised. Perhaps here we have a tendency to express a sovereign with reduced expandation, anticipating the political liberalism with the idea of "minimal state". Pufendorf in the reason of sovereign power absolutize only the foundamentals of natural laws allowing the moral and the authentic sociality in their simplicity until unencroachment of this that makes the principle of natural law. So, Pufendrof differ the sociality from civil society (citizen), where the reason of the last makes the reason of Sovergein Power, as the above reason, the most cultivated.

Natural liberty like duty and right, in the judgment of Pufendorf is a wide concept and the reason of Sovereign power is included by this concept by referring to specific aspects, henceforth creating the other level of social organizing (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 25). Viewed from this point, the civil right unless it contradicts the natural law is within the application criteria and its applicability (similarity with Bodin). While in Hobbes, civil law must change the natural condition like a total bad, to ensure the fulfillment of human nature as an individual. In the condition of absolute freedom and absolute right in the natural condition in terms of duty, the Sovereign law. Levitani for him is an artificial body, which creates an artificial society (remember sociality is unnatural for Hobbes), with the primary aim of meeting the foundamental natural law, human survival. For this reason, the sovereign power should include the whole, therefore be absolute.

After the Social Contract, we are in a different context. Individuals are not yet a crowd as Hobbes describes, nether a natural sociality state (spontaneous) as it deems Pufendorf. Already they through contract are consolidating as a single body, as a unique political community by objecivising the force (powers) of individual at soverign person, who is personification of this unified body, So, the sovereign doesn't represent simply society, but a given concept of it, which is related to safety, the compacticy of organization. Thanks to this change, we have the passing from chaotic state or natural sociality in social society, which makes more stable human relationships to clear and strict rules. In this context, the contract and its implementation is the avoidance of the natural bad and this is a rule of reason to avoid being destroyed or selfdestroyed.

Anyway, here are showed two models of contracts. The contract of Pufendorf creates the Sovregein power, differently from Hobbes where the Sovereign is contracted. In the philosophy of Pufendorf, power is generated, created, formed by the "agreement", as a joint act, as internal community act. To Hobbes, the power of all is personified to a single individual, as a third party, by supporting the monarchy form of governance. The absolute power, inalienable that act to all, but without losing the individual connection (contract) with no one. Hobbesian contract creates a direct connection between the subject and Sovereign in a comprehensive context (public). Connection which in Pufendorf's is missing where mostly the individual delegates the right and responsibility to the community and the contracted community decides about sovereign power. How to say, the individual has indirect relationship with sovereign power. In this case, is more expressed an institutional form of Sovereign, giving the state importance as a way of extending this power. However, not clearly Pufendorf seem inclined to institutional Monarchy of governance or Republic form.

In this context, State for Pufendorf is seen as a "moral person" (Pufendorf 1964, p. 11). The double contract is not simply an act that creates individual reports between subjects and the Sovereign Person, like happens in contract of Hobbes. So, Sovereign doesn't contract, but is created based on the opinion of Pufendorf, where the community as a social body, organized politically delegates all his power to the Sovereign Person by distancing from the physic person in public person (Beaulac, 2003, p. 254). His action does not come in direct way as power of physic person over the members of society. Extension is mediated by the state, the shape of which is expressed in decree, by giving moral and public character, motivated by the creation of civic community thanks to the initial contract.

As the representative of all, the Sovereign except he wins omnipotence, he is completely free, as a separate entity, situated outside the society, but in function of it. So, he is discerned, separated and attributed virtue, quality, rights and duties that do not belong to anyone in particular. In the logic of Hobbes, it is the person who represents the society as a single body, consolidates and organizes it, even though it is not subject (member) of the society, consequently, nor subject to his power. Argument justifies the Sovereign as a higher power and absolutely unrestricted by other powers. Being, seperately entity the sovereign acquires a quite special status, which for Hobbes does not even have comparance with the individual, nor with

one part of society, not even with concrete society taken as whole. Characteristic described even by Pufendorf (Pufendorf, 2007, p. 185).

Conclusions

Invulnerability of some natural rights, fundamental like the one of life requires assurance and guarantee for the applicability of this principle, even this goes beyond the humanism expressed in the philosophy of Pufendorf. State of Nature is the premise from which initiates a conversion process (exchange) and the contract is the point of connection, intermediary moment. In this context, the contract is not only the main point of the transformation of human society from natural situation, but it is also special because it of moral character, social and political. Hence, it creates an artificial Person with legal attributes. So, the social contract is something intermediate between the socio - political act and legal convention. Just so, one can justify the other. How to say, the socio – political act in terms of post - contract is dictated by the legal rule and vice versa, the legal act is justified by socio – political pact.

The difference to both authors comes as a result of different ways in concepting of the same premsië, such as the state of nature. Hobbes concepts it as a total chaos, like a state of absolute bad, where all are characterized by ego and private interest. Therefore, the contract should make an absolute conversion from the conditions of freedom in terms of duties. In this sense, the society beyond the contract, civil society, for Hobbes is the opposite of state of nature. Society has meaning only like a civil society, which, refers to a completely absolute power, as Sovereign (King). Discussion, which Pufendorf do it differently, where natural condition, without excluding the arguments of Hobbes, is not characterized by total bad, but from the possibility of bad. Man, by nature tends towards the community with others. For this reason, the Social Contract of Pufendorf is sequel of the state of nature as a kind improvement of itself, as a kind improved. It fixes, absolutise only the laws of nature through the guarantee of power sovereign.

Hobbesian contract is one and only, which focuses on dacordness among members to authorise (delegate) their power to a third Person. So, this model contract consists in individual authorization (personal) of power to a person made in a public context, such is social contract. Pufendorf thinks differently this moment; with two contracts and one decree, where the first contract forms civic community and this community through decree proclaimed the form of government, going further with a second contract, which defines the Sovereign Person. So, at Hobbes we have direct relation between the individual and the Sovereign, and to Pufendorf individual hides through civic community. This creates the difference in the way of action of the Sovereign on citizens, where to Hobbes is in the same time on everyone and anyone in particular, but for Pufendorf the exctention of sovereign power is realized through the State, as an inclusive and public.

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Partocracy or Democracy: A Popperian Perspective of Democracy in Albania

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Abstract

"If the idea of democracy is sustainable, its implementation is uncertain, " says Cister, in order to highlight the fact that, despite efforts of different societies to consolidate their democracy, the democracy as a governance system, continues to be at risk. In this context, this research paper aims to identify, argue and analyze the level of the Albanian democracy development, which is consolidating a declined democracy system, that of partocracy. To develop this discussion, we are focused on the examination and recognition of the above two systems, which in terms of Albanian democracy, put in front of each-other, two theses in the field of political philosophy, that of Karl Popper and Mauro Calise. The comparison and recognition of these philosophical theses will guide the study of Albanian model of democracy. This discussion will go through philosophical theses, based on indicators of democracy that are: pluralism, voting system and decentralization of powers.

Keywords: partocracy, "Popperian democracy", pluralism, voting system, institutional decentralization.

Introduction

Democracy and partocracy; where does the political power lie?

When we refer to systems of governance over the past century we conclude that: ". . . democracy is known as the ideal system of government: a prominent and legitimate form, which provides a political and social structure within which people can live a happy life". Dupré, B. ; 2012, pg. 24). But for the word "democracy" there are a variety of perspectives concerning its meaning, content and conditions for its implementation. These varieties of perceptions include a conceptual plan trying to understand the meaning of democracy, as well as the efforts for its implementation through different tools.

The word "democracy" was used for the first time in Ancient Greece to materialize the social relations of the time. Democracy in Greek language means: *demos*-people, *kratos*-power, so giving power to people. This concept is quite broad and serves to characterize the forms of government, political system features and to express social relations. If we refer to the logical relation between democracy and politics, we could distinguish that democracy from this perspective, is seen as a form of organization that ensures the power of majority and esteem toward minority, by creating space for free competition of political alternatives. But in fact the word 'people' raises the discussion if the word is in singular which means forms a body or is a relative plural. According to G. Sartori, " there are six possible interpretations of the concept:

People literally mean every individual

People mean an uncertain majority, a huge number of persons

People mean lower class

People are an inseparable whole, an organic whole

People are the absolute majority

People are the majority according to the principal of absolute majority. " (Sartori, G. , 1998, fq. 14-15)

These interpretations, which carry many contradictions, give meaning to the power of people, the democracy. Contemporary theorists and philosophers rely on three basic paradigms, which are:

universality or relativity of democracy; as a system of government

democracy, a process or a condition; as governing practice

democracy, as a method or as a substance and substantial result

George Burnham writes:" If we don't take in consideration the definition of the word democracy, but the way in which the majority uses this word, we will discover that it has nothing to do with self-government". Sartori, G. , 1998, fq. 14) Democracy in this debate is related to power: the use, allocation, power control, and responsibility of those who exercise or seek to exercise it. The problem of power does not affect the right to power, but how to exercise it; the real power is on the hands of the person who exercises it. Sartori, G., 1998, fq. 20) Democratic systems generally are based on majority rules where is emphasized the transfer of power to the representatives through the electoral mechanism.

In order to give a general overview of the history of political ideas on democracy we rank some philosophers according to the criteria: How much influence should people have on the governance of their country? Among them we can mention:

Those that support the idea of a government over people: rulers have the right to use all means to maintain their power. We can mention here, Machiavelli, "all states, all powers, that have held and hold rule over men have been and are either republics or principalities. " (Machiavelli, N., 2003, pg13). He writes: "A prince should always observe the progress of his own country; his methods will always be considered honest and appreciated by all, because people of all nations are the same, they see only the appearance and the results" … (Machiavelli, N., 2003, pg. 87.) So, according to him, the prince stands over moral values when exercising his powers and can use corruption and random arrests when he judges them as necessary. The political power is guided by the belief that if you don't rule, someone else will do. Politics is a form of struggle for different power positions, from highest to the lowest ones, for the survival of the state and rulers.

Those who think that someone should govern for people: leaders must exercise all their power to make reality what they think is best for the society. Representatives of this idea were Plato, Hobbes, Locke, Marx etc. …

Those who believe in a government elected by people: people should elect their political representatives who make decisions on their behalf. As representatives of this idea we can mention Aristotle, utilitarian's, Joseph A. Schumpeter, Alexis de Toqueville etc... Joseph A. Schumpeter (1883-1950) was a supporter of representative democracy. He thought that the core of democracy was that everyone (one person- one vote) must appoint their leaders through election or rejection of the parties that appear in the election process.

In the above-mentioned platform, philosophers attribute the sovereignty to people, arguing that he has the right to establish and abolish a government, because government is, as Lincoln said, "of the people, by the people, and for the people". But today the dimensions of democracy exceed the ideological meanings and are much more pragmatic.

In this framework, we can identify other forms of democracy:

Participatory democracy: in which political engagement provides valuable knowledge and experience, a political socialization. In this kind of democracy, it is important that all the members of political parties have a meaningful contribution to the elaboration of strategies and have close cooperation with the society.

Democracy and competition: according to which the only political activity of people is to choose between elites (parties) that are in competition with each other. They will rule and probably will change in the next elections, because people do not have the capacity and knowledge to become part of the treatment of complex social problems. People are easily manipulated by idealist and populist leaders who find easy solutions. Representatives of this democracy, think that, direct democracy leads to short-term, unpredictable governance.

Democracy of discussion, its supporters admit that the core of democracy is much more than to win elections, there must be a hard work on finding the right reasons that lead to agreement and compromise. Participants in this kind of democracy should explain their views, listen to others' opinions and then decide on the best argument for the benefit of the community and society.

This is the reason why modernists see democracy as a process based on some principles, admitting that the existence of a formal process is not sufficient for achieving democratic governance. This approach creates another paradigm: democracy is a way through which the majority delegates the authority to those who want to exercise some powers (defined or limited, undefined or unlimited). Based on this delegation of authority, democracy is a set of interactive processes, in which the brake mechanism balance or coordinate, continuously or periodically, the power between executives and people. To speak about the attribution of powers, mechanisms of control and demand presupposes a choice in public institutions, which includes three branches of government: legislature, executive and judiciary.

Opinions about democracy are not always clear or identifiable. Advanced arguments are not always coherent or logical. This is obvious in the literature of political thought of the time and especially in the public debate about democracy. One of the reasons for this political and intellectual confusion comes from the fact that the word democracy is often used in different contexts belonging to three different concepts. They are:

Democracy as a process, including mechanisms, procedures and formalities from political organization to elections.

Democracy as a term or condition, that includes everything required for a given society and its political regime, including democratic processes and also democratic results.

Democracy as an output, which includes the effects of policies and practices that are accepted by the people. This result may derive from a condition or situation, and also may be the product of democratic processes.

These three concepts are not mutually excluded and are not contradictory; on the contrary, they are at the same plan. It is however important to mention that they represent three levels or three stages of democracy. "*The meaning and content of the word democracy, the difference with other systems of governance, is the right of people to take part in the management of public affairs, the legitimacy of governance and governance practices.*" (Sartori, G., 1998, pg. 22-23)

Vienna Declaration on the Human Rights affirms that "Democracy is based on the freely expressed will of the people to determine their own political, economic, social and cultural systems and their full participation in all aspects of their lives." However, to take into account these declarations in the light of cultural and socio-political experiences of the West would be a mistake. As stated by the General Secretary of the United Nations Boutros-Ghali, in his report in 1995 in the General Assembly," *democracy is not a model that should be copied, but a goal that should be achieved by all people and assimilated by all cultures. It can take many forms, according to the particular characteristics and history of each society.* "

In democratic processes, the term democratization is well known and means "state of transition" of governance which renounces undemocratic practices in favor of new forms of power separations, governance practices and responsibilities toward public. Here we can mention democracies in developing countries, which are often described as protodemocracy, with arguments that it is not known the duration of the transition stage of the system.

In order to consider a society as democratic, according to the American professor Robert A. Dahl; to organize the relationship between people and political system there must be fulfilled the following requirements:

Voting equality and freedom of speech and organization. A democratic society should be characterized by a variety of views to oppose the government even by a small group.

A variety source of information.

Free and fair elections

Free vote competition, parties must fight for voters without barriers and under the same conditions.

Impact of the elected people. Bodies elected by people must have a real influence on the governance.

Thus analysis on democracy is extended in many directions which provide a clear and broader meaning of this form of government. Although democracy is traditionally divided as direct or participatory democracy, we identify that even in this division we can find subdivisions and different meanings of the concept of people-power relationship.

On the other hand, it should be highlighted that political realities, today under the name of democracy, reveal another view of the system of governance.

We could mention here partitocracy, which according to Mauro Calise, represents a political regime in which the power has its centers in leadership of political parties and not on the bodies projected by the country's constitution. Calise, M., 1994, pg. 40- 48). Although parties, through their parliamentary groups, are constitutional bodies that have an important role in determining the policies of a country, partitocracy regime constitutes a serious degeneration of the democratic system. In these *conditions, partitocracy is the main reason for the failure of democratic system.*

It primarily affects the party system and then the state structures and the society. Partitocracy appears especially in countries with lack of rule of law institutions, particularly those that have emerged from communist totalitarian systems.

In partitocracy, the real power is centralized in the hands of political party leaderships, who define the political orientation and have the monopoly in decision making process of the country. Partitocracy imposes politics without ideas. Supporters of such regime are simply loyal and devoted to the party leadership.

In this regime, parliament function is atrophied, because in reality it is always in front of a taken decision and cannot effectively play its constitutional role as the center of the debate and decision making process.

The government exercises its power not according to a program, but under an agreement made between the political parties, where political parties determine government policy options according to "their areas of influence. " Partitocracy Cabinet cannot provide the necessary political stability; however, it could not fail because of the no-confidence motion in parliament. In partitocracy governments are defeated from within, as a result of disagreements between the coalition parties or, in specific cases, of internal conflicts within a party.

The main characteristic of partitocracy is manifested in the control of different sectors of the public administration, justice, health, education and society. Public services suffer political pressures. The main criterion for making career is not professionalism but party affiliation. Party influence does not end with state administration. As a direct result of the administration control, this influence is spread in sectors of economy, and encourages corruption, favors connections with groups involved in organized crime.

Another characteristic of partitocracy is the fact that the electorate does not feel represented in the country governance. He cannot influence the political orientation and the nature of possible coalitions. The only attribute is to distribute its votes between political parties without being able to influence his governance. Against a hopeless electorate, stand party militants who try to gather the fruits of partitocracy.

The contradiction of these regimes, which take their meaning by referring to the manner of exercising the power, allows the philosophical discussions on a new approach that of representative democracy. Can we consider a country as democratic if it provides pluralism, which carries the exercise of political power in the function of party members or the winning coalition? What is the impact of people who vote? How should be an electoral system that provides effective representativeness of people?

Karl R. Popper and a new approach to democracy.

"*Democracy was never the rule of the people, cannot be, and must not be.* " (Popper, K. 2011, pg. 95)

Karl Popper in his thoughts for political philosophy focuses on two key elements:

Theory of democracy as a system of governance

On the subject of freedom.

He represents a new approach to democracy by focusing on: its definition, mechanisms that ensure democratic governance.

It is wrong to claim that the boundaries of democracy are determined by the means of its definition. In reality, the meaning of democracy is indistinguishable from other forms of governance if we only refer to its definition. Thus, other forms of government like the aristocracy or monarchy, which differ from each other because the first is based on rule of the best, and the second on the rule of an individual; they do not give the clear idea whether they are "democratic" governances or not. A concrete example is the monarchy governance in the UK which reflects a model of the best democracies. This is because in democratic states and even other countries that have different forms of government, people do not exercise power. Popper says: "Wherever rule governments (and unfortunately the bureaucracy that is state employees, who hardly take the responsibility, or don't take the responsibility at all). " (Popper, Karl R, 2011, pg. 80)

Then raises the question, which would be the distinctive mechanism of democratic governance that differs from other forms of governance? According to Popper and also other researchers who advocate the theory of the democratic state, the distinctive mechanism of democratic governance is the organization of elections or abolishment of government. This mechanism strongly supports the exercise of voting rights. Popper's theory of democracy gives this idea through his view that: "*… it is not important who governs, as long as the government can be changed without bleeding*." (Popper, Karl R, 2011, pg. 81)

Thus a democratic system differs from a totalitarian and dictatorial system because it provides not only the right to vote but also other governance alternatives, which make it possible to maintain the rule of law. These alternatives give the possibility to replace a previous government and provide opportunities for the individual to meet his needs and requirements. On the other hand, the reactions of the government, which is subject of a test for its efficiency toward individuals, are quiet and try to reflect the electorate feedback in order to satisfy them and attract electorate from other governance alternatives. Popper expresses these ideas through the opinion that: "*Every government that we can dismiss has a strong incentive to behave in a way that people are satisfied with it. And if the government knows that people cannot get rid of it so easily, it lacks the motivation.*" *(*Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 81) (

We can raise the question: Is democracy itself a system of governance that ensures sustainable basis of morality?

Popper admits that the problems of our democracies are linked with moral issues, but at the same time he highlights that democracy problems belong to the theory of state and not only to the discussion of morality about them, as it happened in Greek antiquity where questions on governance were asked as follows:

Is this governance good or bad?

Who should rule?

Popper says that the basic questions which should exist in the principals of our democracies should refer, not to the rule and ruler, but to the government and public administration.

To argue his theory of democracy, Popper studied the issue of pluralism and proportional election system

Referring to pluralism, Popper points out these ideas:

The existence of political parties in a democratic system is essential.

This necessity is due to the fact that our governments are governments of political parties and not people's governments.

But this does not mean that there should be many political parties, the existence of two political parties can make a country more democratic than a country with many political parties.

Political parties, emerging as governing alternatives in a democratic country, provide better opportunities to choose from. But the existence of many political parties affects negatively elections and the democracy of a country. Popper admits that, *"It is the duty of a political party to form the government or critically monitor the work of government as an opposition"* *(*Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 88). According to him, "*…the idea that the large number of ideologies or views should be reflected in a large number of parties… is politically wrong." (*Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 88).

The pluralism problem becomes even more profound when a democratic state applies the proportional election system.

Referring to this system, Popper emphasizes that the problem lies in its practical applications for the formation or fail of a government. In the context of this idea he distinguishes that:

The existence of many political parties and the implementation of a proportional electoral system make it difficult to establish a government with a single ideology and its own program, because the proportional system provides opportunities to small parties to exert a major influence on the formation of a governing majority.

The same situation is created for the abolition of a government through the voting process because the ruling majority is based on pre electoral and post-election coalitions of political parties. This means that although it may happen that in other elections is asked a government collapse; through coalitions and alliances with smaller parties, it could regain a majority although this majority "may be thousands of miles away from representing "people's will*" (*Popper, Karl R. , 2011, pg. 85)

But proportional system has many other problems. A key question is that of responsibility in governance. Who bears the responsibility of political decisions, when the government emerges from elections on a proportional system? When government is created from coalitions, the responsibility of political decisions is not taken by any of the coalition parties. On the other hand, according to proportional system each party chooses its representatives based on the percentage of votes. Deputies are elected as representatives of political parties, so they are obedient soldiers to them. Popper says that the depute: "*…cannot be obliged by circumstances to vote against his party: It is the contrary, he is morally related to his party,*

as he is elected as representative of the party. And if in the long term it does not comply with his conscience, he would have probably the moral duty to resign, even when the constitution does not provide it) ". Popper, Karl R. , 2011, pg. 83)

Popper through his criticism toward proportional electoral system and pluralism gives the idea that the two-party system is more democratic, it enables:

The creation of a real majority in parliament.

Party self-criticism.

Implementation of radical reforms within the party when it loses in elections.

The real competitiveness with each other.

The improvement of political parties in function of the real representation of the people.

But the basis of democratic governments is referring to freedom and its limits. According to Popper *"An excess of power leads to robbery. But it also exists an excess of freedom. And unfortunately there is a misuse of freedom…"* (Popper, Karl R., 2011, pg. 103). Thus Popper develops four freedom theses:

Western democracies offer the best possible political systems, but institutions always need to be criticized, referring to freedom and its limits.

Democracy and freedom provide the impact of our personal ability and knowledge on the welfare of the state.

Political freedom is a freedom that represents a final value and for this reason we are not allowed to choose it.

Faith in freedom and democracy does not always provide victory, but it also leads to world disasters and degeneration to terrorism.

Through reflection on postmodern political philosophy, now let's focus on Albania and its democracy during the post-communist period. Are we dealing with democracy as a developing process or partitocracy regime?

Albanian democracy, pluralism and proportional electoral system

Frederic Mayor when referring to democracy, points out that democracy is practice. Although based on the values that can be transmitted, *the mode of action is essential. We reflect by implementing; we give legitimacy by acting.*

In this context, the forms of democracy in Central and Eastern Europe are presented by different researchers in the form of a *procedural democracy*, which is based on a system of free elections, fair and honest that ensure civil liberties; or *substantive democracy*, which provides a continuous process of reproduction of regulations and relationships between government and society and its influence on governance. While the Albanian democracy is described as a protodemocracy, according to Daniel Nelson it represents, "*Political systems in which there is a parliament, political parties and elections, as well as vestiges of representative government, like free and fair elections, fair judicial procedure, transparency of public discussion through independent media and other democratic principles. At the same time these are systems in which public attitudes do not reflect the norms of equal opportunities, tolerance or public accountability that citizens expect to be implemented in democracy. " (Biberaj, E. , 2011, pg. 26)*

The representative system of Albanian democracy is still in transition, not only in establishing the system but also in its function. A picture of achievements of Albanian democracy is presented by Freedom House for the period 2007-2016, by ranking the indicators from the minimal level 0 (zero) to the maximum level 7 (seven). These indicators have pointed out that democracy development indicators in Albania remained unchanged and the level of democracy, according to this report is estimated worse than it was in 2007.

Nations in Transit Ratings and Averaged Scores

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
National Democratic Governance	4.25	4.25	4.25	4.50	4.75	4.75	5.00	4.75	4.50	4.50
Electoral Process	4.00	4.00	3.75	3.75	4.00	4.25	4.25	4.00	4.00	3.75
Civil Society	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Independent Media	3.75	3.75	3.75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.25
Local Democratic Governance	2.75	2.75	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.25	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50
Judicial Framework and Independence	4.00	4.00	4.25	4.25	4.25	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.75	4.75
Corruption	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.25	5.25	5.25	5.25
Democracy Score	3.82	3.82	3.82	3.93	4.04	4.14	4.25	4.18	4.14	4.14

Source: This table contains statistical data taken from the Freedom House report about the indicators of democratic development in Albania during 2007-2016.

Let's stop now, mainly on the analysis of two factors related to each other inevitably, and in the meaning of democracy as practice they are key indicators; as they are also main transformation indicators of these systems in different regimes of democracy: *pluralism* and *electoral system*. These indicators remain essential in the analysis of control and exercise of political power. Based on political and historical findings, our system is like the Italian party system. It is characterized by a stable form of multi-party system, founded on unstable political equilibrium. Its visible shortcomings are: lack of governing alternative, limitation of voter representation, instability of governments. On the other hand, the adoption of a proportional electoral law has produced a pluralist system characterized by *multiplication of extreme poles* and *centrifugal competition of political parties*, which stimulates the existence of a large number of parties and united poles in a broad ideological distance, which lead to lack of representation, government instability and inefficiency. The *centripetal competition* identifies a limited number of parties, which reduce ideological distance and favors representation, and political stability of governments.

The issue of pluralism in Albania, although sanctioned in the Article 9 of the Albanian Constitution, points out many polemics which are oriented in:

The existence of duopoly, as governance alternative. There are about 114 registered political parties, but in fact there are only two, the rest are unknown parties, described by some scholars as "ghost party".

Lack of concepts that refer to the identity of political parties and governing coalitions. The undefined features of political parties in government, sacrificing their identity, is a consequence of the development of Albanian society and the increasing demands toward political representatives and realization of democratic principles; but also the impact of international European forces and global politics. It should be emphasized that they do not choose a physiognomy in a pragmatic way. Indicating that "*it is more difficult to exercise than to take the power*" (Baladyr, E. 2007, p. 25), the idealistic programs become democratic and non-democratic platforms.

Lack of a strategic reformist vision. What confuses the issue of real representation of the people through political parties is the creation of electoral coalitions, which are defined in the Article 65, paragraph 1 and 2 of the current Electoral Code. This electoral code does not exclude the *possibility of creating coalitions among parties with different programs*. Problems become even more acute when the number of deputies from coalitions of the biggest political parties is equal; here appears a "small party", which holds the number of deputies that would give the majority to a coalition. History has shown that post-election alliances, in order to gain the majority in parliament, have provided *links between parties with different identities.* And of course the problem of representation confuses the division between position and opposition who try to take majority and lose their identity within the alliance.

We can affirm that fragmentation, which has influenced the electoral extension and the growing number of political parties, has brought crisis of political parties and their mediation function by transforming radically the Albanian context, *in particular the relationship between society and public institutions*. Rousseau thought that representative systems are not really democratic because "*people are free only once every few years at election time; then they return to their previous position of submission to the rules, this is not better than slavery* " (Beetham, D. ; Boyle, K. 1995, pg. 7). From the ideological point of view, Albanian political system is a state of law. But if we refer to the analysis of institutional relations, the legal aspect doesn't lead these relationships or keeps the balance between the political parties. Partisanship appears in the creation and function of institutions after every electoral process, which makes people distrustful toward institutions with new staff. About this issue Rexhep Qosja said in 1997 that: *"Even today like yesterday the partisanship could lead you forward, when you deserve it or not. . . it can make you rich, but this partisanship can draw you out of work and leave without any living conditions, "* (Qosja, R. , 1997, fq. 64)

The scholar Artan Fuga expressed a moderate view in 2008, when stated that:

 "… these institutions have two levels: first, European, Western, based in law, and an expression of the general will, and the second a simple substrate of relations between parties, which is closely linked with the local Albanian context, with the tradition of overlapping powerful social actors, in this case of parties before the law" (Fuga, A. , 2008, pg. 87). Thus we get an overview of the situation where law and institutions are seen as formal aspects of democracy, and on the other hand on the bases of this democracy is reflected an institutional function, focused on party militancy.

Subsequently, the representative of the Socialist Party, Gramos Ruçi, on a TV program entitled "Debate" in April 6, 2012 declared that " Today institutions are ruined", and at the same view was Prof. Lisien Bashshkurti, who highlighted a denatured crisis which came as a result of the financial crisis that was nothing else but the crisis in education and culture and the collapse of public administration. Institutions that have reflected such problems and have doubted the decentralization of powers such as media, General Prosecutor, the President, the Electoral College, Judicial power at all levels, public administration, but also civil society actors, reflect their lack of consolidation as a result of destabilizing processes under the influence of the ruling party, this according to the Freedom House report (Table 1). This contestation, for Albanian constitutionalists, in the context of justice reform, and the law of Veting, appears in the light of the lack of decentralization of powers, as the legislative and executive powers are hold by the same people. According to them there is an open struggle between the judiciary and the other two powers that have under control all public institutions.

On the other hand, sanctioning of a proportional electoral system is characterized by the emergence of problems about political power and that of representation of the people, this places Albanian democracy in a continuous transition. The proportional system is based on the principle according to which seats in parliament are divided in proportion with votes of political parties. In this way, Parliament is a kind of political mirror representing different political directions. Every minority and every political direction is well represented in parliament. The proportional system of elections makes it possible the establishment of new parties, because for their representation in parliament they need to win only a vote in each constituency, as they are calculated together, for example if a new party win one percent of the votes it gives the possibility to have some seats in parliament. The attraction for establishing new parties brings new elements and encourages ramification of parties and of other groups of interest. For this reason, the proportional election system often creates a parliament divided in many parliamentary groups, from which emerge *unstable coalition governments with weaknesses in leadership and crises*. On the other hand, on a proportional system candidates for deputy are determined in local or regional conventions, not by local party committees, which give greater influence to party leaders. This makes voters not to elect the respective candidate, but must vote for the list of relevant parties, within which candidates are ranked according to a certain row.

For this purpose, Judith Hoffman wrote that: *"…Albania had and still has problems on holding elections according to international standards-despite the great support of the international community and continuously growing requirements in accordance with international standards of EU, OSCE and others. Although the development of fair elections is an essential criterion of a consolidated democracy, electoral reform is one of the most competitive and disputed part of political system in Albania. I'm afraid to say that in this respect, the Albanian democracy is a "zero sum game" and yet operates according to a logic that "the winner takes it all", which prevents decisive steps to change"* (Institute of International Studies, 2011, pg. 18)

Data on the development and consolidation of regional proportional electoral system in Albania, in the organization of elections, the implementation of election campaigns, and post-election political coalitions are identified clearly in the OSCE ODIHR reports. If we refer to the elections of June 23, 2013 we will identify that repeatedly as in the elections of 2009, appear these problems:

An atmosphere of mistrust between the two main political parties, which violated the electoral climate and created problems in the management of the electoral process.

Although the Electoral Code was amended extensively in July 2012, which improved in general the electoral framework taking into account a number of previous recommendations of OSCE / ODIHR and the Commission for Democracy through Law of the Council of Europe (Venice Commission), public confidence in the electoral process was harmed, because not all stakeholders fully implemented some important aspects.

In the absence of a decision taken by the Central Election Commission (CEC) for determining the number of deputies in four election districts, the previous Parliament decision on this matter influenced the principle of a correct process and equality of vote, due to the use of old statistics of population.

The impression that CEC acted politically, was reinforced by its decision to change the composition of election commissions at lower levels by replacing all the members of 89 Commissions of Electoral Administration Areas (CEAA) appointed by the second greatest opposition party and this decision lacked a legal argument.

In general, there was confidence in the quality of voter lists, with some concerns expressed mainly by smaller political parties, although 139 mayors and head of communes were fined for not fully performing their duties to inform the CEC about the number of voters and locations.

A variety of activities were accompanied by official government advertising campaign of the ruling party, by diminishing the boundaries between public institutions and party interests, and not respecting the paragraph 5. 4 of the Copenhagen Document of the OSCE in 1990.

The pressure on public sector employees to campaign or to vote in a certain way as well as politically motivated dismissals stained the campaign. Accusations of vote buying were intensified with the approach of Election Day, and the police made several arrests.

Political parties could finance their election campaigns with contributions from public funds, private donations and loans, while independent candidates were not entitled to benefit from public funds. But the legal framework does not provide sufficient transparency about campaign finance reporting, since it is not obligatory to make known the funding before Election Day.

Audiovisual media generally offered enough time to major political parties, by creating the opportunity to inform voters about the main political attitudes. However, editorial independence was hampered by political influence. The CEC adopted a controversial decision that meant establishing an obligation to the media to broadcast materials prepared by electoral subjects, which would violate editorial freedom. The public broadcaster provided to the biggest parties the same time in news, but had a more positive tone against the ruling party. Media monitored by EOM and OSCE / ODIHR did not fulfill their obligations to provide to smaller parties specified amount of coverage in news and exceeded the limit of paid political advertising for the two major parties. The delayed creation of Media Monitoring Board and the lack of collegiality reduced its effectiveness. CEC does not effectively enforce legal regulations concerning the media.

Women candidates had low media coverage reflecting the issue of women's participation in political life. Gender quota obligation was not fulfilled by the DP, SP and the Socialist Movement for Integration (LSI) in a number of constituencies, which led to the imposition of fines, but nevertheless the candidate lists were approved. While political parties fulfilled the legal obligation to allocate at least 30 percent of each gender in the composition of CEAZ, observers noted that the women presence in Voting Center Commissions was 14 percent.

Electoral actors didn't have the effective juridical tools for resolving complaints about the election. In key cases, legal authorities refused to investigate and analyze complaints or exceeded their powers. In some cases, the Electoral College took administrative responsibilities and discretionary powers of the CEC. Electoral contestants rarely used the available

mechanisms for solving their disagreements, due to their mistrust in the legal system and the fear of political deals. Voters and civil society groups were not legitimized to complain about the administrative decisions of electoral commissions.

Cases of family/group voting and application in different ways of some procedures affected negatively the overall assessment of the voting process.

The counting process was delayed in many BCC because of disorganization, including here the delayed nomination of vote counters and obstacles created by some vote counters proposed by the ruling party.

The presence of observers from civil society and party observers throughout the Election Day generally increased the transparency, although in some cases party observers interfered in voting or counting process.

The CEC received 40 complaints that did not accept the results of a number of constituencies, most of them pretending that political opponents took votes during counting process. Although the CEC with its reduced composition should not take into consideration complaints against the results, in practice it exercised this legal competence. While complaints presented by small parties were refused regularly, the CEC accepted and reviewed complaints introduced by major parties against the results in three regions (Lezha, Shkodra and Kukes), where the leading candidates had a small difference between them.

From the above analysis, the documented facts and reflections about them, we can conclude that the effort to consolidate the Albanian democracy is an effort that seems to put at the center Poppers theory of democracy; but it reflects the views of Caluse theory on partitocracy regimes.

It is clearly reflected in the fact that pluralism in Albania doesn't bring changes in the political aspect of democracy as a system that offers alternative choices between different political parties; but a governing duopoly that exercises its political power. Rotation characteristics didn't bring optional alternative between political parties, but ruling coalition where political parties lose their ideological identity, and didn't find similarity or common features in their programs.

In the interest of political parties are organized and function public administration and institutions. The selective criteria of employment in these institutions is not professionalism but political affiliation; a criteria that is supported and protected by militancy.

On the other hand, this kind of political and institutional pluralism was favored by proportional electoral system. The lack of elected candidates directly by people brought the leaderships of political parties to elaborate the lists of those who will be included in the election electoral system and will exercise political power. De jure this is a popperian method of establishing a representative democracy, but de facto this is a method that implies the exercise of power by the political hierarchy even within political parties, which aim to control the people, will through their representatives.

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European Monetary Measures to Support Economic Recovery

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Abstract

The present article aims to look at the current monetary measures deployed by ECB to address the economic context of below expectations economic growth and inflation, taking into account the expression of monetary policy via the Expanded Asset Purchase Programme. This tool is used to push financial liquidity into the economies of the European Union, in a banking system affected by the crisis and which has been shown to be still at risk by the latest stress tests conducted by the European Banking Authority. The article points out why monetary measures are important to support the economic recovery in Europe, in an interventional context of monetary and fiscal policies of governing authorities, appealing to economic models to explain how the policies contribute to economic growth and development. The methodology used by the article is economic analysis and rationale, cost-benefit analysis, statistics of money market and banking industry indicators, etc. The conclusion emerging from this article is that the Asset Purchase Programme of ECB led in a certain degree to an improvement in the macro-economic environment on yields and on its transmission channels into the financial system and into economies.

Keywords: Debt, Expanded Asset Purchase Programme, Inflation, Interest Rate, Monetary Measures, Quantitative Easing.

JEL Codes: E44, E51, E52, E58, G12

Introduction

In the present state of the European economies facing unemployment and slow GDP growth, in an environment of close to zero or negative interest rates (e. g. EURIBOR[1] or EUR key reference rate[2]), the preference for liquidity is high. This liquidity should translate into investments that generate positive returns that lead to a raise in GDP (economic growth) and translates into wages increase and job creation as part of economic development (economic development seen in the welfare of a society).

The main mission of European Central Bank (ECB) is to control inflation by maintaining the stability of prices[3] via a wide range of monetary measures. The prices are the transfer mechanism of money in exchange for property or ownership of goods and services. When prices are stable, they favour equitable redistribution of wealth. A deflation in EU is impacting distribution of monetary resources. Negative interest rates erode capital and sever the incentive for saving.

ECB implemented the monetary measure called "Expanded Asset Purchase Programme"[4] as a Quantitative Easing mechanism to increase the monetary mass to release liquidity to national banks and in the end to commercial and retail banks, in order to finance business. The monetary mass should be relative to favouring inflation around 2%. Today, the threat is called deflation (falling prices leading to decreasing inflation below 2% and into negative territory). Deflation means that merchandise is cheaper and the turnovers of companies decrease (quantity sold multiplied by falling prices).

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[1] http://www.euribor-rates.eu/

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[3] ECB: Our role - "Our main aim is to maintain price stability, i.e. to safeguard the value of the euro. Price stability is essential for economic growth and job creation – two of the European Union's objectives – and it represents the most important contribution monetary policy can make in that area." (http://www.ecb.europa.eu/ecb/tasks/html/index.en.html)

[4] https://www.ecb.europa.eu/mopo/implement/omt/html/index.en.html

Companies will produce less and will adjust costs and people will cut consumption and push further the pressure on companies.

It is a related spiral between the phases of economic cycles, the abundance or scarcity of money and the reflection in price of money (interest rate) with a direct consequence on returns (yields) and job creation or contraction in an open economy. When money (priced at low interest rates) floods the economy, a part is transferred into investments (job creation) and a part in consumption (that gets back to companies via the turnovers, into profits and expansion). When investments turn unprofitable (errors in value assessment or in appraisal of fair market value) in an economy, the loss is always expressed in financial denomination. Consequently, scarcity of money affects jobs, consumption and turnovers decrease, leading to the contraction of economic activities. That is why, in the present economic context, EU needs to deploy the set of instruments to direct the financial flows of money, due to the following reasons: an imperfect monetary union; no fiscal union and governments failed to keep fiscal deficit below 3%, the structural fiscal deficit below 0. 5% or for some industries 1% and public debt below 60% (in EA19, the public debt is above 90% - see Eurostat, June 2016)[1].

To support the economic recovery, in Keynesian philosophy, in economic downturn any central bank should print money and distribute cheaply in the economy to boost consumption (demand side measures) and to trigger an increase in employment (supply side measures), since unemployment is a structural problem of the economy, that can only be addressed on long run[2] (Jahan, Mahmud and Papageorgiou, 2014).

In this article I appeal to J. M. Keynes' macroeconomic theory[3] (expressed in various macro-economic models) to explain why the European Central Bank[4] targets access to money "at any cost" to boost economic development by monetary measures. In Hicks-Hansen model of an open economy, there is a direct relation between "Investments" and "Savings" (IS) and "Labour" and "Money" (LM) as liquidity preference under free trade and resource optimization reflected in the Balance of Payments (BoP) which stands for the allocation of flows of money. Because IS-LM model took into account only a closed economy (autarky), Mundell – Flemming model explains why in an open economy the monetary policies are not independent but correlated. Managing economic development by fiscal policy (taxes) and monetary policy (interest rate and foreign exchange rate), one cannot have fixed exchange rates, free capital movement (transfer of efficiency by price of money – interest rate and taxation) and uncorrelated decision for monetary policies (the case of EU28, EA19 where currencies fluctuate in range to EUR, interest rates follow EUR reference rate and fiscal policies are independent but guided by 2 significant benchmarks – public debt and fiscal deficit).

Investments and savings are a part of income, translated into money as mean of economic growth. The intersection of IS and LM graphic lines shows the equilibrium and what policies should be approached to boost Real Gross Domestic Product. Liquidity under this model and the quantity of money should be seen taking in account the preference for liquidity under economic uncertainties. By increasing government spending (when financial markets are imperfectly functional) a country can spend more than what it can produce (Keynes, 1936). This can be achieved by assuming a budget deficit (short term debt) or by taking loans from private and public lenders on long term (public debt)[5]. The fiscal and monetary policies are complementary one to the other. When the government spends, the national bank should control the quantity of money and inflation. When interest rates are low and inflation is controlled (cheap price of investments), the fiscal authorities should adopt an anti-cyclical approach: collect taxes and make reserves for future spending (control of public debt and fiscal deficit).

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[1] http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Government_finance_statistics_-_quarterly_data

[2] http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/fandd/2014/09/basics.htm

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[4] ECB launched in 2012 the Outright Monetary Tranzactions (http://www.ecb.europa.eu/press/pr/date/2012/html/pr120906_1.en.html). Mario Draghi, president of ECB, gave "whatever it takes" speech in 2012 (https://www.ecb.europa.eu/press/key/date/2012/html/sp120726.en.html) and announced in June 2014 the start of Asset Purchase Programme (https://www.ecb.europa.eu/press/key/date/2014/html/sp140911_1.en.html) and in 2015 expanded it (https://www.ecb.europa.eu/press/pr/date/2015/html/pr150122_1.en.html)

[5] J.M. Keynes: *"On the other hand, a decline in income due to a decline in the level of employment, if it goes far, may even cause consumption to exceed income not only by some individuals and institutions using up the financial reserves which they have accumulated in better times, but also by the government, which will be liable, willingly or unwillingly, to run into a budgetary deficit or will provide unemployment relief"* page 53

Across EU, there is a need for better managing the consequences of 2008 crisis. The European System of Central Banks (ESCB) implemented strategies to sustain financial actions, so that financial investments should create new jobs, being the easy way for central banks to distribute new money to markets, at low interest rates, raising inflation and consumption.

In a study paper[1] (ECB, August 2016), it is found that the negatively correlated "production" and "unemployment" duo can be a reliable indicator of the trend phase in which the economy is and macroeconomic data is showing the efficiency of monetary measures taken. The unusual money market measures represent a financial disruption of normal financial conditions, influencing directly the labour market (demand side impact), pushing upwards the capital markets (supply side impact).

Today, due to "expanded asset purchase programme" mechanism in place from ECB, liquidity is flooding the money markets, in Euro Area directly and all across EU indirectly. The effect is that this excess of liquidity, instead of translating into investments, mainly stayed in the money market system as cash, driving the price of money, i. e. interest rates to zero levels or below zero levels ("money for free"?), leading to deflation or low levels of inflation ("crawling inflation"). When prices of goods go down and money lose value, the turnover of companies decrease and, in spite of low cost of investments, profits decline or turn into actual loss. When this paradox persists (no satisfactory growth, despite access to liquidity), companies adjust to the "new normal" conditions (falling prices, excess liquidity, low cost of capital and new technologies) by restructuring activities, consumption is reduced and prices go down further, leading to another cycle. To break this chain, ECB aims at turning liquidity from QE mechanism into working capital loans for companies. The flow gets bottle-necked at commercial banks level that have the skills, tools and incentive to take on lending risks in their balance sheet, provided that they comply with capital requirements and non-performing loans ratios in conjunction with risk-weighted assets.

The banking system in European Union recovered partially and differently from the financial crisis and the need for restructuring is also present in the banking sector (commercial banks, the ones who should support and be the backbone of economic recovery, are also announcing recession: Deutsche Bank[2], ING Bank[3], Unicredit[4] and Monte dei Paschi di Sienna[5], etc.). The European Banking Authority recently released the results of the stress test[6] conducted in 2016, analysing 51 banks and covering 15 EU and EEA countries holding approximately 70% of banks' assets. Even if the purpose is to provide an image of how banks would perform in dire financial conditions, not having a reference level below/above which to refer to banks as losers/winners, the outcome is that there is a number of banks, some with systemic regional influence that need to improve Core Equity Tier 1 capital (CET1 as per the regulations issued by Bank for International Settlements / Basel Committee on Banking Supervision[7] in the agreements of Basel II in place today and Basel III[8] currently with transitory gradual calendar of implementation and final deadline of implementation March 2019). Starting from 2015, the banks should keep a minimum ratio CET1 per Risk Weighted Assets of 4. 5%. In EU, this is transposed in legislation[9], by Capital Requirements Regulation[10] (CRR – EU Regulation 575/2013) and Capital Requirements Directive[11] (CRD 4 - Directive 2013/36/EU), along with Bank Recovery and Resolution Directive (BRRD - DIRECTIVE 2014/59/EU) and Deposit Guarantee Schemes Directive (DGSD - DIRECTIVE 2014/49/EU). In order to strengthen the financial environment, the Single Rulebook[12] unites all 4 documents for a "resilient, transparent and efficient banking sector".

The Expanded Asset Purchase Programme set up by the European Central Bank for private and public sectors securities provides liquidity on the financial markets through the money market. However, ECB cannot simply "print" money, it needs to sell the asset called "money" and buy other assets (third covered bonds, asset-backed securities, public sector securities

1 https://www.ecb.europa.eu/pub/pdf/scpops/ecbop175.en.pdf?b0080484af75491e40010fc129b53967

2 http://www.reuters.com/article/us-germany-deutsche-bank-jobs-idUSKBN12E16T

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9 http://www.eba.europa.eu/regulation-and-policy/implementing-basel-iii-europe

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11 http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX:32013L0036

12 http://www.eba.europa.eu/regulation-and-policy/single-rulebook

and private sector securities – usually bonds), as an exchange: ECB pays the price in cash for the tradable assets (debt and capital instruments, as well as derivatives). The average value of monthly purchases by ECB is around EUR 80 billion[1], targeting also the long term refinancing operations and what is actually does is to de-stress the leveraged countries (mainly buying sovereign debt, partly to give time and liquidity to make structural economic adjustments to finance investments through the financial sector and create new jobs). The effect of the programme[2] is "the removal of duration risk and the relaxation of leverage constraints for financial intermediaries" (ECB, September 2016). Currently, the total purchase is EUR 1306 billion out of which, the public sector purchase represents 81% (ECB, October 2016).

Concluding, ECB's QE should be effective to combat economic downturn. Since launching in 2015, almost 2 years passing it is a too-short timeframe to tell. ECB released in September 2016 an "early assessment", looking on the monetary mechanism of transmission and how it works delivering the necessary liquidity to financial markets. What it does not cover is the second part, from financial private institutions, further to companies and the third chain, to employees. This points out that some improvement in the macroeconomic environment can be seen: the effects of the European Central Bank's expanded asset purchase programme on yields and on the macro-economy and sheds some light on its transmission channels. It shows that the programme has significantly and persistently reduced sovereign yields on long-term bonds and raised the share prices of banks that held more sovereign bonds in their portfolios (ECB, August 2016).

NOTES

The purpose of this article is to analyse public data and information. All this information is available from public sources in a complete form and according to specified methodology and can be accessed and seen in the sources indicated for reference. Therefore, it is not in the scope of the article to reproduce tables and charts, but to use the relevant data to answer to questions about causes, effects, time, impacts, costs, responsibilities, actions, benefits.

This article focuses on a very specific subject and takes into account a dual approach (financial and economic). Being a broad topic, it needs future observation, analysis and in-depth survey on all coordinates. It remains open for further development.

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Analytical Hierarchy Process as a Decision-Making Model

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Abstract

When the problems we face are complex and affect each other, then the decision making process is more difficult. In most cases we apply established policies or choices without knowing which the best choice is. To make appropriate decisions that can solve the problems encountered should be analyzed very well the reasons that create problems and their reciprocal influence. AHP helps the decision of the people who will decide the problem by taking a hierarchical structure evaluation, opinions, experiences and all information about this problem. This flexible structure enables analytical feelings and instincts to organize and align with a shape that resembles human logic. Thus this analytical flexible structure, allowing to adjust the paper instead of the mind, gives people the opportunity to intervene in the most difficult problems and complex.

Keywords: decision-making, analytical hierarchy process, model

Introduction

The process of hierarchical analysis (AHP-Analytic Hierarchy Process) fell for the first time as an idea in 1968 by Mazers and Alpert, and in 1977 by Saaty was processed and turned into a model that can be used for decision making solving problems (Kaan Yaralıoğlu, 2006). AHP enables forecasting and decision-making by creating a hierarchical flexible structure about the problem that will be decided. The method is based on comparisons made by the importance of the twin values of these elements or elements that influence decision-making. The comparison is done using a previously defined table on the hierarchical structure formed about a problem.

Research methods

Banks or various institutions have a constant need for decision-makings. This need for decision-makings in most cases is immediate and in most others is also a *fast end solution* in decision. The accuracy of decision making is as much important as the speed of decision making. In this article is expressed the synthesis of a number of articles and studies on ways of decision making. Therefore it has reached the conclusion that the process of hierarchical analysis is a method which not only provides rapid feedback but also a method of easily usable by many levels of non-high qualified staff.

Methodology

The process of hierarchical analysis model is easily usable, highly flexible due to social and economic behavior changes and quite quick in decision-making. Creation of this model is quite easy and goes through stages aggravated and evaluative which mimic human logic and coherent based on estimates. The core of this model is the use of the matrix which is based on comparing two levels starting from basic to higher levels. Explaining the scheme used in this model and tracking model levels is essential for the final decision of this model.

Creating hierarchies

Created hierarchies can be both structural and functional types. Structural hierarchies are formed as a result of the process of deciding upon the class of elements, placing the highest level to the lowest, considering features such as age, color, size, elements that are inside the structure. Hierarchical structures mimic the human brain solving problems systemically while facing them.

While functional hierarchies are created by dividing complex system into smaller parts and simple, given the links under each - other. These elements are related to the problem generally fall under the criteria defined class, they are divided

according to the levels of the most intricate to the most lowly. Generally element that lies at the highest level is called "points of focus" (SAATY, 2000).

Proximity to the truth of solutions with AHP method

Four conditions must be met that the solutions offered to solve the problem by AHP method be closer to the truth. These terms are reciprocity, homogenization, logical and continuity of the union (SAATY, 1994).

Reciprocity

As the need of the matrix twain comparison structure, comparison of elements w_i and w_j is done twice. At first it evaluates how many times the element w_i is important by element w_j then evaluate how much more the element w_i is important by element w_j. Because comparison of two elements made in the same period of time, naturally follows that if a component for example is twice more important than item b then it is indisputable that the item b is ½ times more important than the item's a.

$$a_{ij} = \frac{1}{a_{ji}} = \left(a_{ji}\right)^{-1}$$

Homogeneity condition

Homogeneous elements belonging to a particular class should be grouped together. So comparisons can be made between homogeneous elements and most importantly indicative table can be used to set numerical rating from 1 to 9. For example, it is illogical to compare the size between basketball ball and sun so that it is impossible to use indicative table of numbers used from 1 to 9. Since all the elements included in two comparisons, higher limit and lower limit (K) reads:

$$\frac{1}{K} \leq a_{ij} \leq K \quad , \qquad K > 0 \ (i, j = 1..n)$$

In twain comparison matrix being that we will always assess digit largest and smallest for any matrix we have a constant (K).

Near consistency

As indicated above, the homogeneity of the elements to be included in the twain comparing influences the consistency of the matrix. On the other hand because the matrix is the result of a certain rating, it expresses the implemented opinion or the consistency of present residence. Calculating the consistency of evaluation of elements that are part of the established hierarchical structure shows how close to the truth is the evaluation. As expressed above conditions required that a matrix be consistent are shown below:

$$a_{ik} = a_{ij} \cdot a_{jk}, \qquad a_{ij} = \frac{1}{a_{ji}}$$

($W_i = 2W_j$) dhe ($W_j = 3W_k$) atëherë ($W_i = 6W_k$)

The possibility of being all in a matrix is very small. But when we make an assessment taking into account all these it may come to a close matrix that is fully consistent matrix. Variance of matrix should not exceed 10% (generally accepted 5% for n = 3 and 8 % for n = 4, for n $\geq$5 %10) (SAATY, 1994).

Uniform Continuity

Twain comparing matrix W_i (i = 1, 2 ... n), as a function of a_{ij} must be sensitive to small changes in a_{ij} so that the proportional value of W_i / W_j, produce good forecasts versus a_{ij}. Namely whether in the hierarchy formed in a matrix derived from no consistency and this condition is caused due to wrong assessment, to enable the consistency of the matrix the error in the assessment must be found and repair. These repairs are effective when W_i is sensitive to small changes in a_{ij}.

Functioning of Analytic Hierarchy Process

Analytical Hierarchy Process is a decision-making process. This process consists of three stages, during the formation of the hierarchy, the calculation of the final consistency and evaluation of results. These steps will be explained below in a row.

The formation of the hierarchy

Analytic hierarchy process mimics the analytical thinking way of the human. To get a healthy decision problems are evaluated by dividing into smaller parts. This fragmentation process continues until the causes of the problem is clarified. From here we understand that the complexity of the problem and the level of details affect in the classification and separation of levels of hierarchy for the decision to be taken (Zahedi F., 1986).

AHP method starts with selection of options and criteria that will make up the hierarchy of decision making about the problem we have in focus (Steiguer, 2003). Once the problem is identified, the desired decisions taken in connection with this problem are defined and these decisions are accepted as objectives. The target set at the highest peak of the hierarchy and then all of the elements belonging to the problem shared by level of importance and homogenization are conditioned by a level criteria specified above (Steiguer, 2003).

Formation of the twain comparison matrices

While using AHP method for the problems, to determine the approximate importance of the criteria and sub-criteria after the formation of hierarchical model, we must create twain comparison matrices (Sipahi S, 2002). The importance value of elements while twain comparing is defined according to the above level criteria.

Comparison matrix between elements is a square matrix of dimension n x n. The values at diagonal of the matrix take the value 1 by the matrix components. The comparison matrix is shown below.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Components on the diagonal of comparative matrix take the 1 (one) value because $i = j$. In this case the question item compared with itself. Comparison of elements become one by one taking in advance the level of importance of each of them.

All comparisons are made to the values remain above the diagonal that has the values 1 in the comparative matrix. To remain components which are below the diagonal that would normally be sufficient to use formula number 1.

$$a_{ji} = \frac{1}{a_{ij}} \qquad\qquad (1)$$

Determination of the priority values in comparison doubles

Twain comparing generally is a natural process of matching elements which are placed according to criteria based on people's preferences and can be explained by the sensitivity, order of importance or their consent (Saaty, 2001). Comparative Matrix shows elements within a certain logic by level of importance. So double values in the matrix comparisons show the gravity value for each element priority, using mathematical manipulations. But for all relevance within elements, namely to determine the distribution of importance in percentage, use the columns of vectors generated in the comparative matrix. So to determine all relevance criteria column vector formed with the number n b and n component (Yaralıoğlu, 2001). This vector is shown below:

$$B_i = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} \\ b_{21} \\ . \\ . \\ . \\ b_{n1} \end{bmatrix}$$

In calculating the column vector B we can use formula number 2. That is the formula used in the twain comparison matrix, evaluation of every element in the same column is divided by total values which are in each column:

$$b_{ij} = \frac{a_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij}}$$

(2)

For example, if comparative matrix A, which shows the comparison with each other elements of assessment, is defined as follows and are required to calculate the vector B_1.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1/3 & 5 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 \\ 1/5 & 1/4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

In this case the element b_{11} of vector B_1 will be calculated $b_{11} = \dfrac{1}{1+3+0,2}$

It is done at the same way for the other elements of vector B_1 so the vector obtained as follows. When assemble the components of the column vector we see that the total is 1 (one).

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0,238 \\ 0,714 \\ 0,048 \end{bmatrix}$$

When you repeat the steps explained above in the values of other elements, we will have the so many B column vectors as the number of elements. When we collect according to the format of the matrix all the numbers n in the benefit column vector B, the shown below C matrix will form which is a normalized matrix.

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \cdots & c_{1n} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \cdots & c_{2n} \\ . & & & . \\ . & & & . \\ . & & & . \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \cdots & c_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

If we consider the above example matrix C will be as follows:

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 0,238 & 0,210 & 0,500 \\ 0,714 & 0,632 & 0,400 \\ 0,048 & 0,158 & 0,100 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using normalized matrix C can obtain the value of the importance by percentages of types by elements. For this, as shown in the formula number 3, taken the arithmetic mean of the components of the lines formed in the normalized matrix C and derived vector from this column vector of W is called priority vector.

$$w_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} c_{ij}}{n} \tag{3}$$

Vector W is as shown below:

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ . \\ . \\ . \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}$$

When choosing the example above priority elements of the vector can be calculated as follows. In this case the value of three factors together they will have approximately these values. The first factor 32%, 58% the second factor and the third factor 10%.

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{0,238 + 0,210 + 0,500}{3} \\ \frac{0,714 + 0,632 + 0,400}{3} \\ \frac{0,048 + 0,1580 + 0,100}{3} \end{bmatrix} \cong \begin{bmatrix} 0,32 \\ 0,58 \\ 0,10 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculation of the consistency

Although AHP method is a consistent system itself, the authenticity of the results will be dependent on compliance with comparisons between the elements that makes the decision maker. If the decision maker is shown contradictory assessments, he could not find where the dot is bigger discrepancy when he comes back. While AHP method using the advantage of double aligning assessments not only find the discrepancy but also shows that which may be appropriate values (Saaty, 1990). AHP method proposes a process to measure compliance of these comparisons. In the end it gives us the opportunity to test the consistency of the priority vector that is the degree of consistency (CR-consistency Rate) then the comparison made between the elements one by one. Core calculation of CR based on AHP method to compare the number of elements with a coefficient (λ) called fundamental value. To calculate the basic value of coefficient (λ) at the beginning it have to obtain column vector D which is obtained by multiplying the priority vector W with comparison matrix A.

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ . & & & . \\ . & & & . \\ . & & & . \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} x \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ . \\ . \\ . \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}$$

As defined in the formula number 4, acquired basic value (*E*) for each element in the evaluation of reciprocal elements between column vector *W* and *D*. The formula number 5, which include the arithmetic average of these values gives value

basic (λ) in connection with the comparison. $E_i = \dfrac{d_i}{w_i}$ ($i = 1,2,..., n$) (4), $\quad \lambda = \dfrac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n} E_i}{n}$ (5)

After the calculation of basic values (λ) with the help of formula number 6 we can find Consistency Index (CI-consistency Index).

$$CI = \frac{\lambda - n}{n - 1} \text{ (6)}$$

While in the last step of CI is obtained CR by dividing the standard adjustment value shown in Table 1 called random indicator (Random Index RI). In Table 1 is selected the value which correspond to the number of elements. For example, the value of RI to be used in a comparison with the 3 elements under table 3 will be 0:58.

Table 1: *Value of Random Index (RI)*

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Treguesi i rastësishëm	0	0	0,58	0,9	1,12	1,24	1,32	1,41	1,45	1,49	1,51	1,48	1,56

Source: Oğuzlar, 2007.

$$CR = \frac{CI}{RI} \text{ (VII)}$$

In cases where the estimated value of CR is less than 0.10 then is clear that the comparisons made by the decision maker are consistent. If the value of CR is greater than 0.10 then we have an error in calculation method AHP or instability in the comparisons made by the decision maker.

Finding the importance of the distribution from percentages degree for each element

At this stage determined the distribution of importance from the degree of percentage rate for each element. Saying in other words, matrix procedures and one by one comparison will be repeated as many time as *n* number of elements. This time the dimensions of comparative matrix *G* to be used in the decision points for each element will be *m x m*. After each comparison procedure column vector S is obtained that shows the distribution of the importance degree and by percentage degree and decision points of the evaluated item by the dimension *m x l*. This column vector is shown below:

$$S_i = \begin{bmatrix} s_{11} \\ s_{21} \\ . \\ . \\ . \\ s_{m1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Distribution of the end points of the decision.

At this stage of the decision matrix *K* with dimension *m x n* formed by the columns of the vector *S* with *n* pieces with dimension *m x l* explained above. The decision matrix shown as follows:

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} s_{11} & s_{12} & \cdots & s_{1n} \\ s_{21} & s_{22} & \cdots & s_{2n} \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ s_{m1} & s_{m2} & \cdots & s_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

In conclusion, when the decision matrix W is multiplied following the column vector (vector of priority) S we obtain a column vector L with m elements. Column vector L gives the percentage distribution of decision points. In other words the total value of the elements of the vector is 1. This distribution also provides the order of importance of the decision points.

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} s_{11} & s_{12} & \cdots & s_{1n} \\ s_{21} & s_{22} & \cdots & s_{2n} \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ \cdot & & & \cdot \\ s_{m1} & s_{m2} & \cdots & s_{mn} \end{bmatrix} x \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} \\ l_{21} \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ l_{m1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Method of Analytic Hierarchy Process is developed by passing through all the stages described above.

Conclusions

Pattern formed with the help of AHP method being simpler than the older models in use, a model of renewable over time and open to changes is more likely to be used in a lot social science fields in the future. All elements found in the hierarchical structure of the model form with the help of AHP method, after passing in the process of twain comparing, prioritize each criterion. Given that the criteria used in the model show changes from person to person for every person have different point advantage. Thanks such a model it's possible to create accurate decision making. Consequently, this model is quite convenient for the banking system, which needs accurate decision (granting loans, credit cards, etc.).

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Rethinking National Identities in Divided Societies of Post-Ottoman Lands: Lessons from Lebanon and Cyprus

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Abstract

The communal identities rooted in the *millet* system are still salient in post-Ottoman lands. Cyprus and Lebanon offer two cases where ethnic and sectarian identities are more prominent than national identities. In this respect both countries represent highly divided societies in post-Ottoman territories. This article discusses the failure of power-sharing systems in Cyprus and Lebanon, arguing that the lack of cultivation of a common national identity at the founding of these republics remains even today a central obstacle to implementing stable multinational/sectarian democratic systems. As a part of Greater Syria, today's Lebanon is a homeland to many ethnic and sectarian communities. Lebanese politics historically has been governed by a system of consociationalism, which prevents any one group from dominating the political system. This system of power sharing dates back to the 1943 National Pact, and as a result of the sectarian nature of this arrangement, religious communal identities have a stronger pull than a Lebanese national identity. These communal identities crystallized over the course of a 14-year civil war, and were exacerbated by the assassination of former Prime Minister Rafiq al-Hariri in 2005. In the case of Cyprus, the possibility of cultivating a shared national identity between Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots has historically been suppressed by kin-state relations and colonial policies which have, in turn, resulted in inter-communal conflict. An understanding of this conflict and the nature of the nationalisms of each community helps explain how the 1960 Constitution of a bi-communal and consociational Republic of Cyprus hindered inter-communal relations – a precondition for the cultivation of a common national identity – and ultimately failed. From *enosis* to *taksim* to the April 2004 referendum on the UN's Annan Plan, the contentious interaction between external constraints and collective self-identification processes subsequently reinforced ethno-religious identifications. Through an examination of such processes, this article aims to identify and illuminate the shifting forces that shape deeply divided societies in general, and that have shaped Cyprus and Lebanon in particular. Understanding such forces may help break down barriers to the development of common national narratives.

Keywords: Lebanon, Cyprus, ethnic/sectarian identities, civil wars, nationalism, *millet* system, power-sharing system

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Introduction

The communal identities rooted in the *millet* system are still salient in post-Ottoman lands. Cyprus and Lebanon offer two cases where ethnic and sectarian identities are more prominent than national identities. In this respect both countries represent highly divided societies in post-Ottoman territories.

As a part of Greater Syria (*Bilad al-Sham*), today's Lebanon is a homeland to many ethnic and sectarian communities, Maronite, Sunni Muslim and Shia Muslim, Druze, Greek Catholic and Greek Orthodox, and Armenian communities being among them. Lebanese politics historically has been governed by a system of consociationalism, which prevents any one group from dominating the political system. This system of power sharing dates back to the 1943 National Pact, and as a result of the sectarian nature of this arrangement, religious communal identities continue to have a stronger pull than a Lebanese national identity. These communal identities crystallized over the course of a 14-year civil war, and were exacerbated by the assassination of former Prime Minister Rafiq al-Hariri in 2005, which led to a surge in sectarian cleavages.

In the case of Cyprus, ethnic nationalism among Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots hinders the cultivation of a common national identity. This paper will trace the identity concept in Cyprus from its religious and class basis during the Ottoman period, through the transformations shaped by the British colonial administration, to its present ethnicized form. After outlining the context of the Ottoman *millet* system and the rise of inter-ethnic unrest and the further politicization of ethnic cleavages under the British, the analysis turns to the 1960 Constitution, which under girded a weakly structured republic from which emerged the insoluble question of Cyprus. This paper argues that the combination of kin-state relations and colonial policy have fomented ethnic rivalries that led to inter-communal conflict in the 1960s and 70s. An understanding of this conflict and the nature of the nationalisms of each community helps explain how the 1960 Constitution of a bi-communal and consociational Republic of Cyprus hindered inter-communal relations – a precondition for the cultivation of a common national identity – and ultimately failed.

This article discusses the failure of power-sharing systems in Cyprus and Lebanon, arguing that the lack of cultivation of a common national identity at the founding of these republics remains even today a central obstacle to implementing stable multinational/sectarian democratic systems. Through examining key historical and political processes, the article aims to identify and illuminate the shifting forces that shape deeply divided societies in general, and that have shaped in Cyprus and Lebanon in particular. Identifying the forces at work may be useful for understanding more generally how societies/communities/groups coexisting in hostile environments may work to overcome the obstacles they face in realizing potential commonalities.

The Case of Lebanon

"Every individual is a meeting ground for many different allegiances, and sometimes these loyalties conflict with one another and confront the person who harbors them with difficult choices". Amin Maalouf[1]

From Mount Lebanon to Greater Lebanon

Lebanon is one of the most plural societies of the Middle East region, encompassing Maronite, Sunni Muslim and Shia Muslim, Druze, Greek Catholic and Greek Orthodox, and Armenian communities (Yapp 1995: 104). The state and nation formation of Lebanon has its roots in its status as an autonomous province during Ottoman times. According to Eli Fawaz, the social composition of Lebanon makes its distinctive in the region with "a spectrum of different religious minorities … and a reputation of safe haven for them" (Fawaz 2009: 25). For William Harris, "Lebanon's pluralist politics evolved to

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[1]Amin Maalouf (2000), *In the Name of Identity: Violence and the Need to Belong*, New York: Arcade Publishing.

accommodate the pre-existing social reality of popular identification with various Muslim and Christian sectarian communities, each with its own leaders and preoccupations" (Harris 2009: 3).

The Legacy of the *Millet* System

Representing the Middle East region in microcosm, Lebanon began to enjoy "a political form and had considerable special privileges" (Salabi 1965) during the 17th century. Mount Lebanon under Ottoman rule was mostly exempted from the direct influence of the central authority as long as it fulfilled its tax obligations.

It is imperative to emphasize that the backbone of the social order in Ottoman lands was the *millet* system, wherein the population was delineated according to "their religious affiliations or confessional communities" (Fawaz 2009: 29), rather than along ethnic or linguistic lines. Thus, the *millet* system allowed non-Muslims to autonomously regulate their own social and religious practices, and also granted them certain privileges. It was within this context that the cultural identities of Lebanon's minority groups were able to flourish.

Sectarian cleavages deepened with the decline of the Ottoman Empire. It was in this context that – with the 1864 establishment of the *Mutasarrifiyya* (autonomous region) administrative council – Mount Lebanon lost its privileged status. The administrative council was an elected, multi-sectarian advisory board, epitomizing a proto-parliament (Yapp 1995). State formation in Lebanon can thus be traced back to these 19th-century regional developments.

French Colonial Rule and Nation Formation in Lebanon

As a part of Greater Syria, today's Lebanon was founded in 1920 through French mandatory rule under the supervision of the League of Nations. In Nazih Ayubi's words, "Mount Lebanon, a small geographic zone that was gradually extended to include all Maronite and Druze areas, was converted by France into a greater Lebanon in 1920, through the annexation of the (mainly Sunni and Shia) coastal towns, Jabal 'Amil and the Biqa' Valley according to a system of deliberate privilege for the Maronite Christians" (Ayubi 1995: 114). The first French High Commissioner in Lebanon, General Henri Gouraud, was the architect of the Maronite territorial demands during this period (Yapp 1995: 105). Gouraud established Maronite nationalism on several symbolic myths that emphasized the historical interaction of Mount Lebanon with the Mediterranean and linked Maronites to the Syrian Orthodox monk Maron and the Phoenicians (Kaufman 2004; Yapp 1995). The Maronite project of statehood thus had two aims: to stand on its own and to be for Christians (Yapp 1995: 105). Kaufman argues that the formation of *Grand Liban* (i.e. Greater Lebanon) was rooted in "the cooperation between French colonial circles and Christian Lebanese nationalists whose interests converged in the post-First World War years" (2004: 2). Similarly, in Nazih Ayubi's words, "Mount Lebanon, a small geographic zone that was gradually extended to include all Maronite and Druze areas, was converted by France into a greater Lebanon in 1920, through the annexation of the (mainly Sunni and Shia) coastal towns, Jabal 'Amil and the Biqa' Valley according to a system of deliberate privilege for the Maronite Christians" (Ayubi 1995: 114).

In fact, it was not until 1920 that Lebanon became detached from Greater Syria by the French Mandate and established as a separate entity for the first time in its history. Given the absence of a majority religious, sectarian or ethnic group, French rule was founded on a formula of confessional power sharing, which was then incorporated into the very underpinnings of the Lebanese state in 1926. The power-sharing formula of the Lebanese political system was based on the demographics of the national census conducted in 1932, according to which Maronites (Arab Catholics) comprised 29% of the population, Sunnis 23% and Shiites 20% (Yapp 1995). The rest of the population was divided among the Druze, Greek Catholic, Greek Orthodox and Armenian communities. The formula to rule mandate was allocated in accordance with the proportion of each sectarian group. In this *sui generis* power-sharing model, the president of the republic is elected from among the Maronites, the prime minister from the Sunnis, and the speaker of the parliament from the Shias. Thus, confessionalism granted reassurances that no one group could dominate the political system. This system of proportional representation in government was integrated into the 1943 National Pact (Lebanon Political Profile 2006: 4). As Michael Hudson states,

"... the 1943 National Pact brought Muslims into the system as Lebanon embarked on independence. Although Muslim-Christian tensions were never erased, they were managed fairly successfully over the period from 1943 to 1975. Under President Bishara al-Khoury a "grand coalition" of sectarian and feudal-business "notables" ran the country in a manner that roughly fits the consociational model" (Hudson 1997: 107–108).

Anthony Smith defines a 'nation' as "a named human population sharing an historic territory, common myths and historical memories, a mass, public culture, a common economy and common legal rights and duties for all members" (1991: 14).[1] Benedict Anderson argues in his masterpiece *Imagined Communities* that tangible communities or nations are in fact *imagined* and rely upon the manipulation of history and encouragement of nationalist sentiments to ensure a community or nation's survival. As he puts it, "It is the magic of nationalism to turn chance into destiny" (Anderson 1983: 11–12).

Lebanon, being inextricably linked to these confessional categories since the early years of the mandate rule, has lacked an 'overarching' national identity or inclusive 'Lebanonism', which would be an instrumental tool of cohesion in times of conflict, instability or war. Stewart suggests that Lebanon has a common identity and shared goals, but that they are not encouraged, and that while the country's diverse character invites tolerance and coexistence on the one hand, it has also made it vulnerable to external influence on the other (Stewart 2012). Within this socio-political context, a Lebanese individual acquires his or her social identity through familial bonds and religious affiliation rather than the Lebanese nation:

"The trust required to build secure identities has rarely been provided by the state. Instead, it has consistently derived from the family, the tribe, the sect. These ties do not necessarily come at the expense of 'nation'; instead the complex nature of identity allows for allegiances along multiple lines" (Stewart 2012: 178).

In the case of Lebanon, it is apparent that the micro-societies system helped people survive, particularly during and after the civil war. On the other hand, with respect to nation-building Stewart suggests that; "problems arise when various groups lay claim to a country's past, present and future" (Stewart 2012). Political parties and coalitions are also formed on the basis of confessional, personal and kinship ties.[2] In the Lebanese sectarian system, then, "closed communal identities are not only the basis for identity and belonging, but also for access to education and services" (Lebanon: The Persistence of Sectarian Conflict 2013: 4).

The Civil War: A test for Lebanese Identity

Lebanon's mix of minorities has caused it to be viewed as a microcosm of the complex religious and political divisions of the Middle East region as a whole. With roots in the Phoenician past and strong ties with the West, Lebanese nationalism has seen "the incorporation of larger Muslim populations into Lebanon as irreconcilable with its ideology … setting the Lebanese people apart from any concept of an 'Arab nation' (Stewart 2012: 162). The increase in the Muslim population

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[1] Later on Smith formulates an 'ideal-type' definition of the nation as "a named community possessing an historic territory, shared myths and memories, a common public culture and common laws and customs" (Montserrat Guibernau 2004: 127).

[2] The Movement of the Future (*Tayyar al-Mustaqbal*), which is under the leadership of Saad Hariri, the son of former Prime Minister Rafik Hariri (who was assassinated in 2005) has been supported by Sunni Muslims in the country and forms the main faction in the March 14 Alliance. Similarly, the Lebanese Forces supported by Maronites – Arab Catholics – were led by Samir Geagea, "who was arrested in 1994 on charges of attempting to undermine government authority by 'maintaining a militia in the guise of a political party,' of instigating acts of violence, and of committing assassinations during the Lebanese Civil War. As a part of the March 14 Alliance, this group then became part of the March 14 Coalition. The *Kataeb Party* – which is also know as Phalangists – has its main support base from the Maronite community. This group advocates an anti-Iranian and anti-Syrian regime stand, which became apparent after the assassination of former Prime Minister Rafiq al-Hariri in 2005. For instance, Pierre Gemayel, the Maronite leader of the Phalange militia stated that, "Lebanon is a mission", and the Maronite community often conducted itself in such a manner. Similarly, under the leadership of Nabih Berri, the *Amal* Movement represents one of the two main Shi'i parties in the country. The Movement has pro-Syrian stand and advocates Syrian military presence in Lebanon. The Amal Movement is one of the allies of the March 8 Coalition in the 2009 parliamentary elections. Finally, *Hezbollah* represents a Muslim Shi'i political party in Lebanon. Allied with the Syrian Bath Party and Iran, today it forms the biggest faction in the March 8 Coalition (See http://carnegie-mec.org/2015/04/17/lebanon-situation-report-pub-59832, Carnegie Middle East Center).

with the creation of Greater Lebanon, and later on with the influx of Palestinians in the aftermath of Black September, have threatened the dominance of Maronite Christians and Lebanon as a homeland for them. Meanwhile, the political structure of *Grand Liban* was viewed by its Muslim populations as safeguarding their representation in the political system. Lebanon continued to accommodate its complex religious confessional makeup through its power-sharing formula in the post-independence years, but various internal and regional dynamics strained this delicate system of governance and triggered sectarian fragmentation.

Foremost among these dynamics during the 1970s was the call from the Shiite community – which was concentrated in economically deprived southern Lebanon – for a political reconfiguration that would grant it 'real' political and economic power. These demands were based on the argument that the 1932 census was no longer representative of the demographic proportions of the country.[1] The aftermath of the Black September episode in 1971 also brought an influx of Palestinian resistance members into southern Lebanon. These developments created a regional dynamic vis-à-vis the Palestinian national movement, which within Lebanon constituted a matter of concern for the central government over the legal status of Palestinians relative to its delicate formula of confessional governance. In the Arab Middle East, the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan represents the only case wherein Palestinians have acquired full rights to citizenship. As Imad Salamey and Rhys Payne stated,

"the 'quotated' political power-sharing arrangement has historically favoured Christians over Muslims, as reflected in the proportional allocation of public offices in favour of Christians. Muslim resentment has been a major reason for domestic turmoil and civil wars since the 1940s. Beside the demographic factor, Lebanon's geostrategic position, in the midst of major regional and international battling powers, allowed the confessions to establish alliances with foreign countries and draw substantial support from them" (Salamey and Payne 2008: 452).

Having felt external pressure with the outbreak of and throughout the civil war, Lebanon, as a small country, was caught between the demands and rivalries of insiders and outsiders. Syrian and Israeli interventions into the Lebanese Civil War in 1976, 1978 and 1982 also proved that the conflict extended beyond its own borders. Syrian intervention in Lebanese internal affairs began in 1976 when Syrian President Hafiz al-Assad sent 30,000 troops to Lebanon under the label of the Arab Deterrence Force. The Taif Accords that finally put an end to the 14-year civil war has granted Syria a special role in Lebanese politics ever since. The war highlighted the fragility of the Lebanese common identity; the power-sharing mechanism ultimately failed, devastating the nation- and state-building project as parochial and sectarian identities and loyalties crystallized.

The Interplay between Sectarianism, the War in Syria and Lebanese identity

The onset of the Arab Spring and the Syrian Crisis had a prompt impact on Lebanese political life, exacerbating the internal sectarian cleavages precipitated by the assassination of Sunni-origin former Prime Minister Rafiq al-Hariri in a bomb attack in central Beirut on 14 February 2005. The assassination of Hariri had triggered increasing polarization between Lebanon's Sunni and Shia populations, ushering in its most unstable period since the end of the civil war. On the one hand the March 8 Alliance, under the leadership of Hezbollah, responded to these regional developments with a pro-Syrian regime stance, while on the other the March 14 Alliance, under the leadership of Sunni politician Saad al-Hariri (son of Rafıq al-Hariri), took a pro-Syrian opposition and anti-Iranian stance.

These policy stances towards Syria were informed by domestic developments. In 2006, within the framework of national dialogue sessions, the Baadba Declaration had been issued, marking a rejuvenation of the historic compromise between the two camps in Lebanon (Al-Monitor 2013). The declaration was committed to Lebanon's disassociation from Syria and

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[1] Due to the delicate power-sharing system on the basis of population size in the country, *no* census has been taken since 1932. According to Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) – as of 2005 – "Lebanese population is approximately 3.8 million, of which Muslim groups comprise 39% with another 1.3% of assorted religious affiliations" (Lebanon Political Profile 2006: 5).

featured the stipulation that Lebanon would not be "a passageway for the smuggling of weapons and personnel into Syria" (Middle East Report). Since then, two important events have reignited the internal cleavages between the two political coalitions. The first was the 2006 assassination of Wissam Hassan, the head of the Information Branch of Lebanon's Internal Security Forces, and the second was the arrest of former Lebanese Information Minister Michel Samha, a supporter of the Syrian regime, in August 2012. Thus, the spirit of the Baadba Declaration was lost, and Lebanon entered the post-Arab uprisings epoch with the legacy of a proxy war.

The divergent interests of the March 14 and March 8 camps vis-à-vis the crisis with Syria have hindered efforts by Lebanon's leaders to reach the necessary compromises to accommodate its political system since Rafiq Hariri's 2005 assassination. Saad Hariri's Future Current Party has brought Hezbollah's military arsenal onto the agenda, with one party official claiming that "Hezbollah has an arsenal that even the Lebanese Armed Forces don't" (ICG 2012: 21). In response, Hezbollah has tried to justify its military arsenal by arguing that it needs to deter external forces such as Israel from making Lebanon "a staging ground to destabilize Syria" (ICG 2012: 16). As summarized by the International Crisis Group (ICG),

"Lebanon's factions clearly are aware of the stakes. Each wagers on success by one Syrian side or the other, waiting to translate the ensuing regional balance of power into a domestic one. Hizbollah hardly can contemplate a future with a fundamentally different Syrian regime, has tied its fate ever more tightly to its ally's, and will not remain idle should Assad be in real jeopardy. Conversely, the Sunni-dominated Future Current and its partners see no alternative to the regime's demise, however long it will take and no matter the costs. They view the uprising as doubly strategic: a golden opportunity to seek revenge against an antagonistic regime as well as a chance to challenge Hizbollah's domestic hegemony. It is hard to see Lebanon's fragile equilibrium surviving such a winner-take-all mentality" (International Crisis Group 2012: 16)

Today, Hezbollah maintains its pro-Assad stance, and declared a second victory in Syria after the outbreak of the uprisings in the city of Daraa. Hezbollah leader Nasrallah also warned that, if Syria falls, Jerusalem will fall as well (Taşdemir 2013). Hezbollah's support of Bath rule in Syria cannot be reduced to sectarianism or their Shiite connection; it is also closely tied to the fact that, if Bashar Assad is deposed, his regime will be replaced by a Sunni-dominated regime, which would restrict Hezbollah's capacity to resist Israel around the region, as well as its position within Lebanon. This support also corresponds with Iran's participation in this 'proxy war' over Syria. All of these conflicting regional alliances and policies point unfavourably toward the possibility that an overarching Lebanese identity can be cultivated which would encourage coexistence.

The Case of Cyprus

This section deals with the development of ethnic nationalisms among Turkish and Greek Cypriots in Cyprus, which hinders the cultivation of a common national identity. The analysis will trace the transformation of the identity concept in Cyprus from it religious and class basis during the Ottoman period, through the transformations shaped by the British colonial administration, to its present ethnicized form. Firstly, the Ottoman *millet* system will be explained for the case of Cyprus. Secondly, the reasons for the intensification of inter-ethnic conflict and the further politicization of ethnic cleavages under the British colonial administration will be examined. Thirdly, the 1960 Constitution will be analysed in order to reveal the weak structure of the republic, which resulted in the insoluble question of Cyprus. This paper argues that kin-state relations,in combination with British colonial policy, fomented ethnic rivalries that resulted in inter-communal conflict in the 1960s and 70s. An understanding of this conflict and the nature of the nationalisms of each community helps explain how the 1960 Constitution of a bi-communal and consociational Republic of Cyprus hindered inter-communal relations – a precondition for the formation of a unified national identity – and ultimately failed.

Identity Formation under Ottoman Rule

Ethnic divisions in Cyprus originated as the product of an institutional design that dates back to the Ottoman *millet* system, which organized communities along religious lines. Political regimes on the island to this day preserve this principle when

delineating majority and minority populations. As a result, Cypriot political systems have been resistant to societal demands for recognition of greater diversity within and among various societal groups, for example the effort to increase interaction between Muslims and non-Muslims (Alptekin 2010). The Ottoman legacy had been the peaceful coexistence of semi-autonomous communities, including limited interaction across communities within the same villages, rather than a common life based on shared social, judicial and moral grounds or hostility with potential violent conflicts. Therefore, the ability of Turkish and Greek Cypriots to cultivate a shared cultural heritage from which a unified national narrative could emerge had been suppressed historically.

Under Ottoman rule the two main communities tended to identify themselves as either Orthodox or Muslim, and the political system encouraged the tendency towards separation. The *millet* system institutionalized each religious group as a distinct *cemaat*/community that elected its own judicial and administrative officials. "This exclusive political socialization over a long period of time contributed to the crystallization of separate ethnic identities and aspirations" (Yilmaz 2008: 429). The propensity of both communities to identify themselves with the larger Greek and Turkish nations in the post-Ottoman period reinforced such separation. The historically antagonistic relations between Greece and Turkey had a great impact on the two Cypriot communities' relations with each other and hindered the cultivation of a common Cypriot identity.

Identity Formation under British Rule

Under British rule, no significant steps were taken to generate harmony, asBritain never identified a single Cypriot tradition, but rather interpreted the Ottoman categories of 'Orthodox' and 'Muslim' as 'Greeks' and 'Turks'. The *millet* system was thus retained in a different form under British rule. "Village administrative councils were segregated and handled community affairs separately, with specially formed Joint Councils for the adjudication of matters common to both groups" (Calotychos 1998: 5–6). The new administrative policies necessitated the politicization of group cleavages, and eventually identification of the communities in terms of ethnicity. This ethnicizing – as opposed to territorializing – approach to political organization institutionalized difference rather than commonality, and segregation rather than interaction. In addition, as part of the British administration's advocacy of public education, it imported school books and teachers from Turkey and Greece and established separate schools; it also imported press from the two young 'mainland' republics, circulating aggressively nationalist publications which formulated separatenational consciousnesses among Cyprus' 'Greeks' and 'Turks' (Papadakis 2005: 143). In other words, Greek Cypriot nationalism and Turkish Cypriot nationalism were imported rather than being generated locally (An 2015: 25).

The British administration's ignorance of Greek Cypriots' demands forenosis (the ideal of unification with mainland Greece) reinforced their Hellenic nationalism. Intensifying anti-colonial sentiment among Greek Cypriots, as manifested in the violent acts of EOKA (National Organization of Freedom Fighters), pushed the Turkish Cypriot population closer to the British administration, as these were demands not for independence, but for the transfer of sovereignty from Great Britain to Greece. The *millet* system had already divided the two societies of the island, but with *enosis* this escalated to antagonism under British rule. Nationalism among Turkish Cypriots developed as a defence contra-nationalism against *enosis*, as the population sensed the possibility that demands for *enosis* would lead to Greek Cypriot domination. In response, they demanded *taksim*(partition of the island between Turkey and Greece); violent Turkish Cypriot organizations like the TMT (Turkish Defense Organization) also emerged. The psychological distance between the two communities thus further widened in the 1950s. Once intercommunal fighting started, the old hatreds and mistrust that had characterized Greco-Turkish relations since the fall of Constantinople were renewed with increasing intensity (Yilmaz 2008).

The Republic of Cyprus and Identity Policy

During the British administration, Turkish Cypriot and Greek Cypriot communities developed different national ambitions, and interference by Greece and Turkey in Cyprus reinforced these ambitions. This interference and the constitution of the 1960 republic, which was also characterized by communal dualism,further widened the gap between communities.

The Republic of Cyprus was established in 1960 under three guarantor states: Turkey, Greece and the UK. Greek and Turkish Cypriots alike were disappointed not to have achieved union with their purported national motherlands. "Drafted by the Greek and Turkish governments, it [the 1960 constitution] contained in it provisions for segregation at all levels between the Greek and Turkish communities, thus making the constitution virtually unworkable" (Zarocostas 1980: 108). Although the constitution set up a power-sharing system, it did not emphasize a common Cypriot nation or identity; instead it intensified Greekness and Turkishness. According to the constitution, the Greek community comprised "all citizens of the Republic who are of Greek origin and whose mother tongue is Greek or who share the Greek cultural traditions or who are members of the Greek-Orthodox Church", whereas the Turkish community comprised "all citizens of the Republic who are of Turkish origin and whose mother tongue is Turkish or who share the Turkish cultural traditions or who are Moslems".

In other words, the constitution established two sets of parallel political institutions to separately govern each community. Separate representation was preserved, and the representatives of each community were given such powers as to make collective decisions. (Hitchens 1997: 50–55). The two Communal Chambers granted both executive and legislative powers to each community separately within the House of Representatives and Ministries. The separation of political power by ethnicity forced members of the public to identify with either a Greek or Turkish identity, thus hindering national unity. Although the 1960 Republic had its own flag of neutral design and colour, according its constitution "the Communal authorities and institutions shall have the right to fly on holidays together with the flag of the Republic either the Greek or the Turkish flag at the same time"."The Greek and the Turkish Communities shall have the right to celebrate respectively the Greek and the Turkish national holidays".[1] Moreover, each community was given the right to receive government subsidies from Greece or Turkey for the institutions of education, culture, athletics and charity. Also, "where either the Greek or the Turkish [Cypriot] Community considers that it has not the necessary number of schoolmasters, professors or clergymen for the functioning of its institutions, such Community shall have the right to obtain and employ such personnel to the extent strictly necessary to meet its needs as the Greek or the Turkish Government respectively may provide".[2]As observed, both sides relied and still rely on the dualistic identity structure that has its roots in the *millet* system. Moreover, as Hadjipavlou also states, "even after independence, each ethnic group showed more loyalty to their own 'motherland' than to the state of Cyprus and its state symbols"(2007: 357).

The concept of separation by ethnicity in the 1960 Constitution contained provisions for joint activities between the two communities. This resulted in the crystallization of two national identities – Greek and Turkish – and ultimately the failure of the power-sharing model of the Republic of Cyprus in 1963.President Makarios proposed changes to 13 chapters of the constitution, including the removal of consensual elements which guaranteed Turkish Cypriots a share of the power. According to Turkish Cypriots, this would have transformed the republic into a pan-Hellenic nationalist Cypriot state.

However, in reaction to political developments in Greece (a military junta came to power in 1967), Makarios abandoned the*enosis* program and requested an independent Unitarian Cyprus. The two communities negotiated until 1974 but made no headway. The *de facto* division of the island since 1974 and the Turkish Cypriot leadership's unilateral declaration of independence (as the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus) in 1983 have further complicated hopes for a resolution to the ethno-national conflict in Cyprus.

As Joseph S. Joseph states,

"Despite four centuries of coexistence, the two communities remained separate, distinct, and self-contained ethnic groups divided along linguistic, religious, and cultural lines. Political division and attachment of the two groups to their motherlands

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[1] "The Constitution of the Republic of Cyprus", Article

2 http://www.presidency.gov.cy/presidency/presidency.nsf/all/1003AEDD83EED9C7C225756F0023C6AD/$file/CY_Constitution.pdf

[2] Constitution of the Republic of Cyprus, Available at: http://www.kypros.org/Constitution/English/

then reinforced the ethnicity. The lack of cross-cutting ethnic, social or political ties prevented the development of a common Cypriot political culture and overarching loyalties among the two groups"(1985: 33).

The 1960 establishment of the Republic of Cyprus had institutionalized this division (Joseph 1985). One implication of its constitution was that the government and the legislature was composed of ethnic Greek and Turkish members who represented the interests of, and were primarily responsible to, their own communities. As Zenon Stavrinides states, "Although they were all, in a sense, Cypriot leaders the very constitutional arrangements under which they reached public office were such that their Greekness or Turkishness was of fundamental importance"(1999: 6). As Burgess also points out, "In retrospect, [the 1960 Constitution] had the unfortunate consequence of emphasising, to the point of exaggeration, the 'separateness' of the two communities"(2007: 130). This bi-communal system had relied on an extremely delicate balance between centrifugal and centripetal forces influencing the polity, but with the emphasis on institutional separation, parallelism and reciprocal veto, the constitution had instead created a polity with too few powers, functions and overlapping relationships that was not equipped to provide its people withan overarching sense of national state unity (Burgess 2007).

Developments after the Failure of the Bi-communal Republic of Cyprus

Several developments during the period before 1974 need to be analysed in order to understand the impact of the interventions by Greece and Turkey into the internal affairs of Cyprus; mass public support of *enosis* and *taksim*; political conflict over the power-sharing system of the 1960 constitution and the emergence among Turkish Cypriot elites of a concept of the nation based on biological principles.[1]These developments had reframed the concepts of sovereignty, collective identity, power-sharing and territoriality as a source of conflict, ultimately leading to the disintegration of the 1960 Republic (Vural and Peristianis 2008: 41–43).

As a result of inter-communal violence in 1963, Cyprus was divided into two ethnically distinct areas. And since the 1974 war and partition of the island the two communities have grown increasingly apart, affecting identity perception. In the case of Turkish Cypriot identity, thedivision of the island into two ethnically homogenous zones resulted in the formation of a strong link between identity and territoriality. Indeed, despite official Turkish policy emphasizing the unity and uniformity of the Turkish nation as a whole, Turkish Cypriots' emphasis on the difference between themselves and mainland Turks in recent years has become progressively stronger.This shift in identity perception has occurred in reaction to the open intervention of Turkey into TRNC affairs, fear of the arrival of Turkish immigrants from Turkey, the rapid emigration of Turkish Cypriots abroad, military influence, and as a result of its economic and political isolation. Turkish Cypriots have begun to link their national identity to Cyprus as a whole, as reflected in a referendum in 2004 when 64.9% of Turkish Cypriots voted in favour of unification (Riegl 2008).

It can be argued that identity policy after 1974 has led to dynamic developments in the formation of a common national identity (Cypriotness). While Turkish Cypriots have begun to identify themselves more strongly with Cyprus, Greek Cypriots have also refused the *enosis* program for the most part. Hardliners in both communities have been replaced by constructive soft-line elites. However, despite bi-communal activities and the efforts of a bi-communal civil society, the two ethnic communities retain strong political and cultural ties with Greece and Turkey that have slowed rapprochement. From the

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[1] To legitimize the Cyprus division, an official identity policy was accepted in Northern Cyprus rejecting the existence of the Turkish Cypriots and emphasizing the existence only of the Turks who live in Cyprus. The Turkish Cypriot leader Rauf Denktash describes this as, "I am a child of Anatolia. I am a Turk from all my heart with my roots in Central Asia. I am a Turk by culture, language and I share our joint history. The terms like a joint state, Cypriot culture, Cypriot Greeks and Cypriot Turks are nothing but empty words" (Kizilyurek and Kizilyurek, 2004: 48).

struggle for *enosis* and *taksim*to the April 2004 referendum politics, the interaction between external constraints and collective self-identification processes has propagated a variety of identity concepts, including ' 'Motherland nationalism','Cypriotism','Greek Cypriotism' and 'Turkish Cypriotism'. These identity shifts will heavily influence the resolution of the Cyprus problem.

Recent UN proposals and ongoing negotiations towards the reunification of the island continue to lack the elements necessary to cultivate a common national sentiment or Cypriot identity. Article 3 of the latest UN Plan, called the Annan Plan, explicitly specifies that the exercise of political rights is tied to ethnic identity: "Other than in elections of senators, which shall be elected by Greek Cypriots and Turkish Cypriots separately, political rights at the federal level shall be exercised based on internal constituent state citizenship status. Political rights at the constituent state and local level shall be exercised at the place of permanent residency." In other words, no citizen can undertake a political activity as a Cypriot, but must identify himself or herself as Turkish or Greek. No constitutional proposal put forward has seriously envisaged an electoral system for the federal executive that favours moderates and encourages cooperation (i.e. a cross-voting system which could include modest centripetalists). An appropriate electoral system (i.e. countrywide rather than ethnicity based) that has the structural capacity to bind the federation together while simultaneously representing and accommodating the social diversities expressed by sub-national parties in the federal polity, needs to be explored for successful reunification of the island.

A Common National Identity: Cypriotness/Cypriotism

National identity is the primary form of identity that generates a sense of belonging and unity, offering people authenticity, historical continuity and rootedness in a common territory (Dieckhoff and Gutierrez 2001). It relies on the oppositional images of 'us' and the 'other' to achieve unity among members of a particular 'us-group' and affirm its distinction from a 'they-group' (Billig 1995). The concept of the nation can accommodate multiple subordinated identities and binds people together despite differences (Calhoun 1997). Since nations are discursively constructed,the definition of who is included within and excluded from the category of 'the nation' can evolve alongside the ever-changing political context of its production (Reicher & Hopkins,2001). Its*constructedness*must then be naturalized and embedded within the routines of everyday life (Billig 1995; Edensor 2002; Oʹzkırımlı 2000).

Cypriotness has emerged as a political ideology in response to the shortcomings of ethno-religious nationalisms. For example, in the context of the establishment and later dissolution of the 1960 Republic, for Greek Cypriot nationalists, a concept like Cypriotness would have threatened the unity of Hellenism and the Greek character of Cyprus, while Turkish Cypriot nationalists feared the idea of Cypriotness would not meaningfully include them. As Vural and Rüstemli argue, 'Cypriotness' has been the territorial-civic component of collective identity, which was used by members of the Greek-Cypriot and Turkish-Cypriot communities to separate their identities from mainland Greece and Turkey respectively (2006: 332). However, civic nationalism has not been strong enough to challenge the hegemony of nationalist ideologies that have emphasised Greek or Turkish ethnicity and the desire of many Turkish and Greek Cypriots to see themselves as parts of greater nations.

The idea of Cypriotism has its roots in the political left (Mavratsas 1996: 92). Cypriotism within Greek Cypriot society began with abi-communal character and a strong antagonism toward Greek nationalism (Hamit 2009: 52). Similarly, from the early 1980s through the early 2000s, Cypriotism among Turkish Cypriots had a bi-communal character and a strong antagonism toward Turkish nationalism and the immigrant population from Turkey, who came to be regarded as a threat to Turkish Cypriot identity. Recent evidence on intergroup relations between Turkish Cypriots and Turks from mainland Turkey indicates a clearer separation between the two communities (Cakal 2012).However, for the Turkish Cypriot Community, the bi-communal character of Cypriotismhas become less important as a result of the rejection of the Annan Plan by the Greek Cypriot community in the 2004 referendum.

Both communities have felt a groundswell of 'Cypriot identity' or 'Cypriotness' based on 'historical, cultural and social dimensions' of their experiences (Faustmann 2003). The dominant concept of Greek Cypriot nationalism has often been challenged by ideas of national consciousness (Mavratsas 1997: 15). Consequently, despite its bi-communal nature, Cypriotism as an ideology (rather than as a national identity) has had different meanings and has evolved differently in each community. What is common to Cypriotism among both Greek and Turkish Cypriots is that it was a response to "disjunction to the Greek and Turkish nationalisms" (Hamit 2009: 51). Cypriotism can be regarded as a discursive representation of a nation or imagined community constructed as an inclusive and unifying collective identity for Cyprus (Vural & Rüstemli 2006: 332). However, in reality the contradictory and exclusionary character of nationalist ideologies remains an obstacle to resolving the Cyprus problem.

According to the Cyprus 2015 poll, large majorities from both communities consider themselves to have either Greek or Turkish cultural roots. However, whereas large majorities of Turkish Cypriots consider Turkey to be their 'motherland', a significant number of Greek Cypriots do not consider Greece to be their 'motherland'.

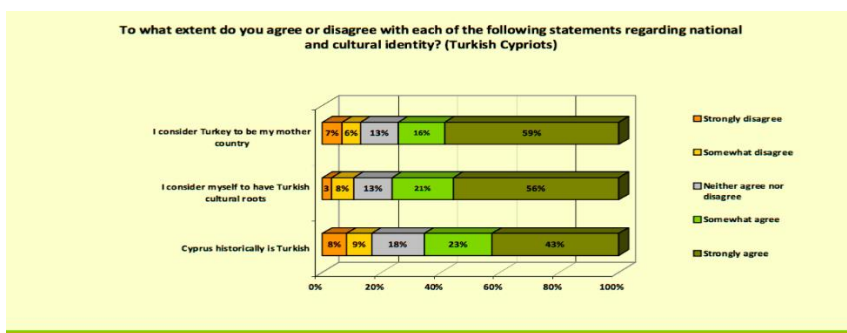Table 1: National and Cultural Identity (Greek Cypriots)
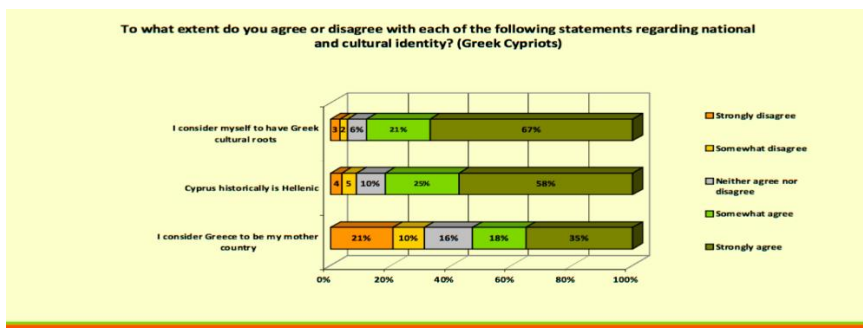
National and Cultural Identity (Greek Cypriots)

Greek Cypriots still tend to identify strongly with their Greek cultural roots, but many of them have now abandoned the notion of "Greece as mother country".

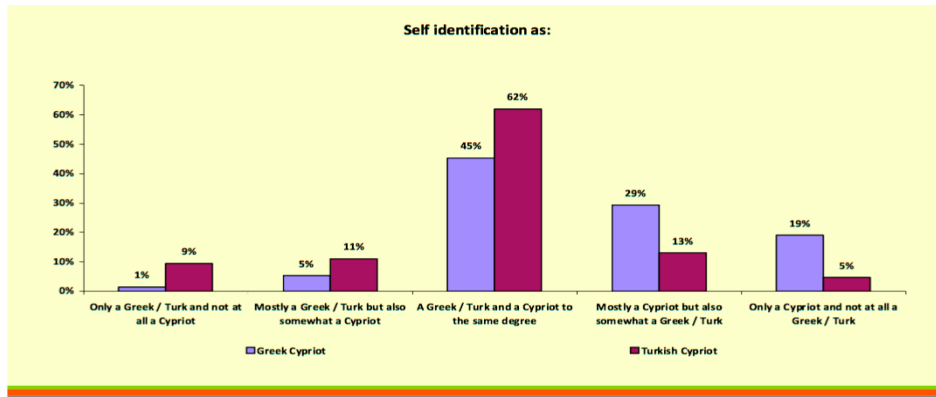Table 2: National and Cultural Identity (Turkish Cypriots)

National and Cultural Identity (Turkish Cypriots)

Turkish Cypriots still remain loyal to the notion of "Turkey as motherland", at least to the extent that a majority of them acknowledges having Turkish cultural roots.

Table 3: Self-identification

Self identification as:

Managing contested identities

Greek Cypriots are equally divided between those who consider themselves more Cypriot than Greek and those who consider themselves Greek and Cypriot to the same degree while few consider themselves to be more Greek than Cypriot . Turkish Cypriots present a more uniform picture, with a clear majority considering themselves to be Cypriot and Turkish to the same degree, and about equal minorities considering themselves, on the one hand, to be more Cypriot than Turkish, and on the other hand, more Turkish than Cypriot.

interpeace

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Cyprus 2015

According to Table 3, the subgroup identity of both communities is high, as opposed to more exclusive ethnic or national identities. Significantly, few Greek Cypriots consider themselves Greek only. A significant number of Greek Cypriots claim to be Cypriot only. By contrast, Turkish Cypriots mainly identified themselves as Turkish Cypriots, and relatively few considered themselves to be Cypriot. Among both communities, only small percentage identifies themselves exclusively with the 'motherland'identity. Equal minorities of Turkish Cypriots consider themselves, on the one hand, to be more Cypriot than Turkish, and on the other hand, more Turkish than Cypriot.

However, in order to achieve a viable reunited federal Cyprus,an inclusive form of Cypriot identity/Cypriotness must be cultivated. Reduced commitment to Cypriot identity and stronger attachment to 'motherlands' – mainly due to exclusionary identities and a sense of threat from the other community – have resulted in a deterioration in relations between the two communities. It remains hard to change these views, as they have been reinforced by collective memory, master narratives, rituals and 'national' celebrations (see Psaltis & Cakal, 2016), and the process of reunifying Cyprus has reached a stalemate.

Conclusion

The legacy of differentiation in Cyprus among communities under Ottoman rule and inter-ethnic tension in the late-Ottoman period was retained through strong ethnic identifications and polarization under the British colonial administration. This legacy was felt in the 1960 Constitution, and to some extent in the UN-led proposals so far. Additionally, geographical division and low levels of contact between the two communities indicate that Cypriot identity is still not embraced by both communities. The micro-society affiliations or sub-state identities have always been stronger than that of national identity in the case of Cyprus. Inter-communal conflicts led to the collapse of the common republic in 1963 and triggered the rise of ethno-nationalism on both sides.

In the case of Lebanon, although its ethno-religious pluralism made it exceptional as a place of tolerance and coexistence during the Ottoman period, the same diversity and pluralism led the country to open itself to external influence. The competing influence of these various regional actors on the Lebanese political landscape has brought conflicting outlooks regarding the future of the country. During the civil war, the confrontation was between Muslims and Christians, however

in the post-Hariri assassination era, the social polarization has shifted. The new March 8 Alliance comprising mainly Shias represents one faction, and the March 14 Alliance under the leadership of Maronites and Sunnis is on the other.

In this respect, Lebanon and Cyprus have illustrated that building common national identities in the divided societies of the post-Ottoman lands requires in-depth analysis. The case of Cyprus has suggested that the ethnic nationalisms (Turkish and Greek Cypriot nationalism) and affiliations with the imagined motherlands of each community is still salient, and the lack or weakness of a territorial identity is one of the main obstacles to building a unified future for the island. In the case of Lebanon religious affiliations and identities like Maronite, Sunni, Shia or Druze also remain more influential than Lebanese identity. The Maronites on one hand historically have felt a sense of ownership over Lebanon based on reference to its Phoenician heritage; on the other hand, the Shias perceive their future with Syria based on historical and sectarian ties. In brief, both cases have shown that the legacy of *millet* system – which socially organized populations in the Ottoman territories by religious community (*cemaat*, communal identity) – is still endemic in the region.

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Local Knowledge of Coastal Community to Sea Level Rise and Climate Change

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Abstract

Climate change has the potential to substantially affect risk of flooding and associated impacts to infrastructure, agriculture, fisheries and human health in coastal communities. The effects of climate changes are not only on physical aspects such as sea level rise and inundation, but will affects individuals and communities mainly at coastal areas. Due to this scenarios, this study will focused on local knowledge of coastal community to sea level rise and climate change. Specifically, the objectives of the study is to identify the level of knowledge, and awareness of coastal community related to sea level rise and climate change. Finding showed that 66.7 percent of the coastal community have a knowlegde of climate change, and 59.3 percent agreed that sea level rise scenario as part of impact of climate change. Furthermore, 77.8 percent of them aware and agreed that sea level rise have an impact on their economic, infrasturucture and recreation activities. They also aware that potential of climate change because of naturally phenomenon (63.0 %) and human activities (59.3 %) such as open burning and agriculture activities. Generally, this study to provide insigh into the communities knowledge on and adaptation strategies towards the treat of sea level rise.

Keywords: Climate change, sea level rise, coastal community, inundation, perception

INTRODUCTION

Climate change is a change in climate quantities attributed directly or indirectly to natural inconsistency such as human activity including anthropogenic increases in greenhouse gases that alter composition of the global atmosphere. Global warming leads to thermal expansion, which causes sea level rise. The increases in sea level rise are consistent with warming. Global sea level rise is also a result of the exchange of water between oceans and reservoirs (IPCC AR-4, 2007)

Sea level rise is an increase in the mean sea level of the ocean. According to Thurman and Burton (2000), sea level rise has been rising since the end of the glaciations about 15,000 years ago. Also, The Intergovernmental Panel of Climate Change has high confidence that the rate of global mean SLR increased between the mid-19th and 20th centuries. Based on IPCC AR-4 (2007) prediction, the average rate of SLR was 1.7 +- 0.5 mm/yr for the 20th century, 1.8 +- 0.5 mm/yr for 1961-2003, and 3.1 +- 0.7mm/yr for 1993-2003. Finally, study by Patz (2000), stated SLR is expected to rise 56 cm by 2100. These scenarios are expected to rise at a greater rate this century due to melting and loss of ice and thermal expansions of the ocean due to warming.

Sea level rise can change locally and globally due to change in the shape of the ocean basins, and change in the total water mass and density (Delpla et al., 2009). According to Fitzgerald et al. (2008), the low-lying coastal area infrastructure and thier stock is at an increasing risk due to damage from sea level rise inundation, extreme astronomical tides, storm surge flooding, erosion, and others coastal hazards. Bates et al. (2008) state that hazards from sea level rise are theating the infrastructure, local resources, settlements and facilities that are the livelihood of coastal communities along the

shorelines. The risk also continues to increase due to the continuing growth of coastal cities and tourism. Overall, sea level rises can considerably influence human populations in coastal and island regions and natural environments like marine ecosystems, plantation, and many other. In another hand, sea level rise can increase the height of storm waves, inundate and flood low lying areas, causing losses to tidal wetlands, habitat, and agricultural areas. Its also can cause higher water tables and salt water intrusion, interfering with septic systems, drinking water and irrigation water. Finally. Sea level rise also is expected to continue for centuries.

Research on the climate change issue and sea level rise impacts is still lacking in Malaysia. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to identified the perceptions of local knowlegde on sea level rise issues, investigate the socio-economic impact of sea level rise and to propose potential adaptation options for solve this problem. Coastal communities along the shorelines of Malaysia are already feeling the impacts of coastal flooding and sea level rise in the form of flooded businesses, overflowing sewers and crumbling infrastructure. One of the impacts of global climate change for the shoreline in Selangor is an increase of sea level rise and hazards to the vulnerable communities. This change will impact both biological and cultural resources located along the coastline

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study area

Malaysia has long been recognised as tourist hotspots due its beach attraction. Not only that, with the coastline spanned to a total of 4083 km, Malaysia offers the most bio-productive area for marine associated life, fish and wildlife. However, due to the dynamic environment, including high intensity waves and anthropogenic activities, the coastline is experiencing severe shoreline erosion. The government took serious concern on this matter and carried out a continuous assessment on the coastal erosion since 1984. Climate change will interact differently with the variety of human activities and other drivers of change along Coastlines. Changes in weather and climate extremes and sea level rise may impact the demand for fisherman and farmers, including critical infrastructures such as transportation, jetty and place of interest. The population and assets exposed to coastal risks as well as human pressures on coastal ecosystems will increase significantly in the coming decades due to population growth, economic development and urbanization.

Coastal systems and low-lying areas will increasingly experience adverse impacts such as submergence, coastal flooding and coastal erosion due to relative sea level rise. The sea level rise does not only gives significant impact to the livelihood of the coastal communities but also has direct influence on the disruption of national economics, destruction of valuable assets and most importantly the irrecoverable lost of land. As most of the cities in Malaysia are situated near to the coast, immediate actions are needed to minimise the undesired outcome from the sea level rise.

In Malaysia, more than 70% of the coastline is facing erosion problem. Climate change and sea level rise can give rise to high impacts such as destruction of assets and disruption to economic sectors, loss of human lives, mental health effects, or loss on plants, animals, and ecosystem and their severity depends on their extremes, exposure and vulnerability (Md. Sujahangir et al., 2014). Sea level rise was identified as one of the factors leading to coastal erosion (Bruun, 1962). Sea level rise may reduce the size of an island or state and its' infrastructure i.e. airports, roads, and capital cities, which normally predominate in the coastal areas; worsen inundation, erosion, and other coastal hazards; threaten vital infrastructure, settlements, and facilities; and thus compromise the socio-economic wellbeing of the island communities and states (Jeofry & Rozainah, 2013)

Methods:

This study analysed both primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained throught observation and interviews. Observations were conducted at residential areas of the coastal community including the fishing villages such as Bagan Nakhoda Omar, Batu Laut, Jeram and Tg. Sepat. Overall, the study area encompassed the coastol community along the southern Selangor coast stretching from Tg Sepat to Bagan Nakhoda Omar at the Northern Selangor coast. **Figure 1** shows the settlements involved along the study area.

Social survey and interviewing was conducted door-to-door over a 10 days period by four part-time interviewers who are postgraduate student and well trained in the particular interviewing techniques used in this research. A total of 100 sets of quenstionnaires were randomly administered to get the comprehensive data on the perception of the coastal community

on sea level rise and climate change. The sample consisted of respondent of differents educational and background etcs. Data obtained in thus study were processed within statistical package of SPSS. Whereas, statistical analyzes that were used are:- descriptive statistical methods (frequencies).

RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS:

Demographic Characteristic

Overall respondents age range was between 21 and 60 years. Age of the respondents is one of the most important characteristics in understanding their views about the particular perceptions. Due to ethnicity, 66.7 percent of them are Chinese community, followed by Malays (29.6 %) and Indian (3.7 %). Majority of the respondent indicated that they have intended Upper secondary education, with portion of 40.8 percent. In term of household member, the alanysis showed that almost half of the respondents have a number of households in a range of 1 to 2 (44.4 %) and 3 to 4 members (37.0 %) respectively. Only 18.6 percent of the respondents consusted of more than 5 members (Table 1).

Table 1: Respondents' Demographic Background

Type of respondents	Percentage (%)	Household member's	Percentage (%)
Husband	70.4	Less than 2	44.4
Wife	14.8	3 – 4	37.0
Son/daughter	14.8	More than 5	18.6
	100.0		100.0
Education levels	Percentage (%)	Age	Percentage (%)
No formal education	33.3	21 – 30 years	7.4
Primary scholl	25.9	31 – 40 years	11.1
Upper secondary	40.8	41 – 50 years	22.2
		More than 51 years	59.3
	100.0		100.0

Source: Field survey, Jan. 2017

Employment status of the respondents within the study area is influenced mostly by their educational level, expertise and surrounding employment opportunites. Based on Figure 1, less than 20 percent of the respondents are unemployed (18.6 %) who are comprised of uneducated, housewives and the elderly. The numbers of respondents engaged in business sectors as well as in the private sectors are 29.6 pecent and 22.2 percent respectively.
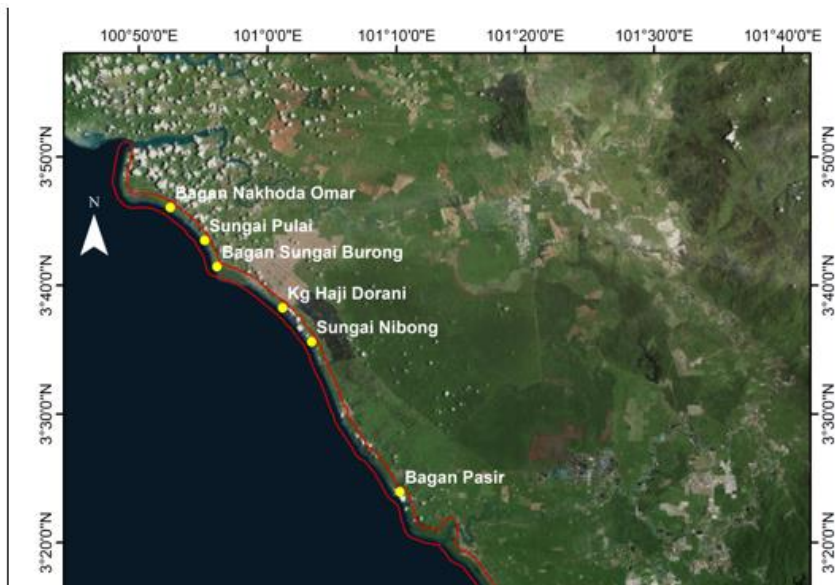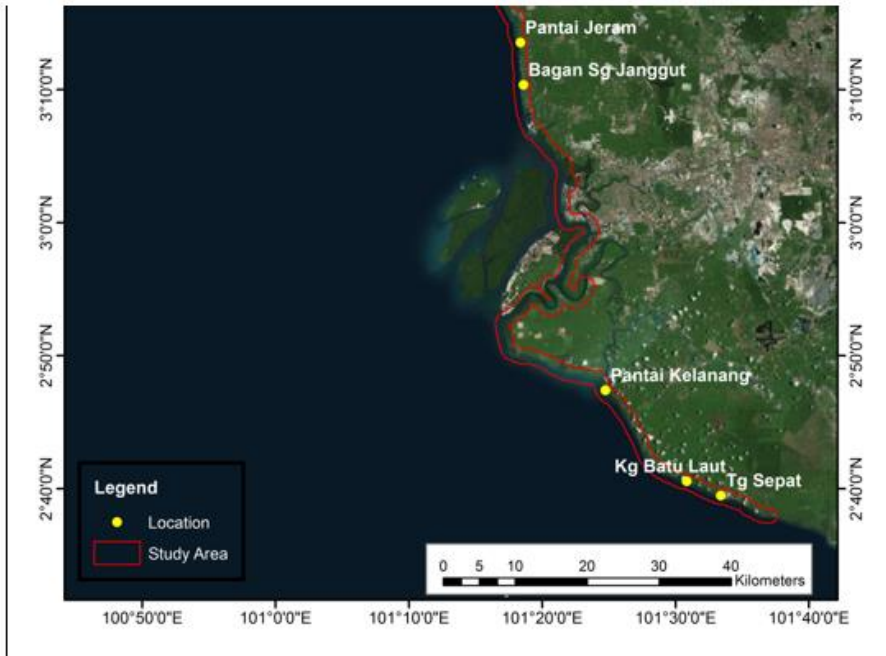
Figure 1: Study area along the Selangor shoreline from Kg Tg Sepat to Bagan Nakhoda Omar (BNO)
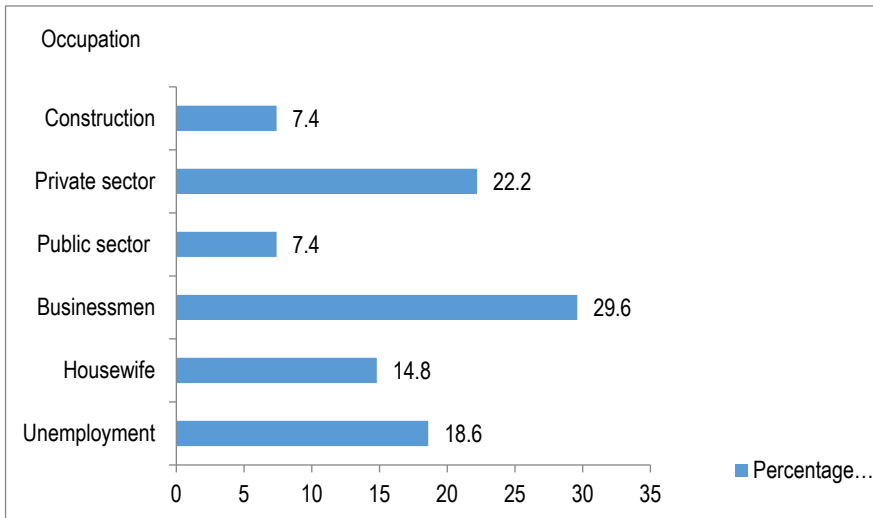

Figure 2: Respondents' Occupational profile

Figure 3 shows the income distribution of the respondents. On a whole, the income profile of the repondent showed that 29.6 percent earn less than RM1000 per month and less than 20 percent a month earning income between RM1,001-

RM2,000 and above RM3,001 and above. Overall, level of household income in the study area is considered low where almost half families living in the area earn less than RM2,000 per month.
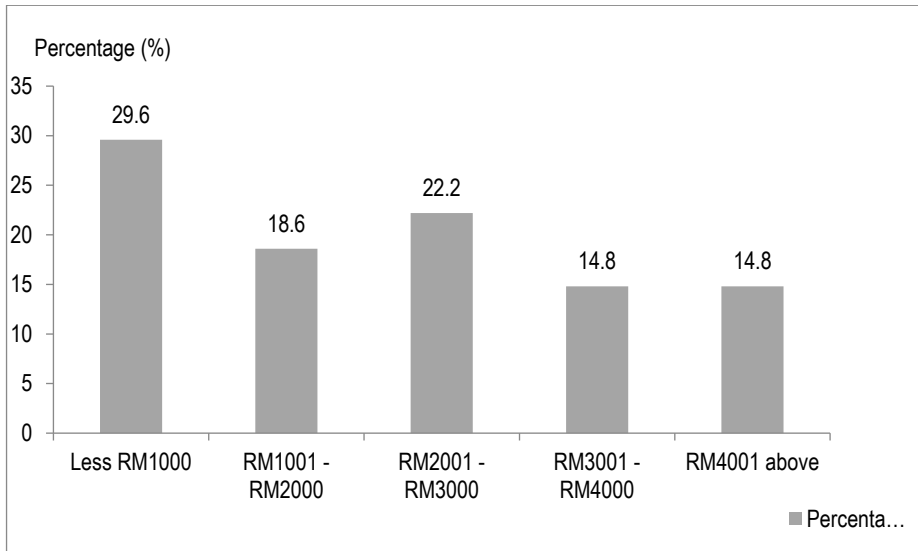

Figure 3: Respondents' Income in Study area

Source: Fieldwork survey, Jan. 2017

Awareness and Perceptions

Table 2 shows the current issues related to the physical and human environment. Based on table 2, two items such as climate change and the impact of sea level rise is the current issues that are not the main discussed among respondent. With respect to main sources of climate change and sea level rise issues and indicators (Figure 4), most of the respondents (85.2 %) that have been interviewed knew about it through television (news, film and documentary). Others additional sources were obtained from radio (44.4 %), head of villager (40.7 %), spread by family members (33.3%), internet and newspaper (29.6 %), and local authority (11.1 %).

Table 2: Current issues discussed among the respondent

Items	Yes	No
Education opportunities	48.1	51.9
Decreased on health quality	11.1	88.9
Quality of life decreased	29.6	70.4
Environmental pollution increased	18.5	81.5
Climate change issues	29.6	70.4
Impact of sea level rise	0.0	100.0

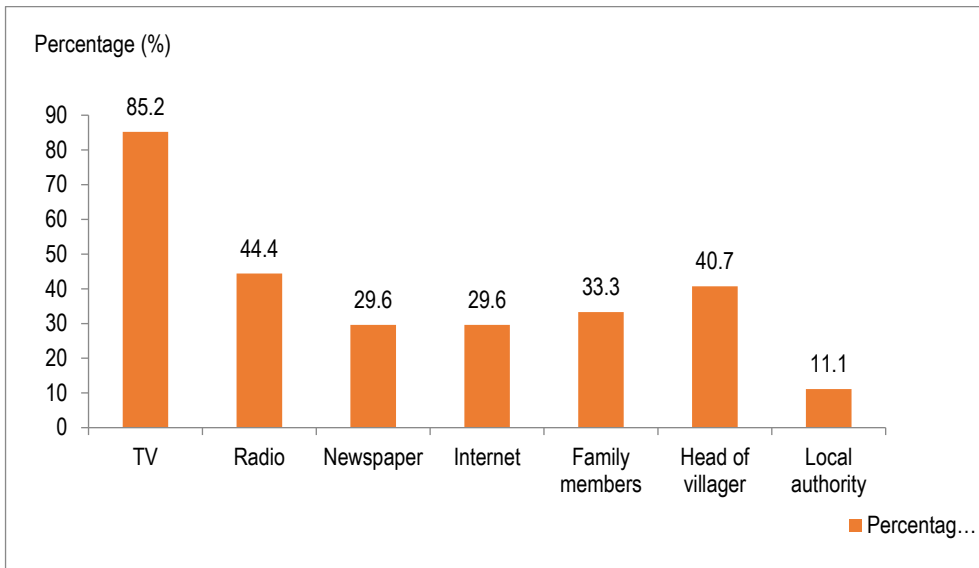Source: Fieldwork, Jan. 2017.

Percentage (%)

Figure 4: The sources of knowledge on Climate change and sea level rise

Source: Fieldwork, Jan. 2017.

Experienced and knowledge to climate change and sea level rise

According to Figure 5, most of the respondents have their own meteorological experienced on climate change and sea level rise such as drought, storms, flooding/flash flood, and coastal erosion. Based on Figure 5, majority of respondents have seldom experienced due to climate change and sea level rise indicators. For example, indicator flooding/ flash flood showed that more than one-third of the respondents have their own experienced.
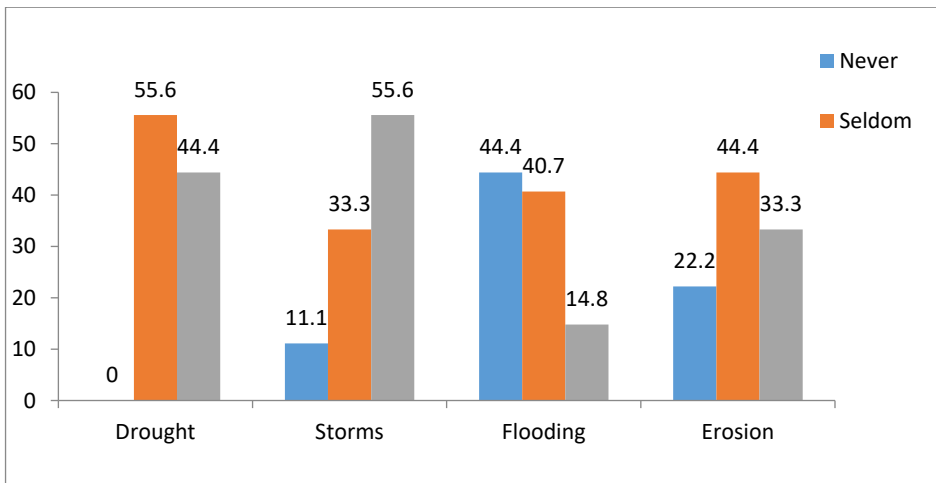

Figure 5: Experienced and knowledge to climate change and sea level rise, Source: Fieldwork, Jan. 2017.

Knowledge on Climate Change

An analysis of the perception of knowledge on climate change revealed that almost two-third (66.7 %) of the respondent knew about climate change and impact of sea level rise of the study area. Impact of climate change to sea level rise indicated that 55.6 percent of respondent knew about the issues. The evidence of sea level rise mentioned by respondent consisted of flooding (33.3 %), "*Laut makan darat*" (41.7 %) and level of coastal tidal (25.0 %). The study also attempts to gauge the perceptions of the local's community regarding the impact of climate change. 63.0 percent of the respondent agreed the climate change occur because of natural hazards and another 59.3 percent because of human activities (Table 3).

Table 3: Perception of coastal community on sea level rise and climate change

No	Items	Yes	No
1.	The temperature is getting hot lately	100.0	0.0
2.	Water and glaciers melting cause in global sea level rise	30.0	70.0
3.	Climate change impact of human activity	59.3	40.7
4.	Climate change is a natural process	63.0	37.0
5.	Reduction of land area (beach)	44.0	57.0
6.	Increased of sediment in some coastal areas	25.9	74.1
7.	The shallow of estuary	74.1	25.9
8.	Less of mangrove	74.1	25.9

Source: Fieldwork, Jan. 2017

Impact of Sea level rise

Global climate change is expected to cause sea level rise, which will have major effect on human and physical environment along the coastal area in Selangor because part of the shoreline is a low-lying area. According to Cohen at al. (1997) and Gommes et al. (1998), human environment could be affected significantly, as nearly 20 percent of the world's population lives within 30 km of the sea, and approximately 40 percent live within 100 km of the coast. In case of coastal along the study area, its was found that sea level rise impact on human and physical environment toward up to 1000 meters to the mainland. Table 3 shows part of impact of sea level rise in study area on human and physical environment.

Table 3: Impact of sea level rise in study area on human and physical environment.

No	Human and physical environment	Impact
1.	Ecosystems & Critical species	Bay ecosystems, which provide habitat for many endangered and threatened species, are extremely vulnerable to inundation that is expected to result in habitat shift. These shifts could cause the loss of irreplaceable habitats for critical species in many areas. Upland areas are vulnerable to erosion, and sub-tidal ecosystems are threatened by erosion of upland areas when it results in degraded water quality. Vulnerable ecosystems along the coastal of study area has been indicated at Kg Batu Laut, Morib beach, Jeram beach, Remis beach and Bagan Nakhoda Omar
2.	Parks, Recreation & Public access	Shoreline parks and recreational facilities are extremely vulnerable to regular inundation due to extensive exposure around the Bay and high sensitivity to inundation impacts. For example the Bagan Lalang, Morib, Jeram, Remis and Bagan Nakhoda Omar beaches. The system is highly vulnerable to flooding because of extensive exposure and high sensitivity, but adaptive capacity to cope with flooding is higher than for most other systems
3.	Local transportation facilities	Access provided by local transportation facilities will be vulnerable to flooding and inundation. Roads and other facilities could also be vulnerable to flooding and inundation due to saturated soils and impacts on road substructure and pavement degradation
4.	Vulnerable populations	Many groups that are currently vulnerable – such as low income residents, fishermen, and ethnic minorities. Residents that work in sectors that could be adversely impacted by future flooding are also a key vulnerability. Example the coastal community (especially among the fishermen) at Tg Sepat, Kg Batu Laut, Bagan Sg Janggut, Jeram Beach, Bagan Pasir, Sg Nibong, Kg Hj Dorani, Bagan Sg Burong, and Bagan Nakhoda Omar.

Adaptations and Mitigating Plan

Adaptation measures are an important strategy in reducing the adverse impacts of sea level rise natural and human systems along the coastal area. The development and implementation of adaptation strategies will require the integrated active involvement of all parties in the country, government sectors, private sector and the community. According to Al-Jeneid et al. (2008), the significant challenges exist in developing these adaptation strategies due to uncertainties in climate change issues and in projections of possible future climate chane at a regional or national level.

Currently, there are no current thoughts on the technical and institutional aspects of adaptation to sea level rice impact in Malaysia. At present no policy perspectives to include long-term evolution and associated sea level rise influence. A hard and long-term commitment has to be made in order to encourage coastal managers and general public to impacts of sea level rise and associated direct and indirect social and economical impacts, as changes related with sea level rise are slow and almost unnoticeable. Coastal managers should realize the need to begin advance planning for sea level rise.

Coastal access, Residentials, Fishermen Jetty and Recreational opportunity

Coastal access, residentials area and recreational opportunities are prevented when these facilities are flooded. Because this system cannot perform its primary function when exposed, it is considered to have a very high sensitivity to flooding impacts. Coastal area, residentials, fishermen jetty and recreational facilities would have a moderate capacity to adapt to flooding in the extreme events scenarios. Longer-term adaptive capacity to inundation is mixed. Such as coastal area, residentials, fishermen jetty and recreational facilities become flooded more regularly or inundated altogether, it likely will be very difficult to maintain coastal access or public road by developing new facilities that would themselves be highly vulnerable.

Decision-makers may also encounter resistance to spending funds on coastal and fishermen facilities that will be, by nature, vulnerable to future flooding.This vulnerability may also be an opportunity, however; as coastal land use evolves in the context of sea level rise, creating low- impact, passive open space in vulnerable areas may be appealing, since these uses require less investment and are more capable of coping with flooding than buildings and other infrastructure.

Coastal area, residentials, fishermen jetty and recreational facilities are highly vulnerable to flooding and inundation, due to their extensive exposure and high sensitivity.These uses will be more exposed to flooding and inundation than any other land use, and they are unable to serve their function when flooded. The following strategies are options for addressing the flooding and inundation vulnerabilities of residential, fishermen jetty and recreation space, as prioritized by the local stakeholder working group and technical advisory committee.

- Prioritize the development of passive, naturalized parks, open space, and habitat land in areas that are vulnerable to flooding, to minimize risk to higher-value infrastructure, and to promote low-impact development stormwater management.
- Evaluate site-specific vulnerabilities, identifying structures such as traditional housing and jetties that may be at risk. Identify adaptation responses as plans or projects are developed.

Basic Policy Initiatives - Basic policy initiatives are needed to protect investments in vulnerable areas, minimize coastland loss of vulnerable low-lying areas, conserve natural ecosystems, control coastal erosion, and protect groundwater resources. The basic policy initiatives should recognize the ever-continued pressures on coastal areas and the need of the coastal community for developing these sites including the vulnerable ones. These needs and major impacts of sea level rise are to be addressed in a plan composed of actions and processes. Specific arrangement should emphasize on:

- Integrate sea level rise considerations into national development plans and policies
- Spot coastal protection area - Vulnerable coastal areas contain industrial compounds, recreational facilities and human settlements. These areas are of high priority and public investment
- Public awareness, develop on knowledge capability and Stakeholder capacity on climate change process and sea level rise impact

CONCLUSIONS

In an attempt to relate the potential impacts of climate change, in particular sea level rise, the coastal community along the Selangor shoreline will be adversely impacted by the change. While this study only looked at local knowledge of coastal community of sea level rise impact on socio-economic aspect, the results provide a starting place in which to discuss and develop the long-term impact of climate change in particular sea level rise. Finding of local knowledge to sea level rise and climate change also a good starting to provide recommendation for educating and enhancing adaptive capacity on sea level rise and climate change and to produce guidelines and strategy to reduce impact and vulnerability of climate change in the coastal area. Further study is still required specifically focuses on storm damage, which could affect the desired height of sea walls and the resulting flood damages.

Acknowledgments

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